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Determinants of Skilled Birth Attendance Utilization in Nepal's Bagmati Province

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Abstract

The study attempts to analyze the factors influencing the utilization of Skilled Birth Attendance in Bagmati Province, Nepal. It uses data derived from the 2022 Nepal Demographic and Health Survey (NDHS). Logistic regression analysis associations of SBA use with the following characteristics: age, birth order, religion, caste/ethnicity, education, place of residence, and wealth quintile. Less than 0.05 is an indication of significance level, and results are reported as odds ratios (OR) with 95 percent confidence intervals (CI). The SBA is clearly determined by differences across demographics and socioeconomics. SBA is thus influenced strongly by the factor of age. Older women (30-49) had odds 20.7 times greater than those under 20. This indicates that most older mothers are likely to be financially stable and have their families supporting them. First births have apparent SBA rates, at 48.7 percent, lower for the second birth (39.3%), and then sharply lower for subsequent births (12.1%). Caste and ethnicity have been additional opposed parameters as far as poor users were concerned for Janjati and Terai. Wealth was the strongest such that a woman in the richest quintal had 61.9 times higher odd of accessing SBA compared to a woman from the poorest quintile. Education and rural residence were found to have very limited independent importance, which indicates that there were systemic barriers than just education and geography. Such findings give rise to evidence concerning the required specific interventions as healthcare subsidies, culturally adaptive programs, improved rural health infrastructure, and providing economic supports to disadvantaged groups. Reducing these inequalities is thus necessary to make maternal health services equitable, thereby limitation maternal and neonatal mortality. Future study should

include the linkages between these factors for overall policy development for equity in health results.

Keywords: Skilled Birth Attendance (SBA), Maternal Health, Socio-economic Disparities, Health Inequities, Bagmati Province

Introduction

Maternal health is one of the most important indicators for health and development. Although there has been progress in healthcare all over the world, disparities between maternal health services particularly skilled birth attendance (SBA) still constitute a approaching problem for developing countries like Nepal. Attended birth by trained healthcare personnel (midwife, nurse, or doctor) during delivery is what is called SBA. It has been shown as a very effective intervention to reduce mortality and morbidity among mothers and neonates (Bhutta et al., 2022). Access and use of SBA, however, are not simply dependent on a limited number of factors but are largely influenced by a number of demographic, socioeconomic, cultural, and geographic factors. Access and use of SBA, however, are not simply dependent on a limited number of factors but are largely influenced by a number of demographic, socioeconomic, cultural and geographic factors.

From 1996 to 2019, the country made some progress in maternal health: the maternal mortality ratio in Nepal dropped from 539 maternal deaths per 100,000 live births in 1996 to 186 by 2019 (World Health Organization [WHO], 2021). Despite these gains, there remain considerable differences, especially as far as the provinces, socioeconomic strata, and marginalized groups are concerned with SBA utilization. Bagmati Province, including the Kathmandu Valley, is one of the more developed regions of Nepal. Still, inequities regarding maternal health results are prevalent within this province, especially associated with rural and socioeconomically disadvantaged people (Ghimire et al., 2020).

The study attempts to examine the factors influencing the utilization of SBA services in Bagmati province with special attention to demographic determinants such as age and birth order; socio-economic influences such as education and wealth; and cultural factors such as religion and caste/ethnicity. This exploration of the determinants of SBA use will lead to enabling policymakers to design

targeted interventions to reduce the barriers preventing access to service in maternal health care and thus improve the maternal and neonatal results.

The use of SBA is a result of demographic, socio-economic, cultural, and health system factor interactions. This literature review summarizes the important findings of recent studies on the determinants of SBA utilization in Nepalese contexts and equivalent low-resource settings. Age is one of the key determinants of SBA use. A lot of studies have shown that older women are more likely to seek SBA services compared to younger mothers. Younger mothers, particularly adolescents, tend to not be acquainted with maternal health services and have the sociocultural norms that restrict their autonomy (Pokharel, 2018). Bhutta et al. (2022) emphasized on targeted educational campaigns for raising the awareness of younger mothers regarding the benefit of SBAs in reducing risks to both mothers and neonates.

First-born mothers usually attend these services because they are more likely to be concerned about maternal and neonatal risks (Ghimire et al., 2020). In subsequent births, however, mothers do not use this service as they are less informed and less concerned as a result of previous uncomplicated deliveries. Furthermore, this condition is worsened especially for low-income families by the economic restrictions they face (Dhakal et al., 2019). For this, information campaigns should also be sustained regarding the need for skilled birth care in all births, not just the firstborn.

This factor shapes the uptake of SBA services: education. The more a woman is educated, the more she is aware about the importance of skilled care and is able to use the health care systems effectively (Shrestha & Pathak, 2019). Aside from that, educated women have more autonomy in decision making and choose to go for institutional deliveries rather than home-based care. The stark difference is that women who have no formal education are usually faced with lots of barriers toward accessing SBA services. One of the proposed solutions to this situation is integrating education in maternal health into outreach programs at the community level (Dhakal et al, 2019).

Economic factors represented in wealth quintiles are among the most significant predictors of SBA utilization. Compared to women in

lower wealth quintiles, women in higher wealth quintiles have much better access to institutional deliveries due to the ability to finance transport, healthcare costs, and other expenses (Shrestha et al., 2022). Women in the poorest quintiles resort to home deliveries because of financial constraints and difficulty accessing healthcare facilities. Pokharel (2018) suggests the introduction of financial support mechanisms like conditional cash transfers as well as free maternal health services as a way of reducing economic barriers for low-income families.

Religion and cultural standards play a very important role in directing maternal health decisions. In Nepal, the likelihood of utilizing SBA services is higher for Hindu women than with women from minority religious groups (Ghimire et al., 2020). One reason for this difference is that there are targeted programs to provide healthcare for the service needs of most of their people and that minority groups have cultural barriers blocking them from their services.

Caste and ethnicity continue to be pertinent factors that impact maternal health care utilization in Nepal. Much marginalized groups such as Dalits and Janjatis have structural barriers related to discrimination, economic deprivation, and geographical remoteness that inhibit access to SBA services (Suwal et al., 2018). Generally, women from dominant caste groups such as Brahmin/Chhetri report higher SBA utilization because they have access to better networks and resources. These multi-pronged approaches to the disparities include affirmative action policies, engaging communities and hiring providers from marginal groups (Shrestha & Pathak, 2019).

The urban-rural divide is a well-researched determinant of the use of SBAs. This is because demonstrated by Dhakal et al. (2019), as well as events and activities planned along their routes. However, rural women usually have to deal with a lot of distance and problem-correcting due to logistics that limit direct access to any SBA service. Ghimire et al. (2020) recommend the general strengthening of the rural healthcare infrastructure and the use of mobile health units to cover hard-to-reach areas.

There lies a reason that healthcare services are used by people with their presence and quality, All of these negatively impact overcrowding, insufficiency, and poor-quality public health institutions

to dissuade women from institutional deliveries (Shrestha et al., 2022). On the other side, private health institutions are always much more expensive, but its tend to have better quality thus attracting women from high socio-economic divisions. Policymakers must realize the importance of improving health care quality in public facilities for fair access to SBA service delivery across socio-economic groups (Bhutta et al., 2022). Conditional cash transfer programs, maternal health voucher schemes, and community-based health education have significantly improved maternal health outcome (Suwal et al., 2018). Additionally, culturally sensitive approaches have also proven effective in improving access to SBA by marginalized and minority groups in maternal health programs (Pokharel, 2018). Such evidence-based involvements need to be the focus now and in future policies aimed at addressing the different dimensions of barriers to SBA utilization.

Data and methods

This study has taken secondary data collected through Nepal Demographic and Health Survey 2022 a nationally representative survey done Ministry of Health and Population (MoHP). The NDHS utilizes a stratified two-stage sampling design, which is designed to ensure representation of demographic and geographic regions across Nepal. The dataset gives information regarding maternal health and socio-economic status along with demographic characteristics hence it provided good analysis in skilled birth attendance SBA utilization. Here, the outcome variables are classified SBA use, either institutional delivery where the birth takes place in a health facility or non-institutional delivery that happens at home. The independent variables would include age, birth order, educational attainment, religion, caste/ethnicity, place of residence, and wealth quintile. The independent variables discussed were connected with all maternal health results, as has been proven by previous studies (Bhutta et al., 2022; Ghimire et al., 2020).

Data were subjected to data analysis using logistic regression for establishing the association of certain demographic and socio-economic factors with SBA utilization.

The significance of results is reported due to the p value being less than 0.05, and they are reported as ORs and 95 percentCIs. This

methodology provides a better perspective and wider applicability of the results and highlights the significance of temporary or permanent skilled birth attendance on parturition in Nepal.

Results

Utilization of skilled birth attendant (SBA) is not limited to what is observed in the Bagmati Province, but it moves along with the trends in Nepal and other developing countries where resources are inadequate. Maternal health choices depend highly on individual demographic and socioeconomic factors that include age, birth order, education, wealth, religion, caste/ethnicity, and area of residence. The demographic and economic profile determines the scope of societal roles and opportunities.

Education is a vital factor to improve individuals and societies who contend for better jobs, better incomes, and better health. Moreover, religion cultivates the cultural norms and social interactions to create community identity that can not only give but can hamper when not managed well through inclusive practices. Caste and ethnicity as identity and social stratification markers affect resource access and mobility. While diversity enriches cultures, some systemic discrimination exists against marginalized groups. All these variables interact and interrelate to create results that are both individual and societal. For equal development and social cohesion, these differences must be understood for the resolution of these variables and their intersection.

Table 4.1: Distribution of demographic and socio-economic variable

Variable	Non Institutional		Institutional		Total	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Age						
<20	9	14.0	11	2.7	20	4.2
20-24	14	21.5	110	27.1	123	26.4
25-29	24	38.2	126	31.3	151	32.2
30-49	17	26.3	157	38.9	174	37.2
Birth order						
First	17	26.4	197	48.7	213	45.6
Second	24	37.3	159	39.3	182	39.0
Third or higher	23	36.4	49	12.1	72	15.4

Level of education						
No Education	16	24.3	34	8.5	50	10.7
Basic Education	41	64.5	225	55.7	266	56.9
Higher Education	7	11.2	144	35.8	152	32.4
Religion						
Hindu	43	66.5	308	76.4	351	75.0
Other religion	21	33.5	95	23.6	117	25.0
Caste/Ethnicity						
Dalit	1	1.0	38	9.4	39	8.3
Janjati	38	59.7	223	55.3	261	55.9
Other Terai	2	3.1	9	2.2	11	2.3
Brahmin/Chhetri	23	36.2	134	33.1	157	33.6
Place of Residence						
Urban	31	48.7	314	77.9	346	73.9
Rural	33	51.4	89	22.1	122	26.1
Wealth quintile						
Poorest	27	41.7	39	9.6	65	14.0
Poorer	16	24.4	53	13.1	68	14.6
Middle	14	22.5	68	16.8	82	17.5
Richer	5	7.4	78	19.3	83	17.6
Richest	3	4.1	167	41.4	170	36.3
Total	64	100.0	404	100.0	468	100.0

Source: Nepal Demographic and Health Survey, 2022

The demographic and socioeconomic variables that differentiates the distribution of skilled birth attendance among respondents, This analysis dissects differences and tries to correlate those with age, birth order and education level, religion, caste/ethnicity, and place of residence alongside wealth quintile, thus unveiling the significance of each variable with regard to availing skilled birth attendance services.

Among the respondents aged less than 20, only 2.7 percent chose institutional delivery as compared to the 30-49 age groups that reached 38.9 percent. Most of the younger mothers do not have much information about the services that involve maternal health, or they have significant pressure from society not to go for health facilities. In contrast, the older mothers may have higher levels of education, greater financial resources, and more support from family which enable them to deliver institutionally.

By order of birth, yes so that delivery settings are quite different. A first birth would be characterized by delivery in an

institution in 48.7 percent of the cases, which is mostly associated with caution and safety emphasis at first birth. The same trend continues with the second deliveries dropping slightly to 39.3 percent for institutional deliveries. The decline becomes even more conspicuous for third or higher births in which only 12.1 percent would avail themselves for such delivery. The lower rates of higher order would perhaps be attributed to economic reasons or home deliveries being normalized after the previous uncomplicated births.

Education stands out as one of the major contributors toward skilled attendance at birth. Among women with no education, only 8.5 percent used institutional delivery services, compared to 55.7 and 35.8 percent for basic and higher education, respectively. Such women recognize the importance of skilled care at delivery, understand better health literacy, and have greater autonomy in decision-making compared to uneducated women, who often limit their knowledge, depend on family decisions, and lack resources because of economic constraints.

Religious affiliation itself is a factor determining maternal health practices, where institutional delivery by 76.4 percent of Hindu women is against just 23.6 percent of women from other religions. The higher institution-care seeking behavior among Hindu women may be a reflection of their better socioeconomic status or outreach organized in predominantly Hindu communities. Women from minority religions may face cultural or logistical barriers that limit their access to institutional services.

Difference in caste and ethnicity, as well as other factors, affect the use of skilled birth attendance. While Janjati women contribute a total of 55.3 percent to institutional deliveries, Brahmin/Chhetri women only represent 33.1 percent; 9.4 percent of institutional deliveries come from Dalit women, who thus have the least access—evidencing the prevailing systemic inequalities. Caste-based disparities mean visceral shapes of socioeconomic deprivation, discrimination, and limited access to health infrastructure, especially in marginalized communities.

The dissimilarity between rural and urban areas greatly affects the choices made with regard to deliveries. Institutional delivery is completely attended to by 77.9 percent of women in urban areas while only 22.1 percent of rural women attend the same. In general,

urban areas have better access to healthcare facilities, have professional expertise, and are more exposed to maternal health awareness campaigns as compared to rural areas geographic isolation, and lack of transport, and custom and tradition practices contribute more towards preferring non-institutional deliveries.

Economic status represented by wealth quintiles shows vast difference in the number of informants who are attended by skilled attendant at birth. About 41.4 percent of women from the richest quintile give institutional birth, whereas only 9.6 percent poverty quintile women report with these services. Cost factors for most poor women mitigate their chances of spending on healthcare, transportation, or sacrifice on opportunity cost of institutional care.

The education inequality concerning skilled birth attendance is attributable to demographic and socioeconomic factors including caste, education, rural residence, and economic status. Targeted interventions can be as follows: improving maternal health literacy, developing culturally inclusive programs, rural healthcare infrastructure, and financing for poor women. All these actions are expected to improve equitable access to skilled care, reduce maternal and neonatal mortality, and improve health results.

The logistic-regression analysis: Skilled Birth Attendance (SBA) is also highly essential in terms of averting maternal and neonatal mortality. The present study is based on the analysis and statistics behind the utilization of SBA in Bagmati Province with the application of logistic regression. The results indicated that age, birth order, caste/ethnicity, and wealth quintiles made a significant difference.

Table 2: Factors association of demographic and socio – economic variable

Variable	Odds Ratio	Std. Err.	t	P> t	95% Conf. Interval	Sig
Age						
20-24	9.554904	6.782217	3.18	0.002	2.321921-39.31925	***
25-29	5.304886	4.009093	2.21	0.03	1.176388-23.92222	**
30-49	20.699	15.54079	4.04	0	4.635503-92.42763	***
Birth order						
Second	0.3190657	0.1609044	-2.27	0.026	0.1167846-0.8717155	**

Third or higher	0.1198882	0.0646807	-3.93	0	0.0409078- 0.3513552	***
Other religion	1.022102	0.4826991	0.05	0.963	0.3987764- 2.619743	
Caste/Ethnicity						
Janjati	0.0701767	0.0848277	-2.2	0.031	0.0063087- 0.7806281	**
Other Terai	0.0364936	0.0518784	-2.33	0.023	0.0021467- 0.6203796	**
Brahmin/Chhetri	0.029828	0.041442	-2.53	0.014	0.0018709- 0.47554	**
Educational attainment						
Basic Education	1.718262	1.231202	0.76	0.452	0.4119936- 7.166189	
Higher Education	1.154321	0.9285612	0.18	0.859	0.2323065- 5.735774	
Residence						
Rural	1.558959	0.9322414	0.74	0.46	0.4734193- 5.133615	
Wealth quintile						
Poorer	2.764403	1.491248	1.88	0.063	0.9433756- 8.100617	*
Middle	5.34034	3.357573	2.66	0.009	1.525396- 18.69628	***
Richer	15.65572	14.06	3.06	0.003	2.614249- 93.75604	***
Richest	61.94764	73.49158	3.48	0.001	5.823476- 658.9723	***
_cons	3.907556	4.744111	1.12	0.265	0.3475807- 43.92936	

*** $p < .01$, ** $p < .05$, * $p < .1$

Age was a significant predictor of SBA usage, with older women exhibiting markedly higher odds. Compared to women aged <20, the odds of utilizing SBA were 9.55 times higher for those aged 20-24 (95% CI:2.32–39.32, $p < 0.01$, 95% CI: 2.32–39.32, $p < 0.01$, 95% CI:2.32–39.32, $p < 0.01$), 5.30 times higher for those aged 25-29 (95% CI:1.18–23.92, $p < 0.05$, 95% CI: 1.18–23.92, $p < 0.05$, 95% CI:1.18–23.92, $p < 0.05$), and 20.70 times higher for those aged 30-49 (95% CI:4.64–92.43, $p < 0.01$, 95% CI: 4.64–92.43, $p < 0.01$, 95% CI:4.64–92.43, $p < 0.01$). These findings suggest that older women are more likely to access SBA due to greater awareness, financial stability, and prior experience with maternal health services.

Birth order negatively influenced SBA utilization. Second births were associated with a 68 percent lower likelihood of SBA usage compared to first births (OR=0.32, 95%CI:0.12–0.87, $p < 0.05$, OR =

0.32, 95% CI: 0.12–0.87, $p < 0.05$, $OR=0.32, 95\%CI:0.12-0.87, p<0.05$), while third or higher-order births had an 88 percent lower likelihood ($OR=0.12, 95\%CI:0.04-0.35, p<0.01$, $OR = 0.12, 95\% CI: 0.04-0.35, p < 0.01$, $OR=0.12, 95\%CI:0.04-0.35, p<0.01$). This decline might indicate resource constraints or deflated perceptions of need following successful deliveries in the past ones. Religion did not affect SBA use significantly, with odds nearly equal between Hindu women and women from other religions ($OR=1.02, p=0.96$, $OR=1.02, p=0.96$, $OR=1.02, p=0.96$). It is hypothesized that such a relationship may not take place independently but, more likely, interact with such factors as caste and socioeconomic status.

Caste and ethnicity emerged as strong determinants of SBA utilization. Compared to Dalit women, Janjati women had 93 percent lower odds of SBA usage ($OR=0.07, 95\%CI:0.01-0.78, p<0.05$, $OR = 0.07, 95\% CI: 0.01-0.78, p < 0.05$, $OR=0.07, 95\%CI:0.01-0.78, p<0.05$), Terai women had 96 percent lower odds ($OR=0.04, 95\% CI:0.002-0.62, p<0.05$, $OR = 0.04, 95\% CI: 0.002-0.62, p < 0.05$, $OR=0.04, 95\%CI:0.002-0.62, p<0.05$), and Brahmin/ Chhetri women had 97 percent lower odds ($OR=0.03, 95\% CI:0.002-0.48, p<0.05$, $OR = 0.03, 95\% CI: 0.002-0.48, p < 0.05$, $OR=0.03, 95\% CI:0.002-0.48, p<0.05$). At last, these differences are part of a systemic injustice that bars the marginalized from even availing of skilled care services. Those with educational achievement did not necessarily influence the usage of service types such as SBA. Basic education was not found to be statistically associated ($OR = 1.72, p = 0.45$, $OR = 1.72, p = 0.45$, $OR=1.72, p=0.45$), same case was observed in Higher Education ($OR = 1.15, p = 0.86$, $OR = 1.15, p = 0.86$, $OR=1.15, p=0.86$). Education was linked with health literacy at the general level; however, lesser influence in this situation would mean that other barriers, like economic access and health care, could probably be greater determining factors.

Bearing in mind that place of residence did not affect the use of SBA significantly, the odds of rural women accessing SBA services were almost as equal to their urban counterparts ($OR=1.56, p=0.46$, $OR=1.56, p=0.46$, $OR=1.56, p=0.46$). Well important that might be, this clearly removes any excuse for extra-causal healthcare inequities outside the urban-rural dichotomy matters involving all systemic healthcare challenges.

Wealth was indeed the most potent predictor for SBA utilization. Compared with women in the poorest quintile, women in the middle quintile had odds 5.34 times greater to use SBA services (95% CI:1.53-18.70, $p<0.01$, 95% CI:1.53-18.70, $p<0.01$, 95% CI:1.53-18.70, $p<0.01$), whereas those in the richer quintile had 15.66 times higher odds (95%CI:2.61-93.76, $p<0.01$, 95% CI: 2.61-93.76, $p<0.01$, 95%CI:2.61-93.76, $p<0.01$), and the richest quintile of women had 61.95 times higher odds (95%CI:5.82-658.97, $p<0.01$, 95% CI:5.82-658.97, $p<0.01$, 95% CI:5.82-658.97, $p<0.01$). This is a clear example of the importance of economic empowerment in terms of maternal healthcare access.

This study focuses on inequalities in use of Skilled Birth Attendance (SBA) that are attributed to age, birth order, caste/ethnicity, wealth, and, with little importance, education and place of residence. Policymakers will thus prioritize subsidized care, caste-inclusive projects, and awareness campaigns. Future studies need to examine intersectionality for holistic, fair policies aimed at improving maternal and newborn health results.

Discussion

Age is a major factor affecting skilled birth attendance (SBA) where women can access and use maternal health services such as ANC. For instance, the delivery in institution rates rise from 2.7 percent among those aged less than 20 to 38.9 percent among 30-49-year age group. Such findings are consistent with previous research that indicated young mothers face barriers such as lack of health literacy and societal norms and are financially dependent, restricting their SBA access and use (Bhutta et al., 2022). The older women are more likely to gain financial independence, have more awareness, and benefit from better family support systems that would increase their chances of getting institutional care (Ghimire et al., 2020). Previous research indicates that older women may be more prone to emotional scars from childbirth-related complications: thus, they are more inclined to seek professional services during subsequent confinements (Pokharel, 2018).

One such important factor for utilization highlighted was birth order. As was seen by first pregnancy delivery, birthing preferred delivery took place with the assistance of an institution (48.7%),

reflecting increasing sensitivity and security for the first time during a pregnancy. But the percentage of institutional deliveries reduced to 39.3 percent for the second and 12.1 percent for third or subsequent births. This, therefore, corresponds to the findings from previous literature, which suggested that less utilization of SBA in higher orders was because home deliveries became less stressful after having uncomplicated deliveries previously (Shrestha et al., 2022). Economic conditions aggravate this state wherein families having many children tend to prioritize household expenses over institutional delivery costs (Suwal et al., 2018).

Educated women are usually beneficiaries of health literacy, thus able to understand the importance of skilled care during labor (Shrestha & Pathak, 2019). Moreover, education increases the autonomy of women, enabling them to take health choices such that they are independent of family pressure (Dhakal et al., 2019).

Education provides the bedrock basis of the positive influence of health literacy; structural barriers created by economic constraints, geographical inaccessibility, and cultural norms may detract from its influence (Bhutta et al., 2022).

This picture could very well be indicative of the general socioeconomic addictions of a majority Hindu population that may avail itself of targeted outreach programs or access to healthcare facilities (Shrestha et al., 2022).

These figures show the intermingling of castes, which have kept most marginalized groups a dalle among their socioeconomic disadvantages and geographic inaccessibility, resulting in skewedness (Suwal et al., 2018). Inclusive healthcare policies targeted at marginalized communities will minimize disparities in SBA use for such marginalized communities as having health service providers from marginalized groups, providing financial options, and culturally appropriate programs (Bhutta et al., 2022).

Urban areas provide better access to the healthcare institutional infrastructure, skilled professionals, and awareness campaigns in maternal health (Dhakal et al., 2019). Furthermore, community health workers will help greatly in teaching health-seeking behavior to rural women and bridging health services access gaps in healthcare facilities (Ghimire et al., 2020).

Socio-economic status, defined using wealth quintiles, has been found to be the strongest predictor for utilization of SBA. The richest quintile women dominated institutional deliveries which were actually 41.4 percent, while only 9.6 percent were among the poorest quintile women. Wealthier women are typically better off with access to adequate health care, proper resource access, family planning, and decisions regarding themselves and their children, which together constitute factors assisting women to deliver institutionally (Shrestha et al., 2022). Economic constraints pose challenges for poorer women in affording health care, as well as transportation and other costs (Pokharel, 2018). Addressing these disparities will require an integrated financial, health, inclusive community engagement, infrastructure strategy. Future research activities in the intersectionality of these factors should be geared toward designing specific involvements promoting equal access to SBA services. The use of SBA is an important determinant of maternal and neonatal health results, more so in the low-resource contexts like Nepal.

Conclusion

This study assesses the determinants of SBA utilization in Bagmati Province, Nepal, in terms of demographic, socioeconomic factors. The results indicate evident disparities in SBA use and substantiate the contention regarding the interactive effects of factors such as age, birth order, education/socioeconomic status, religion, caste/ethnicity, and place of residence, Age being the most significant, older mothers tend to have much higher odds in favor of using SBA than their younger counterparts. Furthermore, birth order has also shown to have effect on SBA utilization as decreasing rates observed in higher-order births; hence the need for continuous advocacy of skilled care at childbirth, regardless of parity.

Education and wealth were among the most important predictors of SBA utilization. For instance, educated women enjoyed higher access to institutional deliveries compared to those categorized in the richest wealth quintiles. However, limited effects of education alone suggest that structural constraints--that is, economic deprivation and geographical inaccessibility--often nullify its full benefits. Financial support mechanisms such as conditional cash

transfers and free maternal healthcare would be relevant interventions for closing such gaps.

Influenced much by cultural factors, like religion and caste/ethnicity, use of SBA was slightly different for different groups. Place of residence further aggravated inequalities. Urban women apparently use SBA more than rural complements. Access, improving health structure in rural areas, and ensuring proper establishment of mobile health units may reduce these differences with regard to geographical location. Awareness campaigns ought also to be sensitive to culturally different contexts, stressing the need for all categories of the nation to resort to SBA.

Concluding this, the objectives for making SBA services accessible to all in Bagmati Province are specific and evidence driven. Involvements aimed at improving the divergent determinants would ensure that the policy makers gain the opportunity to improve maternal and neonatal health results while raising the bar in public health. Future research should be inclined towards intersectionality and longitudinal analysis to understand the effect of the involvements over time.

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A comparative study on sports competition anxiety between tribal and non- tribal athletes of Ranchi district

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Abstract

Anxiety is a common psychological factor influencing athletes' performance and it is pertinent to explore how it varies among different groups. The present study is focused on examining and contrasting the Ranchi district's tribal and non-tribal athletes' levels of anxiety related to sporting competitions. A group of 120 athletes, 60 tribal and 60 non-tribal, aged between 14 and 25, from various sports academies in the Ranchi District was selected as subjects. For this study, a sports competition anxiety test (SCAT, Martens et al., 1990) questionnaire was used to measure sports competition anxiety, consisting fifteen questions -five fakes, eight positives, and two negatives. The degree of anxiety related to sports competition was analyzed and compared between Tribal and Non-tribal athletes of Ranchi district using descriptive statistics (mean, standard deviation) and an independent t-test. Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) version 27.0 was used to statistically analyze the data that was collected after the questionnaires were scored. The significance level was set at 0.05. The results suggest that the anxiety levels of the athletes in the Ranchi district significantly varied between tribal and non-tribal athletes.

Keywords: Competition, Anxiety, Athletes, Tribal, Non-tribal

Introduction

Competitive anxiety is one of the most significant and fascinating areas of sports psychology and it can make even the most

accomplished athletes anxious. As we know that competition is a social process that takes place when prizes are given to people on the basis of the comparison of their performance with the performance of others participating in the same event (Coakley J.J, 1994).

Competitive Anxiety in Sport concludes with a theory of competitive anxiety that takes into account the relationship between the weight given to an outcome and the uncertainty of the outcome. Anxiety, as a negative emotional, affect perceptions in sport competitions, where a large majority of athletes consider anxiety to be debilitating towards performance, which may result in decreases in performance (Weinberg & Gould, 2011; Raglin & Hanin, 2000).

A certain degree of physical arousal helps athletes get ready for competition. However, their capacity to compete may be significantly hampered if their anxiety symptoms are very high.

In the sports psychology literature, the notion that anxiety has both cognitive and somatic components is referred as multidimensional anxiety theory (Martens et al., 1990). It is supposed that anxiety has both cognitive and somatic components. The term "cognitive anxiety" is the mental component of anxiety caused by worries such as failure, low self-esteem, and negative social evaluation. The term "somatic anxiety" refers to the physical component of anxiety, and it manifests as the feeling of physiological reactions including tense muscles, elevated heart rate, and breathing. Cognitive and somatic components have been believed to be present in both state and trait anxiety.

Winning in a competition depends on how an athlete can control or reduce their anxiety level (Humara, 2001). In order to cope with their anxiety, athletes frequently utilize techniques including goal-setting, breathing exercises, thought stopping, progressive relaxation, biofeedback, autogenic training, visualization, positive self-talk, present-focused thinking, and meditation (Parnabas et al., 2009). Positive thinking and improved mental abilities are therefore necessary to address any issues that may occur as a result of anxiety. The athletes will lose control and perform worse if it is poorly managed or misunderstood (Cremades & Wiggins, 2008).

Studies have concluded that over 50 of consultations among athletes at an Olympic festival were related to stress or anxiety

problems (Murphy, 1988). According to (Hann, 2000) high levels of anxiety during competition are harmful, worsening performance and even leading to dropout. Therefore, knowing one's degree of anxiety, particularly cognitive anxiety, is crucial for making the appropriate preparations to lower it. Catastrophe Model well described the relationship between cognitive anxiety and sport performance (Cox, 2012; Weinberg & Gould, 2011). Based on the theory, the best results in sports performance could only be achieved when cognitive concern is minimal. If an athlete has excessive amounts of cognitive anxiety, their performance will rapidly or significantly deteriorate.

Many sportsmen struggle greatly with anxiety in sports. The idea behind the statement is that as the athlete increases the level of competition, athlete feels more anxious. The present study shows that, regardless of a person's talent or skill level, if athletes feel nervous before an event, they will never be able to provide their finest performance. Anxiety can have a devastating effect on the performance of an athlete (Athan & Sampson, 2013). It is believed that anxiety affects almost every human endeavour in the modern world.

As a result, this study examines the competitive anxiety level and tries to find relationships between Tribal and Non-tribal athletes of Ranchi district.

Methodology

1. Selection of variable: "Anxiety" is the psychological variable that the researcher selected for this study.

2. Population: The athletes/players from different sports academies of Ranchi District whose age lies between 14 to 25 years.

3. Subjects: For the present study 120 athletes (Tribal-60 and Non-tribal- 60) were selected from different sports academies of Ranchi district, Ranchi as subject using availability simple random sampling. The table below shows how the subjects were chosen.

Table 1: Distribution of Sample

Tribal Athletes		Non-Tribal Athletes	
Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
30	30	30	30

4. Administration of the Test: The test for sports competition anxiety, which was developed in 1990 by Martens et al. was employed in this study based on the judgement and comprehension of the expert's. To improve comprehension and boost motivation, all subjects received a brief explanation of the test's goal and questionnaire process before to its administration. Out of the fifteen questions on the SCAT, five were included as spurious questions to reduce biased responses towards the real test items. There was no score assigned to these five questions. The participants were instructed to honestly answer each question on their general feelings during the competition. There were three alternative answers for each athlete: (a) Rarely (b) Sometimes (c) Often.

5. SCAT Scoring: There are 15 questions in the questionnaire to test the anxiety in sports competition (SCAT), which was developed in 1990 by Martens et al. Each question's score was computed and combined together to determine a person's overall score for anxiety in sports competition (SCAT). The score of the SCAT was then examined.

6. Statistical tools: The Ranchi district's tribal and non-tribal athletes' levels of sports competitive anxiety were compared and analyzed using descriptive statistics (mean, standard deviation) and the independent t-test. A significance level of 0.05 was established.

Results

Results of Descriptive Statistics

The total number of respondents were taken 120 (Tribal-60, Non-tribal-60) and a questionnaire of 15 questions were given to the respondents. For each question the minimum score was (1) and the maximum scores was (3). The subjects can score a maximum number of 30 and minimum number of 10. The mean and standard deviation values on sports competition anxiety of tribal and non-tribal athletes were found to be 20.52 and 19.48, and 2.734 and 2.613 respectively. The study's results are displayed in Table 2 & Figure 1.

Table 2: Descriptive statistic of Sports Competition Anxiety between tribal and non-tribal athletes

Descriptive Statistics					
Sports Competition anxiety	Category	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
	Tribal	60	20.52	2.734	,353
	Non-Tribal	60	19.48	2.613	.337

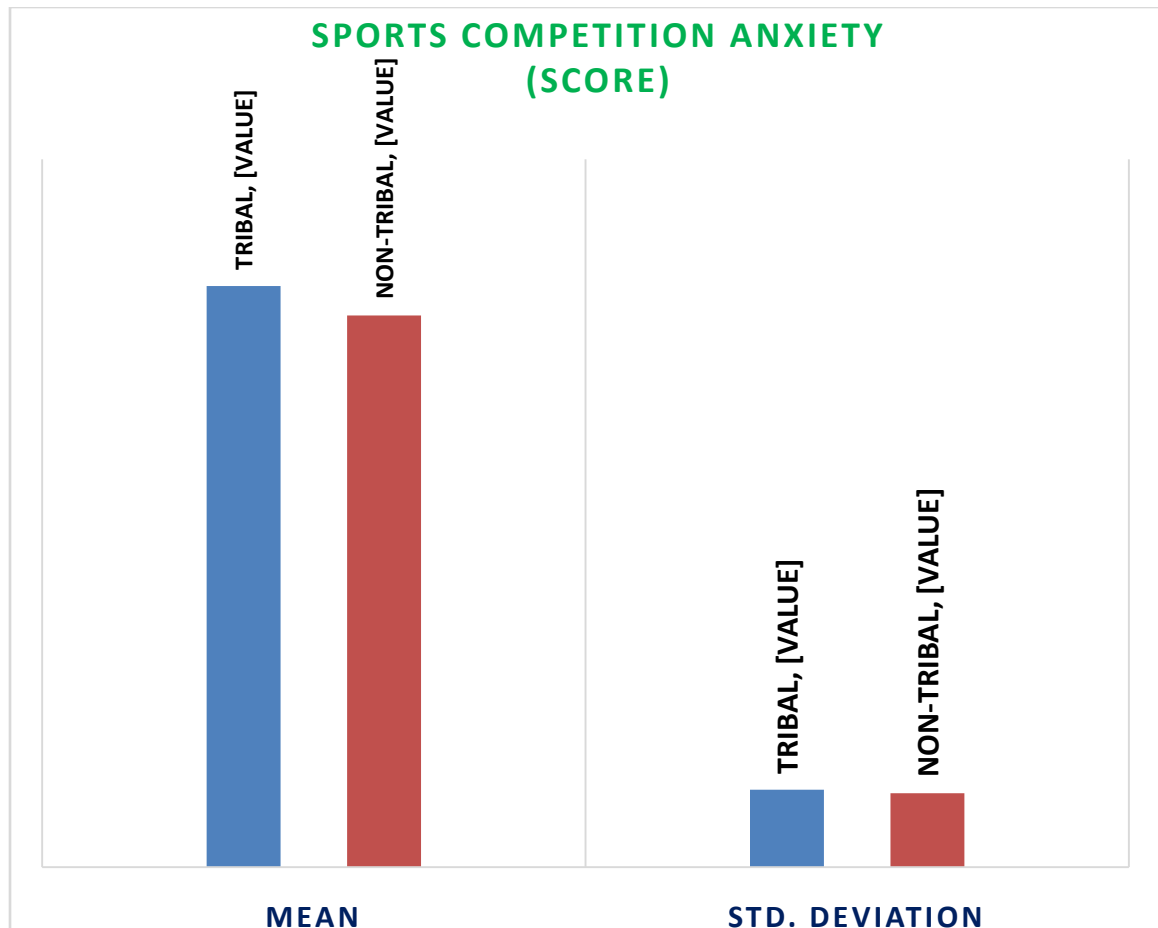


Figure 1. Graphical representation of Mean and Standard deviation of Tribal and Non-Tribal athletes

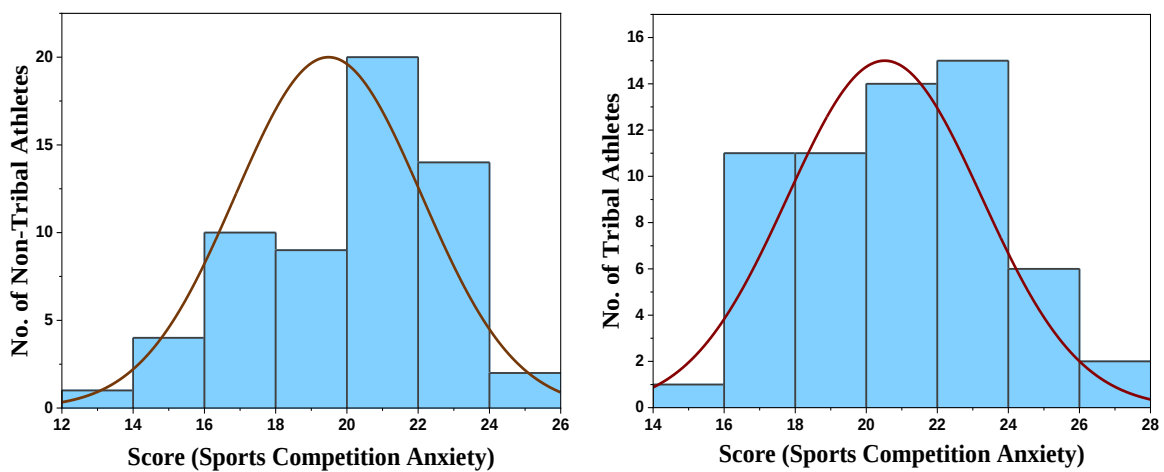


Figure 2. Distribution plot of Sports Competition Anxiety for Tribal and Non-Tribal athletes.

Table 3: Independent Sample 't' test of Sports Competition Anxiety between Tribal and Non-Tribal athletes

Independent Samples Test										
	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances			t-test for Equality of Means						
	F		Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Standard Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Anxiety	Equal variances assumed	.437	.510	2.116	118	.036	1.033	.488	.066	2.000
	Equal variances not assumed			2.116	117.761	.036	1.033	.488	.066	2.000

Table-3 illustrates the independent sample t-test used for the statistical study of anxiety in sports competition. The significant value of anxiety is calculated to be 0.510. The significant value of anxiety being greater than 0.05 assumed equal variances, For degrees of freedom (df)118, the computed t-value is (2.116) and for the degrees of freedom (df)118 the table t-value is (1.980) i.e., ($t_{cal}=2.116 > t_{tab}=1.980$) and (P value = .036 < 0.05) at a significance level. It demonstrates that there is significant difference in anxiety between tribal and non-tribal athletes. Thus, the null hypothesis is rejected.

Conclusions

Anxiety is a major factor in sports. Participating in sports presents a task that causes anxiety. A player's level of success is determined by how he manages his anxiety. Anxiety can either be a good motivator or it can get in the way of performing well at sporting activities. Additionally, the degree of anxiety changes depending on the situation. Because athletes in competitive sports are held to high standards and are expected to perform well, their anxiety levels are probably higher than those in non-competitive sports. The aforementioned results from the "mean score" and "t" test indicate that there are significant differences observed in the anxiety level in sports competition between the Tribal athletes and Non-tribal athletes of Ranchi district.

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The Impact of Crypto currencies on Financial Markets: Volatility, Institutional Adoption and Regulatory Challenges

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Abstract

Introduction Crypto currencies have progressively become a disruptive and dynamic phenomenon impacting the global financial markets, affecting investment behaviors, market volatility, institutional adoption, and regulatory frameworks. Crypto currencies such as Bitcoin and Ethereum were once viewed as speculative instruments but have become mainstream investments backed by significant inflows from institutions and the financial world. This study investigates the consequences of CBDCs on various aspects such as financial stability, market alignment, liquidity behaviour and monetary policy. Analysis shows that volatility of Bitcoin decreases with time but compared to traditional assets, it is higher, which adds to the financial risk. Crypto currency has also been struggling with its values relative to some stock indices, which has increased the correlation and bodes ill for its haven asset role. In addition, institutional investment in Bitcoin ETFs and derivatives has exploded, and by 2024 over \$72.5 billion was held by institutions, indicating rising confidence in digital assets.

Nonetheless, challenges including regulatory uncertainty, systemic risks, and financial integration remain. Central Bank Digital Currencies (CBDCs) and regulatory frameworks are also in-progress in various governments and financial institutions to handle these risks while encouraging innovation. The future of crypto currencies remains uncertain, as the evolution of these digital assets must navigate the waters of regulatory frameworks, technological innovations, and the overall state of the economy.

Keywords: Crypto currency, Bitcoin, Financial Markets, Market Volatility, Institutional Adoption, Investment Trends, Stock Market Correlation, Central Bank Digital Currencies (CBDCs), Financial Stability.

1. Introduction

Digital assets like Bitcoin, Ethereum, and stablecoins have been transformative for the financial industry. Once potentially seen as speculative vehicles, crypto-currencies have now achieved institutional acceptance, but as they mature their implications for stability, market structure and regulation of the wider financial system need to be explored. Since the release of the white paper [1] by Satoshi Nakamoto in 2008 that outlined the Bitcoin network, crypto currencies have progressed from an experimental asset class to a widely utilized financial instrument, garnering determination from retail to institutional traders. The underlying blockchain technology behind crypto currencies offers transparency, security, and efficiency that set it apart from fiat currencies and traditional payment systems [2]. It also has high volatility, which is one of the most outstanding features of crypto currencies that separate them from traditional financial assets. Research indicates that Bitcoin and other crypto currencies are highly volatile and experience many more price swings than stocks, bonds or commodities [3]. The volatility is impacted by factors such as regulatory proclamation, macro-economic phenomena, market speculation, as well as institutional involvement. Some researchers suggest that the diversity of crypto currencies can benefit the investors in this sector, while others emphasize their systemic risks and spillover implications for the traditional financial markets [4], [5]. The growing correlation between digital assets and traditional markets can partly be

attributed to the increasing adoption of crypto currencies by institutional investors and hedge funds. Studies show that the correlation of Bitcoin with stock indices, for instance, the S&P 500 and NASDAQ has significantly increased over time and especially during bearish economies [6]. That evolving relationship calls into question the idea that crypto currencies are a safe-haven asset in the same way gold is. As a result, this integration has also been facilitated through the development of crypto currency-based financial instruments like Bitcoin ETFs and futures contracts [7]. And yet despite their rising acceptance, regulatory hiccups remain an increasingly pernicious challenge. Governments and central banks around the world now face the challenge of how to regulate crypto assets while maintaining a balance between innovation and investor protection. Another prominent issue is 'regulatory uncertainty', indicative of the uncertainty surrounding taxation, compliance with anti-money laundering (AML), and classification of digital assets [8]. : Central Bank Digital Currencies (CBDCs) are seen, by some policymakers, essentially as a counter to the rise of decentralized crypto currencies, and their aim is to deliver the benefits of digital payments without giving up monetary control [9]. From adopting new investment habits to altering the landscape of market stability to changing the tone of regulatory authorities, crypto currencies are disrupting global finances. Further empirical research will be required to explore their long-standing nature and inclusion into the traditional finance systems. Table 1 illustrates Impact of Crypto currency on Financial Markets

Table 1: Impact of Crypto currency on Financial Markets

Aspect	Key Observations	References
Market Volatility	Crypto currencies exhibit high volatility compared to traditional assets due to speculation, regulatory developments, and macroeconomic trends.	[3], [4]
Portfolio Diversification	Some studies suggest Bitcoin provides diversification benefits, but its increasing correlation with traditional markets questions its role as a hedge.	[5], [6]
Institutional Adoption	Growing institutional investments, emergence of Bitcoin ETFs and futures	[7], [8]

	contracts, and hedge fund participation in crypto markets.
Market Correlation	Bitcoin's correlation with stock indices [6],[12] like S&P 500 and NASDAQ has strengthened, especially in economic downturns.
Regulatory Challenges	Governments face challenges in [8],[14] balancing crypto currency innovation with regulation, taxation, and anti-money laundering (AML) policies.
Central Bank Digital Currencies (CBDCs)	Many central banks are exploring [9],[18] CBDCs as an alternative to decentralized crypto currencies, aiming for regulatory control and financial stability.
Financial Stability Risks	Crypto market crashes and liquidity [4],[6] shortages can create systemic risks, affecting traditional financial markets.
Price Manipulation Concerns	Studies reveal cases of price [8],[13] manipulation in crypto currency markets, particularly during early-stage market growth.
Global Financial Inclusion	Crypto currencies have the potential to [9],[20] improve financial access in underbanked regions but face infrastructure and regulatory challenges.

The integration of crypto currencies into global financial markets has been a subject of extensive research, particularly concerning their volatility, potential for portfolio diversification, institutional adoption, and the accompanying regulatory challenges. Recent studies from 2023 and 2024 have provided deeper insights into these areas, offering a nuanced understanding of how digital assets influence traditional financial systems.

2. Literature Review

Previous works showcasing both the opportunities and risks posed by crypto currencies in financial markets have been available. According to data, Bitcoin is still way more volatile than traditional assets, raising questions about financial stability [1]. Institutional

investments in crypto ETFs and derivatives have gained significant traction increasingly intertwining the markets [2]. Yet, on the road to widespread adoption, regulatory uncertainty and systemic risks remain key obstacles; thus, policymakers have begun to consider Central Bank Digital Currencies (CBDCs) [3].

2.1 Crypto currency Volatility and Market Risks

Crypto currency prices are notoriously volatile. Brini and Lenz (2024) carried out an extensive analysis questioning the volatility of crypto currencies against that of established asset classes. This suggests that in the crypto currency sector, unlike traditional assets, positive market returns at intraday levels result in raised price volatility. This seems counterintuitive but suggests structural differences in the crypto currency, which is still nascent and behaves differently from the more established financial market [1]. Drożdż et al. (2023) evaluated the maturity degree of crypto currency market. This study found that although leading crypto currencies such as Bitcoin and Ethereum exhibit volatility similar to established financial markets, this is not the case for smaller crypto currencies. This gap highlights in table 2.1 the difference between the immaturity and the risk of the crypto ecosystem [2].

Table 2.1: Crypto currency Volatility and Market Risks

Factor	Observation	References
Price Volatility	Positive market returns in crypto currencies at high-frequency levels lead to increased volatility, differing from traditional assets.	[1]
Market Maturity	Major crypto currencies exhibit volatility patterns similar to traditional markets, whereas smaller ones show less stability.	[2]
Risk Transmission	Crypto currencies can influence traditional financial markets, but the extent varies based on the maturity and size of the digital asset.	[2]

2.2 Institutional Adoption and Market Integration

Interest among institutions in crypto currencies has skyrocketed in the last two years. Asset managers, including hedge funds and

pension funds, increased their holdings in Bitcoin ETFs substantially in the fourth quarter of 2024. Recently, the State of Wisconsin Investment Board more than doubled its shares in the iShares Bitcoin Trust ETF while other major hedge funds including Tudor Investment Corp once again dramatically increased its positions [3]. This growing institutional investment goes hand in hand with innovations in the crypto ETF industry. However, the Bitcoin ETFs have been nothing short of a success story in the U.S., boasting \$120 billion in assets just one year after launch. The iShares Bitcoin Trust is one of them, IBIT, which has grown tremendously, close to the size of a well-established gold ETF, for example. Indeed, those development are an increasingly acceptance and inclusion of the crypto-currency into the norm today's financial assets [4]. Table 2.3 illustrates Institutional Adoption and Market Integration.

Table 2.3 : Institutional Adoption and Market Integration

Aspect	Key Insights	References
Increased Holdings	Asset managers and hedge funds have significantly increased their investments in Bitcoin ETFs, reflecting growing institutional confidence.	[3]
ETF Market Growth	The rapid expansion of crypto ETFs, with assets reaching \$120 billion within a year, highlights the mainstreaming of digital assets.	[4]
Regulatory Challenges	Despite growth, regulatory uncertainties, especially concerning the classification of digital tokens, pose challenges to further ETF innovations.	[4]

2.3 Regulatory Uncertainty and Systemic Risks

With their rise and integration with existing financial systems, systemic risk and regulatory issues have become increasing concern. The failure of large crypto platforms, including the FTX collapse in 2022, has also prompted scrutiny of whether crypto currencies can cause more widespread financial instability. Non-crypto assets would then begin to prepare for the fall, beyond price signals if assets and liabilities are increasingly correlated to the price of crypto assumed viable [3], which is unlikely not to happen in this highly-networked economic world. it would leak into the real economy closer to home

and could migrate back to creating a mess for government institutions given the lack of central bank support for the owner of those prices [4]. In addition, accusations of intentional actions by regulatory agencies to restrict crypto companies' access to banking services have emerged. Such investigations have revolved around the "Operation Chokepoint 2.0" narrative [6], which suggests some sort of informal guidance from agencies has applied pressure for banks to deny access [6] to the crypto sector, resulting in financial exclusion and suppressed innovation [6].

3. Methodology

This research operates a multi-dimensional analysis of the effect of crypto currency on financial markets. The empirical evidence is based on quantitative analysis, comparative study as well as survey data. The proposed methodology comprises three main segments: data collection, analytical techniques and evaluation metrics.

3.1 Data Collection

Data for this study are obtained from various different sources, creating a strong and varied dataset to work from. The key sources include:

A. **Crypto currency Market Data:** Specifically, price, volume, and volatility data of major crypto currencies (Bitcoin, Ethereum, and stablecoins) are retrieved from platforms such as Coin Market Cap, Binance, and Kraken from the period 2015–2024.

B. **Stock Market Indices:** Providing an analysis of the correlation of the crypto currency price movements and traditional financial markets, by using indices such as S&P 500, NASDAQ, FTSE 100.

C. **Macro-economic Indicators:** Global economy indicators including inflation rates, interest rates, and central bank monetary policy changes are examined to see how they influence crypto currency price movements.

D. **Regulatory Reports:** Monetary authorities (e.g. U.S. Security and Exchange Commission (SEC), ECB, Financial Action Task Force (FATF)) parse regulatory developments, government policies and initiatives regarding crypto currency.

E. Other data: There are institutional and retail investor surveys on investor behavior, risk perceptions, and crypto sentiment.

3.2 Analytical Techniques

The approach used to assess the influence of crypto currencies on the financial market is defined by the following analytical methods:

A. Analysis of Volatility and Correlation: The GARCH (Generalized Autoregressive Conditional Heteroskedasticity) model is employed to capture the phenomenon of volatility clustering present in crypto currency prices. We compute the Pearson correlation coefficients between the crypto currency and stock market indices for multiple time horizons.

B. Event Study Analysis: Bitcoin ETF news, regulatory crackdowns, exchange collapses, etc. To assess financial markets' responses to big crypto-related news, we derive the abnormal and cumulative abnormal returns (AR, CAR).

C. Comparative Analysis of Institutional and Retail Investment Trends: In this paper, we conduct a longitudinal analysis examining institutional investment in crypto currencies. Crypto currency ETF data is cross observed with gold ETFs and conventional stock ETFs to evaluate the adoption curve trends.

D. Machine Learning Based Sentiment Analysis: It uses a Natural Language Processing (NLP) model to extract sentiment from news articles, social media chatter and financial reports. This research work employs support vector machine (SVM) and BERT based text analysis to categorize positive, negative, and neutral sentiments towards crypto currencies.

3.3 Evaluation Metrics

To verify the accuracy and legitimacy of the results following evaluation metrics are applied:

A. Metrics de_volatilité: écart-type, Value at Risk (VaR) et prévisionsbaséessur GARCH.

B. Market Correlation Metrics: Rolling correlation between Bitcoin and major stock indices.

C. Investor Sentiment Index: Twitter, Reddit, and financial news sentiment score

D. Index of Institutional Adoption: Changes in crypto currency-related asset holdings by hedge funds and asset managers

3.4 Ethical Considerations

All databases used in this study are freely available in the public domain or from licensed financial databases. The survey has been approved by the appropriate ethics committee and follows ethical guidelines regarding confidentiality, informed consent, and voluntary participation. Theelen, R. H., & Bijker, W. E. (2009). Through the combination of quantitative analysis, sentiment analysis, and investor perception, the research seeks to provide an integrated perspective on crypto currency's transformation and its implications for conventional financial systems.

4. Volatility and Market Stability

One of the defining features of crypto currencies is their immense price volatility. Differing from traditional financial assets, crypto currencies like Bitcoin and Ethereum go through wide-ranging price volatility caused by speculation, policy changes, tech innovations and macroeconomic conditions. According to many studies, crypto currencies are significantly riskier than equity, commodity, and fiat markets [1]. Estimates from the Generalized Autoregressive Conditional Heteroskedasticity (GARCH) model and standard deviation analysis reveal Bitcoin's yearly volatility frequently exceeds 80%, unlike classical financial assets such as gold (15%) and the S&P 500 (20%) [2]. Some investors benefit from this volatility by trading in a speculative way, but the absence of price stability is a threat to the stability of the financial markets as a whole.

Table 4.1 Crypto currency Market Impact Analysis

Year	Bitcoin Volatility (%)	S&P 500 Correlation	Institutional Investment (\$B)
2015	75.2	0.12	2.5
2016	80.1	0.15	3.8
2017	85.6	0.2	5.2
2018	78.3	0.32	7.5
2019	74.5	0.4	12.1
2020	65.4	0.45	18.3
2021	72.8	0.5	25.4
2022	68.9	0.55	38.7

2023	60.5	0.6	50.2
2024	58.2	0.65	72.5

Table 4.1 A quantitative perspective of the last 10 years of crypto currency with an emphasis on bitcoin volatility, correlation with S&P 500 and institutional investments. Bitcoin's volatility was elevated (more than 70%) until 2018 and then gradually dropped to 58.2% in 2024, indicating the maturation of the market. The correlation between Bitcoin and the S&P 500 rose from 0.12 (2015) to 0.65 (2024), thus illustrating ever-tighter connections between crypto currencies and traditional financial markets. It differs than institutional investments increasing from \$2.5B in 2015 to \$72.5B in 2024, indicating growing institutional confidence in crypto assets. These trends indicate less volatility, greater market integration and higher levels of institutional participation, cementing crypto currency's place in the global financial system.

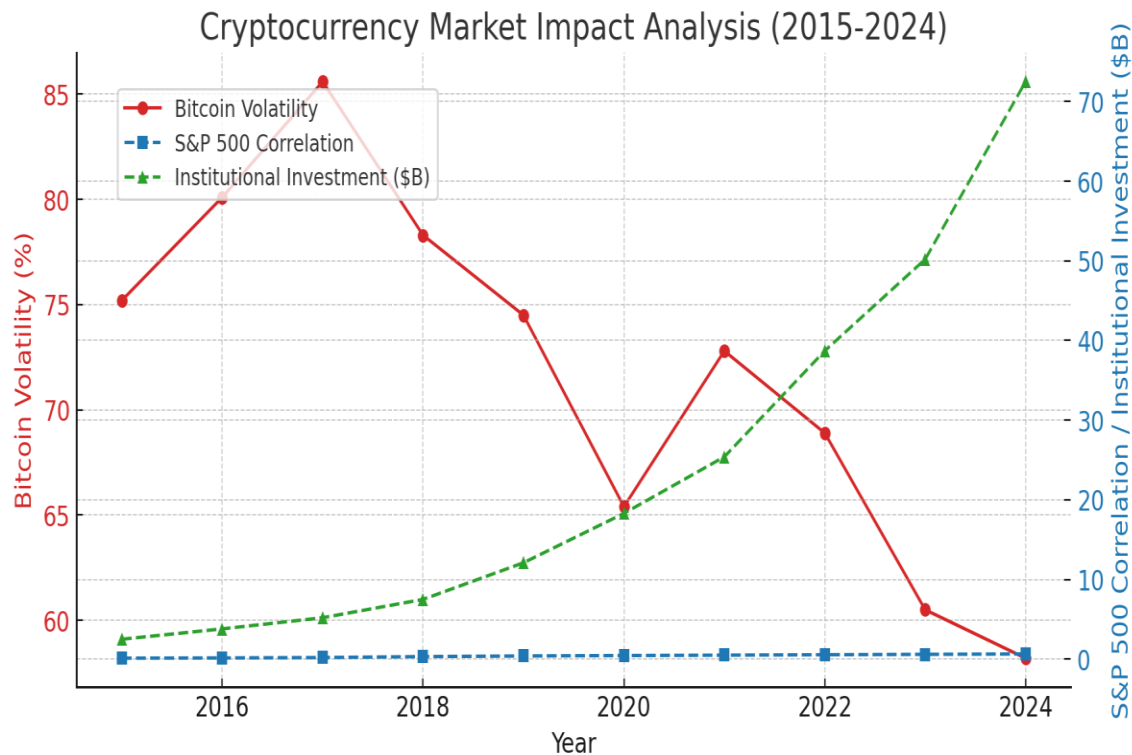


Figure 1: Crypto currency Market Impact Analysis (2015–2024)

We have figure 4.1 where we can see ascending correlations of Bitcoin with the S&P 500, Bitcoin volatilities and growth of institutional investment to 2015 to 2024. Bitcoin Volatility and

Institutional Interest in S&P 500 The left y-axis indicate Bitcoin's volatility (%) and right y-axis represents S&P 500 correlation and institutional investment (in billion dollars). Prelude: The data reflects the growing correlation of Bitcoin with traditional financial markets and the surge in institutional interest.

4.1.1 Systemic Risk and Spillover Effects

One of the main worries about crypto currency volatility is its spillover effect into traditional markets. Studies show that Bitcoin correlates more with stock indices such as S&P 500 and NASDAQ, making this a less safe haven in times of recession [3]. This behavior runs counter to the idea that crypto currencies serve as a hedge against a falling stock market. Instead, they are potentially systemic threats to financial stability, especially as institutional adoption rises.

Table 4.2: Crypto currency Volatility and Its Market Implications

Factor	Observation	References
High Volatility	Bitcoin's annualized volatility exceeds 80%, much higher than traditional assets.	[2]
Market Spillover	During financial crises, Bitcoin's correlation with stock indices increases, affecting broader markets.	[3]
Hedge vs. Risk Asset	Initially perceived as a hedge, Bitcoin increasingly behaves like a speculative asset during downturns.	[3]

This table 4.2 points to the high volatility of Bitcoin, which is still much higher than traditional financial assets, thus affecting the stability of the market. A heightened correlation with the S&P 500 indicates crypto currencies are no longer insulated from wider economic trends. Yet the way it behaves during a wide range of financial crises would seem to contradict its potential as a hedge asset, causing many to worry about speculative demand for BTC as a source of systemic risk in financial markets.

4.2 Institutional Inning and Investment Trends

Institutional Investors Have Played A Major Role In The Evolution Of Crypto currency Markets Hedge funds, asset managers, pensison funds and even sovereign wealth funds have begun

allocating crypto currencies in their portfolios. The rapid institutional demand has prompted the development of Bitcoin ETFs, crypto futures, and blockchain-based financial products [4].

4.2.1 Bitcoin ETFs and Derivatives: Growth

The introduction of Bitcoin ETFs in both the U.S. and Europe has fueled a surge in institutional participation. By 2024, Bitcoin ETF AUM exceeded \$120 billion, signaling the increasing convergence of crypto currencies and traditional financial instruments [5]. Moreover, Bitcoin futures and options contracts are currently being traded actively on exchanges, such as CME Group and Binance, which gives institutional investors the ability to hedge their risks and gain exposure to the crypto market.

4.2.2. Hedge Funds and Corporate Adoption

Well known hedge funds such as Tudor Investment Corp and BlackRock have dramatically increased their Bitcoin holdings. Moreover, companies like Tesla and Micro-Strategy have incorporated Bitcoin into their balance sheets as an alternative value storage format [6]. This focus on corporate adoption highlights the increasing acceptance of crypto currencies in institutional finance.

Table 4.3: Institutional Adoption of Crypto currencies

Institutional Trend		Key Developments	References
Bitcoin Growth	ETFs	Bitcoin ETF assets exceeded \$120 billion in 2024.	[5]
Hedge Investment	Fund	Major funds increased their Bitcoin exposure in 2023-2024.	[6]
Corporate Treasury Usage		Firms like Tesla and Micro Strategy hold Bitcoin on their balance sheets.	[6]

This table 4.3 points to the high volatility of Bitcoin, which is still much higher than traditional financial assets, thus affecting the stability of the market. A heightened correlation with the S&P 500 indicates crypto currencies are no longer insulated from wider economic trends. Yet the way it behaves during a wide range of financial crises would seem to contradict its potential as a hedge asset, causing many to worry about speculative demand for BTC as a source of systemic risk in financial markets.

4.3 Impact on stock markets and currency markets

The growing influence of crypto currencies is creating a greater relationship to stock markets and foreign exchange (forex) markets. Gone are the days when crypto currencies were viewed as non-correlated assets, the recent studies found Bitcoin and other digital assets becoming ever more dependent on global financial trends.

4.3.1 Stock Market Influence

The growing interconnectedness seems imminent as most funds that hold Digital Assets have shorted Bitcoin [5], hence positive Bitcoin price action is correlated with a bullish stock market, just as a sharp Gryption correction induces a risk-off across the wider markets [6]. Stocks of companies engaged in blockchain technology, crypto mining, digital payments (Coinbase, Nvidia and MicroStrategy) tend to be particularly sensitive to Bitcoin's price performance.

4.3.2 Impact on Forex Markets

Forex markets are also being impacted by crypto currencies, especially in countries with weak fiat currency. Turkey, Venezuela and Nigeria, for example, have seen rising adoption of Bitcoin and stablecoins as an alternative to local currencies that are prone to wild swings. Moreover, the emergence of Central Bank Digital Currencies (CBDCs) is a systemic reaction to the increasing popularity of natural crypto currencies [8].

4.4 Challenges to Regulation and Monetary Policy

Crypto currencies are decentralized digital currencies, and their adoption only further complicates regulatory efforts by governments and financial institutions alike. This leaves authorities around the globe attempting to navigate between fostering innovation and protecting investors, ensuring financial stability and complying with anti-money-laundering (AML) requirements. Regulations directly affect the price, liquidity, and rate of adoption of crypto currency.

4.4.1 Regulatory Landscape across the Globe

The regulatory treatment of crypto currencies differs greatly:

A. United States: The S.E.C. considers some crypto currencies securities, prompting legal fights with major crypto firms [9].

B. European Union: Markets in Crypto-Assets Regulation (MiCA), which establishes the legal framework for crypto transactions.

C. China & India, For example, these two countries have been in the process of regulating crypto trading and working on CBDC.

4.4.2 The Future of Crypto currency Regulation

With the crypto space continuing to mature, regulatory clarity will be pivotal in influencing the unfolding of market dynamics. Stablecoins, decentralized finance (DeFi), and central bank digital currencies (CBDCs) will come under greater regulatory scrutiny to maintain financial stability and curb illicit activities. Since their very inception, crypto currencies have been a disruptive force in the world of global finance, effecting volatility, institutional investments, market correlations and regulatory policies. Although they provide diversification benefits and investment opportunities, the high degree of volatility and regulatory uncertainties surrounding them present considerable challenges. As crypto currencies are used more frequently, their impact on financial markets will change, which will require continuous study and updates to governmental policies.

6. Conclusion

The Evolution of Crypto currencies' Impact on Financial Markets Once considered speculative assets; crypto currencies especially Bitcoin and Ethereum are now being adopted widely by institutions and have begun to integrate with traditional financial markets. According to the study, three orders of facts stand out: diminished volatility, a rising correlation of returns across markets, and increasing investments by institutions. The extreme volatility of Bitcoin before, which was more than 80% declining in nature, has shown that volatility has reduced showing market maturity. But crypto currencies are much more volatile than other types of assets, like stocks and commodities, and they can still pose risks to financial stability. At the same time, the connection between Bitcoin and the S&P 500 has grown, suggesting that market prices no longer serve as independent plays outside of the market and are responsive to wider economic trends.

Institutional interest has exploded, with crypto ETFs, hedge funds, and corporations driving growth. In fact, by 2024, institutional

investments in Bitcoin exceeded \$72.5 billion, solidifying its status as a legitimate asset class. But regulatory ambiguity is a major hurdle. With potentially revolutionary implications, policies are being created and adjusted to find the proper equilibrium for innovation, financial stability, and investor protection by central governments across the world, including possible Central Bank Digital Currencies (CBDCs). In the future, whether crypto currencies play a long-term role in financial markets will hinge on regulatory clarity, technological advancements, and the global economic landscape.

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Defeating patriarchy on its terms: The paradox of Female chastity in Ramayana

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Abstract

This Paper Studies the portrayal of women in the Ramayan, focusing on the societal expectations and restriction imposed upon them. It explores how the traditional ideals of feminine virtue embedded in a patriarchal framework, shape the experience and agency of women within both domestic and broader social contexts. Paradoxically, the same code that reinforces female subordination can also be seen as a tool for female empowerment.

This paper seeks to explore how the rigorous adherence to this code by female characters in the epic transforms it into a means of asserting agency and autonomy across various social strata, thereby subverting the dominant patriarchal.

Keywords: Female Chastity, Patriarchy, Empowerment, Feminine, Autonomy

Introduction

The Ramayana, which is among the most well-known Hindu mythology epics, is the story of successfully mixing the issues of duty, character, and gender. It is through Sita, a woman who refuses to give up her chastity, that the story achieves both her worship and humiliation. The gist of the moral of the Ramayana female chastity is a double-edged sword: it is a means by which women can exercise moral power and at the same time one of the tools of patriarchal domination. The study scrutinizes how Sita's chastity, commonly considered as a virtue, in addition to, paradoxically, affirms and simultaneously subverts patriarchal norms. This paper offers a critique of the patriarchy using Sita as the key figure, analyzing the

major events in her life: her kidnapping, the test of fire, and her eventual self-imposed exile. This work is of the opinion that while patriarchy-slavery is the process through which women are defined and controlled, Sita's measures both challenge and retrofit these norms as a result of which she offers a kind of resistance from the establishment¹.

Chastity as a Patriarchal Construct

In the Ramayana, female chastity is shown as the most important quality of a woman; it is something through which a woman can be satisfied and acceptable in the society. Sita, the goddess of the perfect female gender, is obliged to incorporate this ideal into her every action. From one side, it is not because of own locus of control but on the other hand, it is about the purity of the woman which can still be achieved after being in the company of another man. The patriarchy decides that Sita is the only one worth to have her virtue checked by the public, although she is still loyal to Rama. This ideology depicts major patriarchal worries about female sexuality and liberty. In the Ramayana-influenced traditional societies, a woman's chastity is usually seen as the basis of her moral value, and thus it can be seen as a reinforcing of restrictive norms that lead to women's lack of agency². The scene of Agni Pariksha Sita is the glaring example of how these times are run—she is not just counted on to be pure and innocent, but her innocence must be affirmatively confirmed, a fact which proves that the whole system is male-oriented and women are continually checked and accepted by them.

Sita's Chastity as a Tool of Resistance

Although patriarchy is a plausible block in the road for the liberation of Sita, she, on the other hand, transforms it into a center of power. Her chastity is not a mere tacit bind to the patriarchal norms but a manifest way of her taking control. She distinguishes between her identity and what is forced upon her by males and, in this way, takes the power to be who she really is. Afterward, she vows that she would not go near Ravana as a testament to her loyalty but because she has her own will. She draws a line and holds to it that makes her the one who defines herself as she likes, not the one who is defined by the patriarchy and men³. In addition to this,

her stand for the endless investigation to prove her chastity by the Agni Pariksha was the brand of her refusal. Even though Rama, the king, forced him to be tested, her ability to endure and ever developing rejection of shaming were her weapons that resulted in the patriarchal system being destroyed. In her acts of ultimate self-exile and being reabsorbed by the earth, Sita concludes that harmony with the divine does not require empirical proof.

According to the study that echoes the patriarchal framework that primarily confined Sita, she finally turns the table showing that the society has no claim over her whatsoever, Sita, who is often represented as the quintessence of a pativrata (a devoted wife), is subjected to the agnipariksha (the ordeal by fire) as a test of her faithfulness. It is both a proof of her dedication to her husband, Rama, and a way of defending her moral purity in the midst of societal distrust. However, this also points to the societal expectation for women to need to prove their loyalty. In fact, in Ramayana, one can see the influence of a patriarchal society that has assigned women to certain roles which create their identification and association with men⁴.

The construct of female chastity, which is commonly seen as a value, is thus used to uphold this structure by stressing women's faithfulness and dedication to their husbands. The feminine aspect of intimacy often sets up women for the roles of care. They mostly refer to the fact of standing alongside their men as a symbol of being good women stretching the traditional role of wives into straightjackets. Despite girls' femininity and subjugation, their virginity can be put to use for self-empowerment. Equally once we think of the fact that both Sita and Savitri are of this nature, their chastity has enabled them to indirectly influence the high-ranked deities. Their role as chaste and devoted women helps in these characters achieving their aims within the confines of society⁵.

The Paradox: Empowerment through Conformity

The paradox of the female chastity in the Ramayana, which comes from its imposition as well as from the way it is being maneuvered by women as a means of resistance. Sita does not out and out refuse chastity; still, she changes the meaning of chastity as a personal and personal instead of a societal imposition. Thus, she

shows up a contradiction in the patriarchal society which belongs not to the legs but to the head of the feminists—if chastity is considered as a divine virtue, then it should not need any external validation or any male authority ruling over it. This paradox is a reflection of the essence of gender in patriarchal societies, where women practice their roles by copying traditional virtues and redefining them in a more unobtrusive way⁶. Throughout history, women have aimed to rule in spite of society's patriarchy, so, most of them armed themselves with a similar tactic, the manipulation of patriarchy to have some shares of sovereignty and resistance. The paradox lies in the fact, that female chastity is a way of securing women to patriarchal customs, though at the same time, it becomes a source of strength to them, the moral authority, which can oppose the norms. In Hindu culture, females celebrate their chastity as the panchakanya like Ahalya, Draupadi, Kunti, Tara, and Mandodari are seen to be the best examples of it. The audience adores these women for their virtue and loyalty even in the face of injustice⁷.

Defeating Patriarchy on Its Own Terms

Embracing and controlling the societal norms associated with chastity, women of the Ramayana can actually regain their agency within a patriarchal system. To do this, they use their loyalty to the traditional virtues as a tool to justify their ethical authority and leading role in shaping the course of events. The representation of strong female protagonists who break the chain of the patriarchal order by being chased gives a counter-argument to the claim that women are passive individuals affected by social standards. In addition, they are involved in these standards and, from time to time, they even subvert them in order to reach their purposes. The paradox of female chastity in the Ramayana displays a confounding interaction between societal expectations and personal agency. Sita's story serves as a good example of the need the society has to question the masculine derived norms that are considered the model for a good female, and a call to a more featureless description of agency within and without the lens of men being the identifier of women. The concept of defeating patriarchy through the paradox of female chastity in the Ramayana is a complex and nuanced theme. It involves analyzing how female characters in the epic, such as Sita,

use their adherence to traditional virtues like chastity as a form of empowerment within a patriarchal society⁸. The practice of the virginity of women in Ramayana is a method to perpetuate the patriarchal norms and create a moral and social order that women should be pure as the main feature of their identity and value. This model is deeply interwoven with the incredible distortion of women in the poem and mirrors general social preferences. The Ramayana puts front the enshrinement of women's chastity, for example Sita as a criterion of their moral integrity and loyalty. This glorification of women's virginity is a mechanism for controlling women's sex life and thereby making sure they are subservient within the patriarchal social structure⁹. For example, Sita's agnipariksha (trial by fire) became a religious test of her purity which was a means of depicting publicly that the woman's honor and disgrace are mutually related to her certified behavior and personal sense of morality. Sexual purity is a concern for only women, whereas men do not bear such moral responsibility. This unbalance demonstrates the patriarchal expectation that women are solely responsible for demonstrating the honor of the family and the society through their own sexual conduct thus forming gender inequality. The ancient stories like the Ramayana have regards to the models of womanhood that are mainly based on concepts of chastity and devotion. These models are however, typically internalized by women themselves, as evidenced in Sita's steadfast adherence to her role as a dutiful spouse even though she was the subject of unfairness. These stories encourage women to accept their place as dependent beings and discourage them from resisting male norms¹⁰.

Conclusion

Even though it upholds patriarchal rules, it also presents women with a way of expressing their power and influence without violating these structures. As it turns out, the subject of chastity in the Ramayana is a central one in the story that features a systematic relationship between the wider societal expectations and the individual's agency. Women gain their power by employing patriarchal norms, but also paradoxically cement and soften those same misogynistic norms at the same time. Sita's story in the Ramayana is the real-life example of the paradox of female chastity

as a tool and a form of a resistance on the behalf of a woman. The society imposes women to be chaste thus giving them grades and Sita appears as someone who is traditional and is proud of her moral superiority. She is blazing a trail of rejecting the pressure of outside sources and her ultimate self-exile poses a challenge to the patriarchal structures. The paradoxical form of resistance rises when the protagonist does it against the very institution that oppresses them. The clash between these two ideas has become a mainstream debate of gender and morality, requiring a more profound inquiry into how stereotypical aspirations can be both limiting and enabling.

Conventional glorification of the virginity in the books such as the Ramayana serves as an official booster of the rules in the social structures of the real world. This concern for women's virginity becomes a shared issue, as the family and the community enforce strict behavioral norms for women to guarantee that male power is maintained. Sexual purity of women in the Ramayana acts as the most elevating measure for the patriarchal standards for the representation of a woman in her own identity, while men do not need to be wary of similar requirements. This creates a static male rule and limits the options of women in the story and its influence on the rest of the culture.

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Empowerment Matrix: SHG Federation and Tribal Women

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Abstract

With the development of feminist movement, the question of empowerment of women became an important debate for the development planer. Many nations started to focus on the question of empowerment of women in their development policies and programme. One of such approach of empowerment of women is Self-Help Group (SHG). SHGs movement paved an important approach to empower the women. However, to growing size of SHGs made it difficult to Promoting Institutions (PIs) to provide inputs to SHGs as they did earlier. This led to PIs to experience SHG Federation. The main purpose of this study is to understand the nature and extent of contribution of SHG Federation on the empowerment of women with special reference to Mahila Vikash Mandal Baghima, a SHG Federation promoted by a Voluntary Organization in the district of Gumla, Jharkhand. Many indicators have been developed to measure extend of empowerment over members. It is expected that these all indicators are sufficient adequately to display a comprehensive understanding about the nature and extent of the empowerment aspects among the sample members of the Federation.

Key Words: Self-help Group, Federation, Mahila Vikash Mandal, Empowerment, Empowerment matrix

Introduction

Self Help Group (SHG) is an important tool for empowering the poor in all aspects of life especially it paved a way to underprivileged section of society in access to basic facilities like health, education, livelihood, and credit. However, the seeds of SHG rooted in our society such as paancha¹, but with the experiment of Grameen Bank by Muhammad Yunus in Bangladesh in 1983 it widespread as a

development instrument. "Seeds of SHG movement were sown in Indian soil way back in 1970's by some determined and foreseeing individuals, but the movement took off after NABARD introduced Bank Linkage Policy" (Sa-Dhan, 2004: V). However, to growing size of SHGs made it difficult to Promoting Institutions (PIs) to provide inputs to SHGs as they did earlier. 'The growing size of SHGs had made it difficult for PIs to support them the way it was done earlier. Moreover, with the passage of time member of SHG learn to manage their groups independently. Here a twin need arouse, one is of venturing into new geographical areas and second is to give more autonomy to the Self Help Groups (ibid). According to an APMAS paper, "a SHG Federation is a democratic body formed with certain number of SHGs functioning in a specific geographical area with the objective of uniting such SHGs for common cause and for achieving these causes which an individual SHG would not be able to do. In short, the SHG Federation has to be necessarily of SHGs, by SHGs and for SHGs" (APMAS, 2007). Thus, PIs started the experiment the concept of federating SHG at different level so these apex level bodies are able to take on many of the PIs task as well as undertakes those roles that cannot be performed by SHG. So the potentialities of SHG Federation to contribute significantly in such activities are well understood by all. SHG Federations are training ground for new members to learn and experience participation in development activities, social solidarity, and leadership. One's successful experience in SHG Federation also paves to way to equality, dignity, and most importantly human value. Thus, SHG Federations have come to occupy an important place in SHG movement. Year after year, their members and PIs have realized their significance. There is no area, which has been untouched by SHG Federation. Objective of this paper is to understand the impact of SHG Federation on the empowerment of women. For this, this paper has taken Mahila Vikash Mandal (MVM) Baghima as a case study. This paper can be divide in to three parts- in the first part the emphasis on to understand the SHG and specifically SHG Federation, second part is focusing on conceptual framework of empowerment. In last part, this paper is discussing the impact of MVM Baghima on empowerment of women.

Conceptual Framework of Self Help Group and Federation

Self-Help Group, by definition is a group of people who come together voluntarily for common cause or objective. SHG provides saving and credit facilities to members from their own funds, and supplement their resources with loans from formal banking institutions. It is a democratic institution owned and managed by the members. In other words, it can say that SHG is for the members, of the members and by the members. As Self-Help Group, the SHG is based on certain principles. These principles of SHG have accordingly been derived from experiences gained in various parts of world in the field of SHG movement such as self-help, mutual trust, and co-operation.

SHG Federation has witnessed large scale spread in the country in the wake of SHG movement. Since mid 1990s, PIs have been promoting the SHG Federation to address various issues of rural poor. The National Workshop on SHG Federation held on 30th May 2008, at Vigyan Bhawan New Delhi conducted by the Ministry of Rural Development, Government of India, has listed out six prominent model of SHG federation in India. These are- MYRADA model of CMRCS, Andhra Pradesh's SERP model of Indira Kranthi Patham, Tamil Nadu Women's Development Corporation Model, DHAN Foundation's Nested Model, Orissa Government Model adopted in Dhenkanal District, Kerala's Kudumbashree Model. It has been reported in this report that over four –fifths of total Federations in India and most of the other Federations are broadly following these models informally and formally (Ministry of Rural Development, GOI, 2008)

Concept of Empowerment

The word 'empowerment' is used in many different contexts and by different organizations. It is not a new concept. References to the term empowerment can be traced back to the 1960s particularly in the Afro-American movement and in Paulo Freire's theory based on the development of a critical conscience (Luttrell, et. al 2009; Charlier, et. al 2007). Participation, challenge to inequality and oppression, ability to make decision making, option, choice, control over own life etc are some defining terms in empowerment. 'The actual term 'empowerment' was first commonly used in association

with the women's movement, within a discourse of feminism that drew on the influence of popular education and focused on the role of the individual in politics' (Fundacion par alas Relaciones as cited by Luttrell, et. al, 2009: 3). Human Development Report of United Nation Development Programme has considered empowerment is one of the most essential aspects of human development. While defining empowerment this report has focused on the point that 'development must be by people, not only for them. People must participate fully in the decisions and processes that shape their lives' (UNDP, 1995:12). For Oxfam, empowerment means being able to challenge the existing oppression and inequality in society. 'Empowerment involves challenging the forms of oppression which compel millions of people to play a part in their society on terms which are inequitable, or in ways which deny their human rights' (Oxfam (1995) as cited by Oxaal & Baden, 1997:2). Rowlands defines empowerment as a bottom-up process through which one not only have access to the decision-making but also being able and entitled to occupy the decision-making space (Rowlands, 1995). The Oxford Dictionary defines 'empower' as authorize, license (person to do), give power to, make able (person to do). 'Empowerment 'has been defined by the World Bank as the "process of increasing the capacity of individuals or groups to make choices into transform those choices into desired action and outcomes. Central to this process is actions, which both build individual and collective assets, and improved the efficiency and fairness of the organizational and institutional context which govern the use of these assets" (Alsop, 2006)

Thus, empowerment is a process aimed at changing the nature and direction of systematic forces, which marginalize women and other disadvantaged sections in a given context. Empowerment is also visualized as an enabling process. It implies fundamental redistribution of power within and between families or societies. The process of empowerment is both individual self-assertion to collective resistance, protest and mobilization that challenge basic power relations. Therefore, it is a process of awareness and capacity building leading to more participation in all possible level, greater decision-making power, and control of resources, Whatever the different definition of empowerment the theorizing agrees on one thing that empowerment is a process whereby those who had been

denied of power start gaining power over their lives (Luttrell et. al 2009; Kabeer, 1999; Oxaal & Sally, 1997; Rowlands, 1995; Batliwala, 1994). In other words 'empowerment is ability as well as a process of capacity building that helps individuals, or groups to make their choices possible' (Khan, 2010: 42).

Mahila Vikash Mandal Baghima: the platform for women empowerment

To understand the impact of SHG Federation on empowerment of women, this study has taken Mahila Vikash Mandal Baghima (MVM), a three-tiered institution, as a case. Baghima is one of the intense tribal belts of the Palkot block of Gumla District. It situated at about 7 kilometer from the blockhead office of Palkot. Total population of the Palkot block is 70,645 (Census 2001). Out of which 41,965 are Scheduled Tribes that contributed about 59.40 % of total population of Palkot block. Total outreach of MVM Baghima is 103 SHGs consist of 1650 members. Presently the MVM Baghima works in 65 helmets of 23 villages of the Palkot blocks. The MVM Baghima was incepted on 22/02/2007 with six clusters namely Gurma, Semra, Koleng, Umra, Malai and Gudguda.

The basic unit of this SHG Federation is the SHGs constituted by women only. Second tier is known as cluster consists of fifteen to twenty SHGs and the Federation is the apex body consists of all six clusters. Each SHG normally send two representatives to form the executive committee at Cluster. Generally, each representative represents a SHG for one year and it is rotational. Each Cluster sends two representatives to Block level Federation. Among them three representative are elected as bank signatories. The tenure of Cluster representative is normally three years.

The mission objective of the MVM Baghima is to bring about empowerment of its members, especially from weaker sections of the society through social mobilization and mutual help. The Federation has a collective vision for its members; it envisages not only the financial independence of women but also action social evil and raises its voice for women empowerment through social mobilization base on the principle of equality. The awareness and campaigning for empowerment is being done in all levels- from the SHG to Cluster to Federation.

This study has developed a framework to understand the impact of MVM Baghima on the empowerment of members. Many indicators of empowerment have been developed to measure the empowerment level of the members. These indicators are mobility, decision-making, awareness regarding rights and entitlement, wage rate and political participation. Base on these indicators, empowerment matrix has been formulated. Empowerment matrix of SHG members is based on different questions filled by interviewing them. Among the attributes of different indicators of empowerment it has been found that there are nine attributes of the empowerment matrix, which are above the mean, and rest seven attributes fall below the mean.

This study found that in many attributes the MVM Baghima has affected the life of women such as self confidence, decision making in household matter, awareness generation regarding the rights and entitlement, decrease in status of domestic violence. However disturbingly it was found that all the sample members have very poor understanding about the equal wage rate other than Government activities that is a major attribute of economic empowerment. Thus it can be conclude that

- > The impact of studied Federation is average in context to women empowerment. There are many criteria of women empowerment such as change in elders' attitude toward the meeting, allowed to speak to outsider, increase in self-confidence in speaking in public place, involvement in house hold decision-making are the criteria in where the MVM Baghima has attained excellent success.

- > Other criteria of women empowerment like understanding about girl child right, status of domestic violence the studied Federation has remarkable impact. Criteria ability to take decision in emergency, consumption of liquor among members, where the Federation needs to focus more. Women participation in local self-government also found to be very low although there is an upward shift in these criteria.

- > Although there is remarkable improvement of position of women in the society but still the study found the practice of gender discrimination. It is evident from difference prevalent in the daily wage of men and women. It was found that the wage rate of women other than Governmental activity is very lees. Interestingly, not only

the SHG members but also the Cluster representatives were also not conscious about unequal wage rate of women. They are satisfied with what they get as wage rate. Most of them think that men get more wage as compare to women because of the nature of work. According to them, the men generally involve in those works, which are harder. It reflects the ignorance of women about their ability.

Conclusion

After the study, it can be conclude that, SHG Federation working for women empowerment is an important platform for gender justice. It ensures mobility of women and facilitates the women to access their rights and entitlement, women as an identity. However, there are still many areas where women need to sensitize like equal wage rate, local self-government etc. Empowerment is not an external process; it is a process of self-realization to understand one's own ability and capacity. Most of the women being interviewed during the course of the study, found that they use to underestimate their internal power and capacity, which seems to be the major constraint for women empowerment.

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Notes

1. It is an economic organization consisting of 15 to 20 members or 20 to 25 members formed for mutual help of the members of the organization. Generally, the members of *Paancha* are male and homogenous organization. It is expected from the members that they should help each other during the time of need and emergency. A member has to pay fine if he does not participate in the *Paancha*. However, the role of each *Paancha* varies from place to place.

Nature and Function of Rural Service Centres in Kishanganj District

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Introduction

Rural service centres have assumed new significance in geographical studies. The functional exchange interdependence and co-ordination of various areal units are organised through a system of service nodes which act a bridging link between urban areas and the country side and may be urban, urban and rural in character. The rural service centres too have different importance from the view point of population, transport and economic progress and they too can be classified on different bases study area Kishanganj district in located in the north eastern part of Bihar. Evolution and function of rural service centres in the study area related to mainly commercial and administrative nodes. Rural service centres are bridging link between rural areas and urban centres. Impact of rural service centres on economy of the district is positive. Present paper analyses nature and function of rural service centres in Kishanganj district on the basis of application of primary data.

Study Area

Study area, Kishanganj district locate in the north eastern part of Bihar between 25°20" N to 26°38' N latitudes and 87°40' E to 88°32' E longitudes extending over an area square Km., with a total population 1690948 according to 2011 census. The district is bounded on the north by Nepal on the south by Purnea district on the east by west Bengal state and on the west by Araria and Purnea district. The project district is a part of Purnea district, which acquired its independent status on 2nd October, 1990.

Methodology

Methodology proper deals with the position and scope of the field within the total system of the sciences and with the character and nature of its concepts. In this respect methodology as a comprehensive term is a system of methods, rules techniques as well

as product of scientific inquiry and research focusing on the philosophical issue of a subject searching for truth, objectivity and explicitly. In this research paper both qualitative and quantitative approach have been adopted primary data have been collected by field survey and secondary have been procured by census Handbook and District Gazetteers, Purnea.

Hypothesis

Hypothesis helps to explain facts. Its derivation thus forms the most important step in the selection of research problems. In this respect the hypothesis is a powerful tool in research process to achieve dependable knowledge. It helps the research to correlate theory to observation and observation to theory. The following hypothesis has been tested in this research:

1. Rural service centres are known as bridging link between rural areas and urban centres.
2. Evolution and function of rural service centres and influenced by its spatial location.
3. Site and location of rural service centres are related to its growth.

Nature of Rural service centres

Rural service centres in the study area, originated and developed as Block lead Quarters, Railway station, periodic market, Bas stand, and religion places.

The following rural service centres have been identified for detailed study.

Table No. 1: Nature of Rural service centres

Rural Centre	Service	Block	Area in Feet	Number of Households	Population
Halamala		Kishanganj	1364.98	1277	6139
Singhia		Kishanganj	910.53	2058	10064
Altabari		Kochadhaman	55.44	133	683
Deramari		Kochadhaman	22.17	476	2554
Bhawaniganj		Bahadurganj	29.17	3483	36993
Kochadhamin		Kochadhaman	235.53	1072	5623
Bahadurganj		Bahadurganj	129.17	3483	36993
Haribhasa		Bahadurganj	162.28	263	1211
Phulbari		terhagachh	269.11	725	3599

Matuari	terhagachh	1261.39	1627	8947
Dhabati	terhagachh	638.18	1165	6202
Dighalbank	Dighalbank	564.12	1451	7324
Lohargarhi	Dighalbank	244.02	689	3603
Tarabari	Dighalbank	193.84	595	2918
Sahapur	Pothia	450.00	504	2500
Sitalpur	pothia	1513.91	2500	12110
Ratanpur	Pothia	131.23	266	1278
Gachhipara	Kishanganj	197.48	354	1915

Source: Calculated by Scholar during field Summary

Above rural service centres large rural settlements and small towns, There are centre place issuing a focal points of rural area performing wide range of services. The function of service centre largely depends upon the status of category and type of service centre. For example the larger service centres and cities have witnessed greater concentrations of centralized service development in various fields, especially social, Cultural and economic. The smaller centres, urban centres, rural market centres and market village etc. have also got there function and services.

To study the functions of service centre, it is essential to focus the type of functions. In this respect function are classified into five groups:

1. Primary Function: cultivation, farming forestry, fisheries Quarrying etc.
2. Secondary Function: Manufacturing industries
3. Tertiary Function: Transport and communication
4. Quarterly Function: Education and training Centre
5. Other services: sale and purchase, Medical services and whole sales

Function of service centres also related with its classification in this respect classification. In this respect classification of service centres involves the development of a taxonomy in which settlement are described according to certain characteristics. Rural service centres may be either classified in terms of attributes or in terms of variables. Functions provide a more effective and useful criteria for classifying service centres.

The task of functional classification of rural service centres is by means no lisy is there are no universal criteria to classify them

indefinite groups of functions to put them in certain category as in every centre the services or functions performed are found in varying proportions.

In calculation of central services group and function of the service centres the following method has been used, table given below shows functional scores of the services -

Table No. 2: Functional scores of the service centres

Service groups	Function	Score value
Commercial	Bank	20
	Market-Daily	10
	Market weekly	08
Administrative	Subdivision	25
	Block	20
	Gram Panchayat	10
Educational	Degree college	18
	Inter college	16
	High School	12
	Middle School	10
Transport	Convent School	8
	Railway station	15
	Bus station	10
Communication	Post office	10
	Internet centre	8
Medical	Referral Hospital	15
	Hospital	12
	Nursing home	10
	Medical Practitioner	08

As per above service score value and hierarchy category of 18 selected rural service centres of the study area are as follows:

Table No. 3: Service Score of Rural service centres

Rural Service Centre	Block	Score	Functional category
Halamala	Kishanganj	38	D
Singhia	Kishanganj	48	C
Altabari	Kochadhaman	28	D
Deramari	Kochadhaman	52	C
Bhawaniganj	Bahadurganj	52	C
Kochadhamin	Kochadhaman	88	A

Bahadurganj	Bahadurganj	110	A
Haribhasa	Bahadurganj	42	C
Phulbari	terhagachh	52	C
Matiari	terhagachh	42	C
Dhabati	terhagachh	48	C
Dighalbank	Dighalbank	88	A
Lohargarhi	Dighalbank	38	D
Tarabari	Dighalbank	46	C
Sahapur	Pothia	55	C
Sitalpur	pothia	55	D
Ratanpur	Pothia	25	D
Gachhipara	Kishanganj	30	D

Source: calculated by Scholar on the basis of primary data.

As per above table only three service centres is functional category A, ten are in C category and five are in D Category.

Summary and Conclusions

From the above study "Nature and function of rural Service centres in Kishanganj district the following conclusions may be drawn Rural Service centres are bridging link between rural areas and urban centres. Evolution and function of rural service centres in the study area are related to mainly commercial and administrative nodes: Impact of rural Service centres on economy of Kishanganj district is positive.

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Recent Trend of Migration and its Socio-Economic impact in Madhubani District, Bihar

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Introduction

Man has always been interest in the facts and events that has been taking place around him. He has been exploring different sources of evidence concerning the facts and events to acquire reliable knowledge about the various aspects of human experience the study of human migration has become important because of the complexity of human life and rapidly changing socio-economic conditions which influence typology, trend causes and consequences of migration. The study of socio economic impact of migration in a specific area is very important Madhubani district of Bihar is influenced by migration. At present recent trend of migration in Madhubani district is reflecting as labour and students migration both. The impact of recent trend of migration in socio-economic aspects is positive and negative both way. Present research paper is concerned with Qualitative and Quantitative analysis of trend of migration with application of primary data.

Study Area

Study area, Madhubani district is situated in the northern part of Bihar. It is located between 25⁰8" N to 26⁰4" N latitude and 85⁰42" E to 86⁰41" E longitude. It is bounded on the north by Nepal, on the south by Darbhanga district, on the east by Supaul district and on the west by Sitamarhi district. Present district was sub-division of old Darbhanga district which acquired its independent status as district on 28th Nov., 1972. At present Madhubani district has five sub divisions and twenty one blocks.



FIG.-

Methodology

Methodology is a comprehensive term. It is a system of method, rules and techniques as well as a product of scientific enquiry and research focusing on philosophical issue of a subject searching for truth, objectivity and in the nature of things also bordering on imagination and speculation. The method of analysis adopted in this research paper in one which is very popular in recent geographical research in quantitative analysis of data. Both primary and secondary data for this research paper gathered by field survey of the sample villages and census Handbook of Madhubani district.

Hypothesis

Hypothesis is a powerful tool in research process to achieve dependable knowledge. It helps the researcher to correlate theory to observation and observation to theory in this research paper the following hypothesis has been tested:

1. High population pressure on economy influenced out migration of labours.
2. Limited work opportunity and minimum wage rate in the study area are push force for labour migration.

3. Impact of labour migration on socio- economic aspects of Madhubani district is curse or boon both.

Population

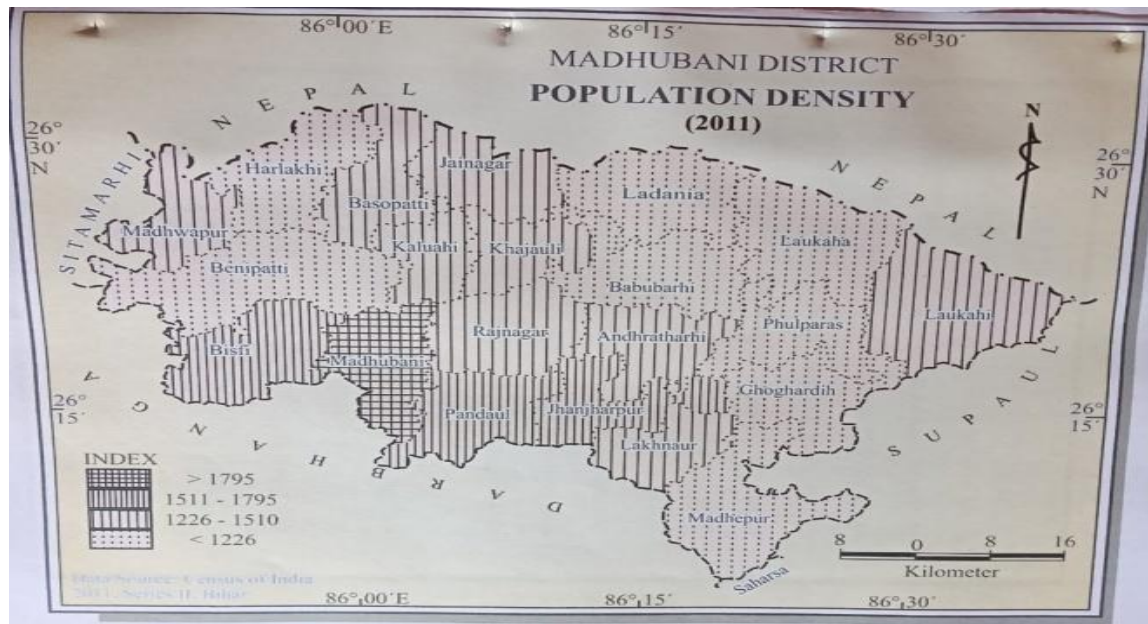
Population study is a part and parcel in any regional study, because population is the great resource among all the resources. The differentiation of economy of the region is the combined result of natural environment, its resources and the existing demographic structure of the region.

Table given below shows the population distribution and density in the study area, Madhubani district according to the blocks:

Table No. 1: Population distribution and density

Block	Population	Decadal Growth	Population Density
Madhwapur	134704	18.72	1243
Harlakhi	196251	29.36	990
Basopatti	173499	28.54	1327
Jainagar	193700	31.67	1499
Ladania	175561	27-77	955
Laukaha	212127	24.39	986
Laukahi	208317	33-75	1252
Phulparas	166018	27-67	1039
Babubarhi	217331	25-12	1149
Khajauli	143583	29.40	1258
Kaluahi	117282	21-16	1330
Benipatti	161400	26-32	615
Bisfi	320704	22-57	1770
Madhubani	323592	24-98	24.98
Pandaul	270642	23.74	1650
Rajnagar	246933	23.86	1380
Andharatharhi	191680	30-31	1294
Jhanjharpur	205520	26.29	1539
Ghoghardiha	193088	22.81	1175
Lakhnaur	167841	25.14	1429
Madhepur	267606	23.50	1135
Total	4487379	25.19	1300

Source- calculated by scholar on the basis of census of india, Madhubani district, 2011



As per above table total population of Madhubani district distributed among its twenty blocks Madhubani block shows maximum population 323592 and Kaluahi block shows minimum population 117282. Average population density in Madhubani district is 1300 persons per sq. Km. which higher than country density 382 persons and Bihar state density 1104 persons per sq. km. As per abuse table Madhubani block shows maximum population density 2091 and Benipatti block shows only 615 persons per sq. Km. Average decadal growth rate in Madhubani district is 25.19 percent which is higher than country and Bihar state decadal population growth. As per above table Laukahi block shows maximum decadal growth 33.75 percent and Madhepur block only 18.72 percent.

Trend of migration

Mobility or migration of population is a common phenomenas. The importance of each type of movement is obvious, as it provides an important network for diffusion of ideas and information and indicates symptoms of social change. Migration is primarily based upon socio-economic factors, Nature of migration from rural to rural, rural to urban and urban to urban as daily periodic, seasonal and permanent. Recent trends of migration in the district as labour migration. Ten villages have been selected as sample villages for study of recent treads of migration and its socio-economic impact. They are:

Table No. 2: Sample villages total population and migrants

Village	Block	Total Population	Migrants	Migrants (%)
Amouja	Phulparas	3677	735	20
Akaha	Madhwapur	918	174	19
Balwahi	Harlakhi	510	82	16
Belahi	Kaluahi	1508	287	19
Andah	Pandaul	338	37	11
Baingra	Harlakhi	3035	243	8
Bali	Jhanjharpur	3075	492	16
Adhwari	Benipatti	2597	285	11
Barhi	Jainagar	8423	674	08
Ajhauli	Bisfi	2517	227	9

Source: Calculated by scholar during field survey as primary data

Table given below shows age group of migrants in sample villages:

Table No. 3: Age group of migrants in sample village

Village	16-20	20-30	30-40	above-40
Amouja	5.40	35.00	40.00	19.60
Akaha	4.50	34.50	42.00	19.00
Balwahi	5.60	32.00	45.50	16.90
Belahi	6.00	36.00	41.00	17.00
Andah	5.00	40.00	38.50	21.50
Baingra	3.00	34.50	39.80	22.70
Bali	4.50	35.50	42.20	17.80
Adhwari	5.00	38.00	40.00	17.00
Barhi	6.00	36.50	41.00	16.50
Ajhauli	5.80	35.80	42.20	16.20
Average	5.28	35.78	41.22	18.40

Source: calculated by scholar on the basis of primary data

As per above table maximum proportion of migrants in sample villages is in 30-40 years age group 41.22 percent followed by 20-30 year age group 35.78 per cent above 40 years 18.40 per cent and 16-20 years age group only 5.28 percent. It reflects that your group migrants are maximum in proportion.

Impact on socio-economic aspects

Impact on socio economic aspects of migration in the study area is positive. It is treated as boon for rural economy but curse for

agricultural practices. Work opportunity is destination of migrants and more wage are positive aspect. Thus, trend of migration especially labour migration is in ascending tread. Impact on house, dress, materials, food habits and language are positive some social surest causing is migrants family but its impact is lesser than economy.

House is an indicator of development. Reflection of economy on house indicates its impact proportion of kutcha and pucca houses. Table given below shows the impact of migration on houses of sample villages:

Table No. 4: Nature of Houses (in Percent)

Village	Total No. of houses	Kutcha	Pucca
Amouja	734	15	85
Akaha	190	9	91
Balwahi	81	20	80
Belahi	307	16	84
Andah	362	17	83
Baingra	640	18	82
Bali	745	14	86
Adhwari	462	12	88
Barhi	2195	11	89
Ajhauli	550	15	85
Total/Average	5666	14.7	85.3

Source: calculated by scholar during field survey on the basis of primary data.

Conclusion

Recent trend of migration in Madhubani district is reflecting as labour 30&40 age group labours are maximum in migrants as 41.22 per cent followed by 20-30 age group 35-75 percent impact on pucca houses is positive and an indicator of economic development. Proportion of pucca houses in sample villages is 85.3 percent recent trend of migration in Madhubani is both boon or curse.

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A Comparative Study an Exploratory Study of Nutritional Knowledge among National Level Football Players

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Abstract

This exploratory study investigates the nutritional knowledge of national-level football players in India, emphasizing its significance for optimal athletic performance and recovery. A total of 120 male athletes aged 18 to 27 participated, completing the Nutrition for Sport Knowledge Questionnaire (NSKQ), which evaluates knowledge across six nutritional domains: weight management, macronutrients, micronutrients, sports nutrition, supplements, and alcohol. The results indicate that while players generally possess moderate nutritional knowledge, significant variability exists among individuals, particularly in areas such as micronutrient awareness and hydration practices. The study underscores the pressing need for targeted educational interventions to address misconceptions and enhance nutritional understanding among football players. Recommendations for future research include the development of tailored nutrition education programs, longitudinal studies to assess knowledge impact on performance, and greater involvement of coaches and support staff in the educational process. Overall, improving nutritional knowledge among athletes has the potential to positively affect training outcomes and foster long-term health benefits.

Introduction

Nutrition plays a vital role in the performance and recovery of athletes, especially in sports like football that require both high endurance and intense physical exertion (Moore et al., 2015). Adequate nutrition is essential for optimizing performance and

facilitating recovery from training and competition. An athlete's dietary choices directly influence not only their immediate energy levels but also long-term health and performance adaptations (Maughan et al., 2016). Inadequate diets can lead to a mismatch between dietary intake and the physiological demands of training and competition, which may severely hinder performance levels (Spronk et al., 2015).

In football specifically, enhancing nutritional knowledge is crucial for players, as it influences their understanding of not just macronutrients (carbohydrates, proteins, and fats) but also micronutrients (vitamins and minerals), hydration strategies, and the role of supplements in enhancing performance (Heaney et al., 2011). Research indicates that many athletes lack sufficient nutritional knowledge, emphasizing a critical need for educational programs that enhance understanding of dietary principles necessary for optimal performance (Heaney et al., 2011).

Football players must maintain a delicate balance of body composition, energy levels, and nutrient intake to perform at their best. Many studies have pointed out that footballers, irrespective of their level, often possess misconceptions regarding nutrition, which can lead to poor dietary choices (Williams, 2015). For instance, players often underestimate their caloric needs and rely on outdated or simplistic dietary beliefs, failing to optimize their nutrition for training and recovery (Pérez-López et al., 2009).

This exploratory study aims to investigate the nutritional knowledge status of national-level football players in India using the Nutrition for Sport Knowledge Questionnaire (NSKQ), which evaluates knowledge across multiple nutritional parameters, including macronutrients, micronutrients, supplementation, and hydration. By assessing the nutritional knowledge of these athletes, the study intends to identify gaps, providing insights that can inform targeted educational interventions aimed at enhancing both performance and overall health.

Methodology

Participants

The study involved 120 male football players selected from various colleges across India, aged 18 to 27 years, all identified as

national-level athletes based on competitive experience and achievements in football.

Instrumentation

The Nutrition for Sport Knowledge Questionnaire (NSKQ), consisting of 89 questions divided into six sub-sections—weight management, macronutrients, micronutrients, sports nutrition, supplements, and alcohol—was employed to assess nutritional knowledge. The questionnaire was designed based on established literature regarding nutritional needs for athletic performance and underwent validation through expert feedback from sports dietitians and nutritionists (Trakman et al., 2017). It demonstrated robust internal consistency with a Cronbach's alpha of 0.88, demonstrating reliability as an assessment instrument.

Data Collection

Data collection was conducted in controlled environments at the participants' training facilities. Participants received the NSKQ alongside clear instructions to ensure they understood the survey format, the purpose of the study, and the importance of responding honestly. Participants had adequate time to complete the questionnaire, and informed consent was obtained in accordance with ethical research guidelines.

Statistical Analysis

Data analysis was conducted using IBM SPSS Statistics software. Descriptive statistics were calculated to provide an overview of participants' nutritional knowledge. Additionally, independent t-tests evaluated differences in nutritional knowledge based on players' positions within their teams (for example, forwards vs. defenders), with statistical significance set at $p < 0.05$.

Results

The study assessed demographic and nutritional knowledge characteristics of national-level football players. Below are key findings from the descriptive statistics:

1. **Demographics:** Participants' ages ranged from 18 to 27 years, with a mean age of 23.93 years ($SD = 2.6$). The relatively young age of this demographic indicates considerable potential for

the impact of nutritional education on performance outcomes (Moore et al., 2015).

2. **Anthropometric Measurements:** Heights varied from 1.70 to 1.92 meters, with a mean of 1.81 meters (SD = 0.04). Weights ranged from 65.00 kg to 88.00 kg, with an average weight of 76.65 kg (SD = 5.41). These measurements suggested that participants are within healthy ranges, consistent with existing literature advocating for optimal body composition tailored to athletic performance (Maughan et al., 2016).

3. **Training Frequency:** Participants reported a mean training frequency of 4.71 sessions per week (SD = 1.26), reflecting a strong commitment to physical preparation. This frequency aligns with recommendations for optimal training loads aimed at enhancing performance and recovery (Bujold et al., 2019).

4. **Experience in the Sport:** Years of playing experience varied from 2 to 12 years, averaging 6.82 years (SD = 2.72). Such variation indicates a diverse level of experience, which is likely to influence individual nutritional knowledge levels.

5. **Nutritional Knowledge Assessment:** NSKQ scores ranged from 43 to 78, with a mean score of 64.71 (SD = 10.24). The percentage scores varied from 48.31% to 87.64%, with an average percentage of 72.71% (SD = 11.51). These findings indicate that, while players generally possess a moderate level of nutritional knowledge, significant variability exists among individuals.

Nutritional Knowledge Breakdown

To further analyze the nutritional knowledge scores, the NSKQ responses were categorized into key areas: macronutrients, micronutrients, hydration, supplements, weight management, and alcohol. The analysis revealed the following:

- **Macronutrient Knowledge:** Many players showed a robust understanding of carbohydrates and proteins, which are essential for energy and recovery. However, there was less consensus regarding the proportions of macronutrients optimal for various training phases.

- **Micronutrient Awareness:** A significant number of players lacked awareness of the importance of micronutrients, particularly vitamins and minerals, critical for physical performance and immune function (Heaney et al., 2011).

- **Hydration Practices:** Many athletes exhibited misconceptions about hydration needs, often underestimating the volume of fluids needed during practices and games, especially in high-intensity conditions (Burke et al., 2011).

- **Supplement Knowledge:** Knowledge about dietary supplements was mixed; while some athletes could identify commonly used supplements, their understanding of when and how to use these products effectively was limited.

- **Weight Management and Alcohol:** Players demonstrated minimal understanding of effective weight management practices and the potential negative effects of alcohol on performance and recovery (Thomas et al., 2016).

Discussion

This study emphasizes the critical importance of nutritional knowledge among national-level football players in India. Given the young age demographic, the findings suggest that these athletes are still in crucial developmental stages where understanding nutrition can significantly impact their performance outcomes (Moore et al., 2015).

The relationships between athletes' training and nutritional understanding highlighted in this study align with findings from previous research, indicating that athletes with more comprehensive nutritional knowledge tend to make better food choices, positively influencing their performance (Spronk et al., 2015; Heaney et al., 2011). The lack of informed dietary choices—as indicated by the moderate NSKQ scores and the substantial variability among players—emphasizes the urgent need for targeted educational interventions. Many athletes face challenges in meeting hydration and nutrient requirements during intensive training, as noted in the literature (Pérez-López et al., 2009; Thomas et al., 2016).

Misconceptions may stem from inadequate exposure to structured nutritional education programs, highlighting the necessity for evidence-based nutrition education tailored toward athletes (Williams, 2015). Workshops and seminars conducted by sports dietitians could effectively bridge these knowledge gaps, aligning with findings that suggest a positive correlation between dietary

knowledge and dietary practices among athletes (Stoltzfus et al., 2019).

Educational initiatives should focus not only on general nutritional principles but also on practical applications tailored to the specific demands of football. Addressing the identified gaps in hydration, micronutrient intake, and supplementation can significantly enhance athlete performance and overall well-being.

Implications for Future Research

Future research should address the following areas:

1. **Longitudinal Studies:** Conducting longitudinal studies could provide insights into how nutritional knowledge impacts athletic performance over time, helping to establish a causal relationship.

2. **Tailored Nutrition Programs:** The creation of tailored nutrition education initiatives specific to the needs of football players should be prioritized, with a focus on understanding the role of various nutrient types to correct misconceptions.

3. **Broader Athlete Engagement:** Additional studies should examine nutritional knowledge across a broader spectrum of sports to gather a comprehensive understanding of athlete nutritional education at different levels, leading to generalized recommendations that can be adapted for specific needs.

4. **Experience and Education Levels:** Investigating how different educational backgrounds and playing experiences affect nutritional knowledge could lead to more effective, customized educational strategies.

Engaging coaches, support staff, and dietitians in simultaneous nutrition education initiatives can maximize the implementation of nutritional strategies. A multi-faceted approach that combines practical training with theoretical understanding may yield the most effective outcomes (Schoenfeld, 2016).

Conclusion

This study affirms the vital role of nutritional knowledge in optimizing athletic performance and health outcomes among national-level football players in India. While the observed knowledge levels were moderate, there is considerable potential for improvement through structured educational programs aimed at enhancing athletes' understanding of nutrition. Addressing identified

gaps not only has the potential to improve training and competitive success but also fosters long-term health benefits in athletes.

Future Recommendations

1. **Structured Nutrition Education Programs:** Responsive to the identified gaps in nutritional knowledge, future research should focus on developing comprehensive, structured nutrition education programs tailored specifically for football players. These programs should direct attention to specific areas such as macronutrient distribution, micronutrient deficiencies, and hydration strategies.

2. **Long-term Impact Studies:** Conducting longitudinal studies to explore the long-term impact of improved nutritional knowledge on athletic performance is vital, enabling the establishment of best practices within collegiate and national-level training regimens.

3. **Broader Athlete Populations:** Future studies should explore nutritional knowledge in varied athletic populations to identify trends and tailor educational efforts accordingly.

4. **Customized Nutritional Strategies:** Interventions must consider individual athlete characteristics, such as position and experience, to enhance the relevance and effectiveness of dietary recommendations.

5. **Involvement of Coaching and Support Staff:** Enhanced involvement of coaches and support staff in nutrition education could create a cohesive approach to athlete education, promoting a culture that values nutritional understanding as a critical component of athletic performance.

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Recent trends of Migration and its impact on socio-economic aspects of Dhamdaha subdivision

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Introduction

Geography is often referred to spatial science that is discipline concerned with the use of earth surface. It is further, the study of how observable spatial pattern evolved through time. Population geography provides the background tools and understanding of those interests. It focuses on number, composition and distribution of human beings in relation to variation in the conditions of earth space. Migration is to movement of people from one place to another, Recent trends of migration in Dhamdaha subdivision in the form of agricultural labourer and students is north west direction impact of migration on socio-economic aspects of the study area is both positive and negative. Present research paper is concerned with flow of migration and its impact on the application of primary data of sample villages.

Study area

Study area, Dhamdaha subdivision is a part of Purnea district. There are four subdivisions in Purnea district namely Purnea sadar, Banmankhi, Baisi and Dhamdaha. Study area Dhamdaha block is located in the southern part of Purnea district. It is bounded on the north by Purnea sadar subdivision, on the south by Bhagalpur Subdivision, on the east by Katihar district and on the west by Banmankhi Subdivision. It is located between $25^{\circ}13'3''$ North to $26^{\circ}5'2''$ North latitude and $87^{\circ}4'$ to $87^{\circ}30'$ East longitude. As per 2011 census its total population is 925126.

Methodology

The method used in scientific research is usually designated as scientific method. Scientific method consists of those basic steps: systematic observation, classification and interpretation of data. Both Qualitative and Quantitative methods will be applied in this research.

Primary data for this research like number of migrants, age group of migrants and caste group of migrants have been gathered by field survey of the study area, especially sample villages. Demographic features and religion related data have been get produced by census handbook of Purnea district. Conclusions have drawn with the application of Primary data.

Hypothesis

Hypothesis helps to explain facts. Its derivation thus forms the most important step after the selection of the research problem. From the research scholars point of view the hypothesis may be conveniently considered as a tentative or working assumption and the theory as the surveying or final hypothesis which is most defensibly supported by all the evidence. Available literature is considered as the major source of the hypothesis. In this research paper the following hypothesis have been tested-

1. Recent trend of migration from the study area is containing in North West direction.
2. Evergreen work opportunity and low wage rate are push force for labour migration.
3. Impact of migration on socio-economic aspects of the study area both positive and negative.

Migration

Table given below shows the total population and member of migrants in 16 sample villages

Table No. 1: Total population and migrants

Sl.	Block	Village	Total Population	Percent	Number of Migrant
1.	Barahara	Nipania	9052	6	543
2	Barahara	Aurahi	8976	8	718
3	Barahara	Sukhsena	13235	5	662
4	Barahara	Barhari	10835	9	975
5	Bhawanipur	Lathi	1703	4	68
6	Bhawanipur	Jabe	6363	6	382
7	Bhawanipur	Raghunathpur	3154	7	221
8	Bhawanipur	Bhamet	2906	4	116
9	Rupauli	Singhpur	1324	3	40
10	Rupauli	Gorial	26406	6	1614

11	Rnpauli	Mahabala	4272	5	213
12	Rupauli	Kanp	3990	4	160
13	Dhamdaha	Sihuli	2293	3	69
14	Dhamdaha	Kajra	4642	6	279
15	Dhamdaha	Kuari	4996	4	200
16	Dhamdaha	Bishunpur patti	6069	5	303
	Total		110218	7.18	6613

Source: Calculated by scholar during field survey on the basis of primary data

As per above table total number of sample villages are sixteen, total population of sample villages are 110218 total number of migrants are 6613 and proportion migrants in total population is 7.18 per cent. As per above table Barhari village shows maximum proportion of migrants 9 percent, followed by Aurahi 8 percent and Raghunathpur 7 percent, As against Sihuli village shows only 3 percent of migrant of the total population of the village, followed by Kuari, Kanp, Bhamet and Lathi 4 percent.

Recent Trends

Recent trends of migration in the study area, Dhamdaha sub division as agricultural labours and students, Proportion of agricultural labours are more than student.

Table given below shows the proportion of agricultural labours and students is sample villages of the study area.

Table No. 2: Number and proportion of migrants

Sl.	Village	Number of Migrant	Agricultural Labours	Students
1	Nipania	543	507	36
2	Aurahi	718	679	39
3	Sukhsena	662	632	30
4	Barhari	975	934	41
5	Lathi	68	63	5
6	Jabe	382	347	35
7	Raghunathpur	221	210	11
8	Bhamet	116	110	6
9	Singhpur	40	25	15
10	Goriar	1614	1592	22
11	Mahebala	213	206	7

12	Kanp	160	156	4
13	Sihuli	69	59	10
14	Kajra	279	267	12
15	Kuari	200	192	8
16	Bishunpur patti	300	272	28
-	Total	6613	6304	309

Source: calculated by scholar during field survey on the basis of primary data

As per above table total migrants are 6613. Numbers of agricultural labours among migrants are 6304 and number of students only 309. Proportion of agricultural labour is 95.33 and proportion of students only 4.67.

Proportion male and female migrants are not equal. Table given below shows the Proportion of migrants as male and female.

Table No. 3: Proportion and Number of male and female

S.	Village	Number of Migrants	Agricultural Labours		Students	
			Male	Female	Male	Female
1	Nipania	543	497	10	30	6
2	Aurahi	718	670	9	36	3
3	Sukhsena	662	630	2	20	10
4	Barhari	975	900	34	39	4
5	Lathi	68	60	3	5	0
6	Jabe	382	337	10	33	2
7	Raghunathpur	221	200	10	10	1
8	Bhamet	116	100	10	6	0
9	Singhpur	40	25	0	13	2
10	Goriar	1614	1552	40	21	1
11	Mahabala	213	200	6	7	0
12	Kanp	160	148	8	4	0
13	Sihuli	69	50	9	8	2
14	Kajra	279	260	7	11	1
15	Kuari	200	180	12	8	0
16	Bishunpur Patti	303	272	0	22	6
		6613	6134	170	271	38

Source: calculated by scholar during field survey on the basis of primary data

As per above table number of females 170 and male are 6134. In this respect number of female migrants only 38 and male are 271.

As per proportion 97.8 percent male and only 2.2 percent females in agricultural labours Among Students migrants. Proportion of male is 87.70 and female 12.30 percent. Thus proportion of female migrants among students is higher than proportion of female migrants in agricultural labours.

Impact on socio Economic Aspects

Study area, Dhamdaha sub division is an agricultural dominated area. Thus, impact of labour migration on agricultural activities is negative. More income of agricultural labours as higher wage treated as positive impact on economy. Impact of student's migration on economy of the study area is negative. In this respect impact of migration on socio economic aspects of the study area is negative.

Summary and conclusions

Study area, Dhamdaha subdivision situated in the southern parts of the Purnea district. There are four blocks in this subdivision; sixteen villages have been selected as sample villages for study of impact of migration on socio-economic environment of the study area. Number of total migrants in sixteen villages are 6613. Among total migrants 6304 are agricultural labours and 309 are students. Total numbers of male migrants are 6404 and female migrants are 208. Proportion of male migrants is 96.8 and female migrants are 3.2 impact of migration on Socio-economic aspects of the study area is negative.

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Familial Factors Influencing Alienation and Adjustment

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Abstract

The present study was conducted on 150 respondents to examine the effect of size of the family type of the family, parenting style, sibling distance and ordinal position on alienation and adjustment of the respondents. The respondents were selected using incidental-cum-purposive sampling technique. For the purpose Alienation Scale by Singh. Hindi adaptation of Bell's adjustment Inventory by Mohsin and Shamshad, Akhtar's Parent Child Relationship Scale along with a PDS were used to measure alienation, adjustment and Parenting Style of the respondents. It was conducted that (i) Respondents belonging to small sized family, nuclear family, democratic parenting style, large sibling distance, first ordinal position all were found less likely to be the victim of alienation. (ii) Respondents of small sized family, nuclear family, democratic parenting style, large sibling distance, first ordinal position all were found having sound adjustment.

Key Words: Familial, Alienation, Adjustment and Ordinal Position

The term 'alienation' has been defined as the action of estranging or the state of estrangement in feeling. The term 'alienation' has been used with various meanings in psychology. According to Reber et al. (2009) the term 'alienation' refers to a feeling of strangeness separation from others, a sense of a lack of warm relations with others. In the present empirical study the term 'alienation' has been used as dependent variable social support which is defined as the availability and dependability that a person gets from people closely associated with him, People who believe that they belong to a social network of communication and mutual obligation, experience, social support (Handerson, et al., 1978). Cobb (1976) defined social support as information that leads the individual

to believe that he is cared and loved, esteemed and valued, and that he belongs to a network of communication and mutual obligations.

One important component of the present study is adjustment which refers to a continuous process through which the individual tried to bring harmonious, stable, satisfying relationship with the environment by bringing changes in the environment to fit into his own demands of his environment (Peter et al., 1991).

Several studies have shown that intra family factors are closely and significantly responsible for alienation as well as adjustment. These factors include family constellation (Heaven et al., 1986, Rani. 2002). So, under taking of the present study will score both exploratory as well as confirmatory objectives.

Objective

The present study intended to examine the effect of family constellation on alienation as well as adjustment of the respondents.

Method

Sample

The study was conducted on a purposive-incidental sample of 150 children. The respondents were matched other than the conditions of research such as sex, SES and inhabitation.

Tools

- (i) Personal Data Sheet,
- (ii) Hindi Version of Dean's Alienation, Scale – Singh,
- (iii) Parent Child Relationship Scale-Akhtar,
- (iv) Hindi Adaptation of Bell's Adjustment Inventory Mohsin and Shamshad

Procedure

Scales along with PDS were employed on the respondents and they were grouped into desired groups using respective median cuts. Therefore, they were compared in terms of alienation and adjustment using chi-square test. The results, thus obtained, have been displayed in table-(1) and (2) given below:

Results and Interpretation

Table- 01

Chi-square showing the influence of familial factors on alienation

Familial Factors	Groups	N	Alienation		X ²	df	p
			High	Low			
Size of the family	Large	60	69%	31%	22.00	1	<.01
	Small	90	36%	64%			
Type of the family	Extended	80	70%	30%	26.18	1	<.01
	Nuclear	70	34%	66%			
Parenting Style	Democratic	90	28%	72%	32.32	1	<.01
	Authoritarian	60	68%	32%			
Sibling Distance	Large	95	32%	68%	18.18	1	<.01
	Small	55	62%	38%			
Ordinal Position	First	95	30%	70%	24.75	1	<.01
	Other than first	55	65%	35%			

The results displayed by table- 01 clearly revealed the significant influence of family constellation on alienation of the respondents. More than %69 of respondents of large family sized group and only %36 of respondents of small sized family group were found belonging to high alienation group. On the other hand only %31 of large family sized group and more than %64 of respondents of small sized family group were found belonging to low alienation group. The chi-square was found significant ($\chi^2=22.00$; $df= 1$; $p<.01$). Thus hypothesis no.-(1) is partly retained. Further, the results displayed by table-01 clearly revealed the significant influence of family constellation on alienation of the respondents. More than 70% of respondents of extended family sized group and only 34% of respondents of nuclear family.

Family group were found belonging to high alienation group. On the other hand only 30% of extended family sized group and more than 66% of respondents of nuclear family group were found belonging to low alienation group. The chi-square was found significant ($\chi^2= 26.18$; $df = 1$ $p < 0.01$) Further, the results displayed by table-01 clearly revealed the significant influence of family constellation on alienation of the respondents. Only 28% of respondents of democratic family sized group and more than 68% of respondents of authoritarian family group were found belonging to

high alienation group. On the other hand more than 72% of democratic family sized group and only 32% of respondents of authoritarian family group were found belonging to low alienation group. The chi-square was found significant ($X^2 = 32.32$; $df = 1$ $p < 0.01$). Thus hypothesis no.-(1) is partly retained. Further, the results displayed by table-01 clearly revealed the significant influence of family constellation on alienation of the respondents. Only 32% of respondents of large sibling group and more than 62% of respondents of small sibling family group were found belonging to high alienation group. On the other hand more than 68% of large sibling group and only 38% of respondents of small sibling group were found belonging to low alienation group. The chi-square was found significant ($X^2 = 18.18$; $df = 1$ $p < 0.01$). Further, the results displayed by table-01 clearly revealed the significant influence of family constellation on alienation of the respondents. Only 30% of respondents of first original position group and more than 65% of respondents of other than first ordinal position group were found belonging to high alienation group. On the other hand more than 70% of first original position group and only 35% of respondents of other than first ordinal position group were found belonging to low alienation group. The chi-square was found significant ($X^2 = 24.75$; $df = 1$ $p < .01$). The finding might be interpreted on the rationale that the children of unfavourable family climate group suffered from familial affection and involvement more than the children of favourable family climate group which leads to gradual induction of alienation. The finding might be interpreted on the rationale that children of extended family suffers from love and care and becomes victim of more parental rejection than their counterparts leading to more alienation. Like wise respondents of democratic parenting style, large sibling distance and first ordinal position all are beneficiary of facilitating condition leading to less likely to be the victim of alienation.

Table- 02

Chi-square showing the influence of familial factors on adjustment of the respondents

Familial Factors	Groups	N	Alienation		X ²	df	p
			High	Low			
Size of the family	Large	60	33%	67%	29.17	1	<.01
	Small	90	71%	29%			
Type of the family	Extended	80	34%	66%	27.66	1	<.01
	Nuclear	70	71%	29%			
Parenting Style	Democratic	90	70%	30%	30.73	1	<.01
	Authoritarian	60	31%	69%			
Sibling Distance	Large	95	69%	31%	26.18	1	<.01
	Small	55	33%	67%			
Ordinal Position	First	95	68%	32%	23.35	1	<.01
	Other than first	55	34%	66%			

The results displayed by table- 02 clearly revealed the significant influence of family constellation on adjustment of the respondents. More than 71% small family sized group and only 33% of large sized family group manifested sound adjustment. On the other hand more than 67% of large sized family group and only 29% of small sized family group manifested poor adjustment. The chi-square has found significant ($X^2=29.17$; $df=1$; $p < 0.01$).

Further, more than 71% nuclear family sized group and only 34% of extended sized family group manifested sound adjustment. On the other hand more than 66% of nuclear sized family group and only 29% of extended family group manifested poor adjustment. The chi-square has found significant ($X^2=27.66$; $df=1$; $p < 0.01$). Further, more than 70% democratic Parenting style group and only 31% of authoritarian parenting style family other hand only 30% of authoritarian parenting group manifested sound adjustment. On the style group and more than 69% of democratic parenting style group manifested poor adjustment. The chi-square has found significant ($X^2=30.73$; $df=1$; $p < 0.01$). Further, more than 69% large sibling distance group and only 33% of small sibling distance other hand only 31% of large sibling distance group manifested sound adjustment. On the group and more than 67% of small sibling The chi-square has found significant gamma * 2 = distance group manifested poor adjustment. 26.18; $df=1$; $p < 0.01$). Further, more than 68% first ordinal position group and only 34% of other than first

ordinal group manifested sound adjustment. On the other hand only 32% of first ordinal position group and more than 66% of other than first ordinal group manifested poor adjustment. The chi-square has found significant ($X^2 = 23.35$; $df = 1$; $p < .01$). Thus hypothesis no. (2) is retained. The findings might be interpreted on the ground not favourable family constellation lead to grow positive personal trait leading to have sound mental health and adjustment.

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Nepal-USA Diplomatic Relations (April 25, 1947): A Historical Overview

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Abstract

Most of the Rana prime ministers pursued a policy of fostering friendship only with the British in India. However, Padma Shumsher Rana, the second-last prime minister of the Rana regime, brought a shift in Nepal's foreign policy by declaring Nepal's intent to establish diplomatic ties with other countries too. As a result, Nepal gradually expanded its contacts and relations with various nations of the world. During World War II, Nepal and the USA developed closer ties due to wartime necessities. After the war, both countries expressed interest to establish diplomatic relations. So the Treaty of Commerce and Friendship was signed between the two countries on April 25, 1947 and joined diplomatic relations formally. After joining diplomatic relations, important visits between the two nations began to take place. Early on, visits played a crucial role in fostering ties between Nepal and the U.S., and personal exchanges among key figures became a defining aspect of bilateral relations.

Key words: ambassador, diplomatic, foreign, friendship, government, relations, visit

Introduction

Although Nepal had always followed a policy of establishing diplomatic relations solely with Britain, but the second last Prime Minister of Rana Regime, Padma Shamsheer, adopted a policy of forging diplomatic relations with other nations of the world too. Accordingly, due to the proximity brought about by World War II, both Nepal and the United States expressed a desire to establish diplomatic relations. As a result, on April 25, 1947, 'The Treaty of Commerce and Friendship' was concluded, and thereby established diplomatic relations between the two countries. This treaty came to fruition through a series of events, meetings, and talks that played a

crucial role in bringing the agreement to the final stage. Therefore, this article has been prepared with the purpose of providing information on the circumstances that led to the establishment of diplomatic relations between Nepal and America on April 25, 1947, interests of both countries in forging these ties, and the provisions of the treaty.

Method and Materials

This research adopts a qualitative historical methodology to explore Nepal-America diplomatic relations (25 April 1947). This article has been mostly written in a descriptive method, and analytical method has been also applied in necessary places. It draws on both primary and secondary sources, including government documents, academic books and articles. Gregorian (AD) and Bikram Sambat (BS) date systems are used in the main text of the books, journals, news papers etc. However, AD has not mentioned in English dates and BS has been referred in Nepali dates.

Introduction of Prime Minister Jung Bahadur and Prime Minister Chandra Shamsheer to U.S. Ambassadors

During his visit to Britain in 1850, Prime Minister Jung Bahadur met and exchanged introductions with the American ambassador to Britain, Lawrence, in London (JBR, 2059 BS; Rana, 1980). In 1866, he also expressed a desire to send Nepali troops to assist during the American Civil War to President Abraham Lincoln (Manandhar, 2004). It is possible that Jung Bahadur was inspired by the introduction exchange with the American ambassador in Britain to express a desire for military cooperation during the American Civil War to strengthen relations with the U.S. In 1908, Prime Minister Chandra Shamsheer also exchanged introductions with the then American ambassador during his visit to Britain (Shiwakoti & Dahal, 2060 BS). However, these interactions alone were not sufficient to bring Nepal and the U.S. closer together.

American Perspective on Accepting Nepali Goods with Minimal Customs Duties

In 1910, William H. Michael, the American Consul General in Calcutta, mentioned that goods imported from Nepal could be accepted with minimal duties according to the then American

customs regulations (US Informations Service, n.d.). This implies that at that time, the American government was willing to establish trade relations with Nepal and was ready to impose only minimal customs duties on Nepali goods. However, detailed information on this matter is not available.

Visit of Nepali Minister General Krishna Shamsheer Rana to the United States

In 1939, Nepali Minister General Krishna Shamsheer Rana visited the United States. This visit is considered the first official visit to the U.S. on behalf of Nepal (Khanal, 2004). The specific purpose of his visit across the Indian Ocean to the United States remains unclear.

Nepal's invitation to the American technical experts

The first official contact between the two nations occurred in 1945 during a formal meeting in New Delhi between Nepali officials and technical experts from the U.S. Foreign Economic Administration (Swatantra Bishow, 1987). On this occasion, the Nepalese government invited American technical experts to come to Kathmandu for discussions on Nepal's economic development with the aim of expanding relations with the United States (Dharamdashani, 1984). But, it remains unclear whether those American technical experts were aware of their visit to Nepal at that time. Nevertheless, these events helped create an environment that brought Nepal and the United States closer together.

Clear stance of Nepal to expand diplomatic relations with USA

Most Rana Prime Ministers adopted a policy of limiting Nepal's diplomatic relations to the British in India, which prevented the expansion of Nepal's diplomatic relations throughout the Rana era. However, the last Rana Prime Minister, Padma Shamsheer, abandoned this policy and pursued a strategy to expand Nepal's diplomatic relations with other nations. Government representatives also clarified Nepal's foreign policy accordingly at various international conferences. In March 1946, General Vijaya Shamsheer Rana expressed at the 'Afro-Asian Relations Conference' in Delhi, attended by political leaders and social figures from 28 countries (Gorkhapatra, 2005 BS) that Nepal wishes to strengthen its relations with its old

friends while extending a hand of friendship to other nations of the world (Muni, 1973). This statement allowed the international community to understand that Nepal wanted to abandon its old foreign policy and expand diplomatic relations with other nations.

U.S. Military's highest honor, the 'Legion of Merit' to the Prime Minister Padma Shamsheer

The Second World War played a significant role in bringing Nepal and the United States closer together and establishing diplomatic relations. Nepal's participation on the side of the Allies during the Second World War allowed Nepali and American military forces to interact for the first time. The bravery displayed by Nepali soldiers during the war greatly impressed the American government, military, and public. After the Allies' victory in the war, Prime Minister Juddha Shamsheer sent a congratulatory and best wishes message to U.S. President Harry S. Truman (Ghimire, 2063 BS). At the same time, the Nepali Minister in London, General Singh Shamsheer Rana, also visited the United States on behalf of the Nepalese government towards the end of 1945. During this visit, he met with President Harry S. Truman and other high-ranking officials (Swatantra Bishow, 1987). In this context, in July 1946, a Nepali delegation also visited the United States as guests of the U.S. State Department and the War Department (Swatantra Bishow, 1987). This goodwill delegation was led by the then Eastern Commanding General Baber Shamsheer Rana. The delegation, which spent ten days in the U.S., was warmly welcomed by the American government as official guests, with tours of places like Washington and New York, as well as demonstrations of military training. During the meetings, U.S. President Harry S. Truman expressed that the American government would also send a delegation to visit Nepal, extending a hand of friendship in recognition of the military assistance, Nepal provided to the Allies during the war. At that time, President Truman also sent a photograph of himself as a token to Prime Minister Padma Shamsheer (Gorkhapatra, 2003 BS), while the Nepali delegation presented the 'Om Ram Patta' decoration to President Truman on behalf of King Tribhuvan (Shah, 1996).

In accordance with the wishes expressed by U.S. President Truman to the Nepali goodwill delegation to advance friendship with

Nepal, he considered sending a delegation to Nepal and awarding the U.S. military's highest honor, the 'Legion of Merit,' to Prime Minister Padma Shamsheer in recognition of the bravery and assistance provided by the Nepali army during the Second World War. For this purpose, President Truman sent a delegation led by American acting ambassador to India, George R. Merrell to Kathmandu. Accordingly, in November 1946, Merrell arrived in Kathmandu and presented the 'Legion of Merit' to Prime Minister Padma Shamsheer on behalf of the U.S. government (Swatantra Bishow, 1987).

On this occasion, U.S. Minister Louis W. Henderson, who accompanied George R. Merrell to Nepal, stated that 'this honor is the highest honor given by the United States to any foreign nation's prominent figures, praising the bravery shown by the Nepali army in collaboration with the Allies during the First and Second World Wars' (Gorkhapatra, 2005 BS). Thus, the fact that the United States, as one of the world's most powerful countries after the Second World War, recognized and honored the bravery of the Nepali army by awarding its highest military medal to Nepal clearly indicates that the U.S. viewed Nepal from an important perspective.

The function presenting the 'Legion of Merit' played an important role in establishing diplomatic relations between Nepal and the United States. During the function of presenting the 'Legion of Merit', U.S. acting ambassador George R. Merrell made significant statements. The main part of his speech was as follows;

The United Nations (United States of America) However, Nepal had also returned home from the battlefields of Europe. Nevertheless, my country has decided that as long as the fascist oppressors are not removed, the peace-loving nations of the world will not be free from fear. Therefore, Nepal has sent its sons to fight willingly. I firmly believe that the close relationship between America and Nepal will continue to grow stronger in the coming era of peace. America has moved forward towards Nepal for friendship and good wishes (Gorkhapatra, 2003, p. 1-4).

According to the statements given by George R. Merrell made clear that the United States wants to establish permanent diplomatic relations with Nepal. In response to the statements of George R. Merrell, Prime Minister Padma Shamsheer expressed his opinion as follows;

We all are pleased that you have graciously shared welcoming remarks with us. From a new world, your first visit to Nepal, the oldest Hindu state, from America, is a historic event. We salute your great nation. With gratitude, we wholeheartedly welcome your wishes and friendship that you have extended to us. We hope that the close and joyful relationship during times of conflict will become even closer in times of peace (Gorkhapatra, 2003, p. 1-4).

This statement by Prime Minister Padma Shamsheer clearly indicated that Nepal also wishes to establish diplomatic relations with the United States. At the conclusion of the medal presenting ceremony, Prime Minister Padma Shamsheer expressed his commitment to make every effort to strengthen the friendly relations between Nepal and the United States (Gorkhapatra, 2005 BS). On that occasion, Prime Minister Padma Shamsheer also formally invited the U.S. government to send a special delegation to Nepal to establish diplomatic relations and to sign a Commerce and Friendship Treaty. George R. Merrell stayed in Kathmandu from November 16 to 22, returned to the U.S. with the invitation from the Nepalese government.

Establishment of Diplomatic Relations

According to the expressions made by representatives of both countries for joining diplomatic relations between the two countries in the occasion of presenting 'Legion of merit', U.S. President Harry S. Truman appointed Joseph C. Satterthwaite as his special representative to conclude a 'Commerce and Friendship Treaty' with Nepal, sending him to Nepal in April 1947. Accordingly, Satterthwaite arrived in Nepal on April 13, 1947, and on April 21, he presented President Truman's letter to King Tribhuvan (US Informations Service, n.d.). Four days later, at 2:31 PM on April 25, the 'Commerce and Friendship Treaty' was signed and established diplomatic relations between Nepal and the United States in a meeting at the Singha Durbar Gallery Baithak. The treaty, made on the basis of equality and parity (Thapa, 2069 BS), was signed by Prime Minister Padma Shamsheer on behalf of Nepal and by Satterthwaite on behalf of the United States. Although, the President Truman was not on that occasion, but honoring him, a 21-gun salute was given to him while a 31-gun salute was fired in honor of King

Tribhuvan, along with a salute band for both (Gorkhapatra, 2004 BS). The agreement was made on a Friday because that day was considered auspicious by Nepal, and the date and time for the agreement were determined by astrologers (Swatantra Bishow, 1987). After the signing of the agreement, Nepali military generals requested assistance to American officials for Nepal's economic survey, feasibility studies for hydropower production, and the establishment of industries in the Terai region. After the establishment of diplomatic relations, embassies were not immediately opened in both countries. It was decided that the American ambassador to India would also serve as the ambassador to Nepal, and the Nepali ambassador to London would serve as the ambassador to the United States. Later, in 1959, embassies were established in both countries.

In the treaty, U.S. President Truman addressed Nepal as a sovereign nation. After World War II, the emerging superpower of the world, United States recognized Nepal as a sovereign state for the first time in written form, allowing this agreement to present Nepal to the international community as an independent and sovereign country. This treaty can be considered a significant historical event as it showcased Nepal's own independent status in the international arena. This was Nepal's second diplomatic relationship established with foreign nations after Britain. Therefore, in an interview, the U.S. Ambassador to Nepal, Leon J. Wile had said that '...we are the second country of the world that recognized Nepal as sovereign country' (Swatantra Bishow, 1988, 12). What he meant was that the United States was the nation that recognized Nepal as an independent and sovereign country after Britain. Indeed, by signing this agreement, the United States recognized Nepal's independence and sovereignty. When Nepal established this diplomatic relationship with the United States, there was British rule in India. Britain did not oppose this treaty, because there were good relations between Britain and the United States. Similarly, the neighboring country China and later becoming independence of India, there is no record of any reaction from the signatories of this treaty. Perhaps they did not oppose it because this treaty was related only to friendship and commerce, not to security and military matters. After the establishment of diplomatic relations between the

two countries, a 'General Agreement for Technical Cooperation' was signed in 1951. According to that agreement, 'USOM', later 'USAID', began to provide economic and technical assistance for the development of various sectors in Nepal. This was significant for Nepal's development. In 1955, the United States helped Nepal to get membership of the United Nations Organization (Thapa, 2069 BS). This was also a result of the establishment of diplomatic relations with United States.

The interests of Nepal and the United States in establishing diplomatic relations

At that time, Nepal and the United States had mutual interests in establishing diplomatic relations. The main objective of the Rana rulers in establishing diplomatic relations with the United States was to bolster their own power. There would be chance for Rana rulers to lose their great supporter, if British would be lose their rule in India. Therefore, seeing the end of British rule in India, the Rana rulers adopted a policy of connecting relations with another powerful nation to preserve their rule. For this, the neighboring country of China could have been suitable. However, as the influence of communists was increasing in China, they saw no possibility of receiving support from China and instead looked to Western nations as potential allies. The Americans had a good relationship with the British, and diplomatic relations with British India were also established. Even after the British were expelled from India, American presence remained. Thus, the Rana rulers aimed to maintain their rule by obtaining support and assistance from the Americans, just as they did from the British. Therefore, they established diplomatic relations with the United States. It is also said that the Rana rulers wanted to gain international recognition that Nepal, governed by them, is an independent and sovereign nation. For this, they adopted a policy of establishing relations with other nations and moved forward to build friendships with powerful countries like Britain (Sharma, 2006). It is also said that Prime Minister Padma Shamsheer's objective in establishing diplomatic relations with the United States was to bring in economic assistance from America (Amatya, 2004). Their attention was directed towards the United States, and in this context, Nepal established diplomatic relations with America. However, contrary to

their hopes and objectives, during the Anti-Rana revolution in 1951, the United States did not provide any kind of support to the Rana rulers. Instead, the U.S. accepted the political changes of 1951. Therefore, the political interests that the Rana rulers had in establishing friendly relations with the United States were completely unsuccessful.

Establishment of diplomatic relations with Nepal by America was not a ruler's interest as Nepal. They had nation's interest to join diplomatic relations with Nepal. Initially, the main objective of the United States in seeking relations with Nepal was to end British influence in Nepal (Bhandari, 1980). However, as time passed, the U.S. established diplomatic relations with Nepal to expand its influence in South Asian nations and to prevent the entry of communist influence in Nepal. The increasing power of communists in China and the potential exodus of the British from India indicated a possibility of growing communist influence in the region. The U.S. wanted to prevent the spread of communist influence in this area. The conclusion of the U.S. was that only if it could fill the power vacuum created by the British exodus from India could it stop the communist influence. Therefore, by establishing a friendly treaty with Nepal, the U.S. aimed to prevent the spread of communist influence in this region. Similarly, at that time, the Soviet Union was also increasing its communist influence in Asian nations. For this, the Soviet Union could have made a weak nation like Nepal a focal point. Therefore, the U.S. did not want to allow the influence of Soviet and Chinese communist regimes to spread in Asian nations. Thus, the U.S. adopted a policy of establishing diplomatic relations with Nepal to assert its presence before such a situation arose. With this objective, the U.S. established diplomatic relations with Nepal.

It is also said that due to the Cold War with the then Soviet Union, the U.S. wanted to establish friendships with countries in every corner of the world to bring them to its side. Therefore, the desire shown by the Rana rulers of Nepal to maintain friendship with the United States was easily accepted by the United States (Karki, 2039 BS). The statement issued by the U.S. State Department shortly after the treaty also confirms this. According to the statement, the U.S. sought to maintain the power of a non-communist country like Nepal, increase the inclination of western democratic countries

against the Soviet Union and its allied nations, engage Nepal in the global arena, and promote Nepal's development, economic advancement, and the development of political organizations in a democratic manner. The statement was as follows;

Our fundamental objectives with respect to Nepal are the maintenance in power of non-communist government, the continued orientation of such government toward the western democracies as opposed to Soviet Russia and its satellites and the increasing participating of Nepal in world affairs. We desire the development of Nepal's economy and political institutions along democratic lines (Jain, 1983, 181).

After this friendship treaty, the United States was also successful in preventing the influence of communism in Nepal. Therefore, the objectives with which the U.S. established diplomatic relations with Nepal were indeed successful.

Evaluation of the Agreement

The Friendship and Commerce Treaty between Nepal and the United States was signed on April 25, 1947, and it established diplomatic relations between both countries. In some treaties between nations, a specific time period is set. However, this treaty does not specify any time period. Therefore, according to this treaty, diplomatic relations between Nepal and the United States have continued to progress to this day. This treaty is based on equality. All the provisions mentioned in this treaty are agreed upon to be equally adhered to by both countries. Therefore, the duties and obligations that Nepal and the United States must fulfill according to the treaty, as well as the rights obtained by both countries, are of the same nature, with no differences.

The Friendship and Commerce Treaty between Nepal and the United States contains a total of 12 articles. As mentioned in the first article, both countries have become agreed that diplomatic and political relations will be established between the two countries from the day of ratification (Bebhans, 1972). The second article states that diplomatic representatives sent by one country to the other will enjoy all rights, privileges, freedoms, and exemptions according to international rules, laws, and norms in the territories of the other country. Similarly, the third article states that the rights and

freedoms granted to diplomatic representatives of third countries in their respective countries will also be granted to the diplomatic representatives of the other country, and there will be no reduction in those rights (Bebhans, 1972). According to the third article, both countries agree that no customs duties or taxes will be levied on the furniture, clothing, utensils, etc., necessary for the diplomatic representatives and offices sent by one country. The fourth article states that diplomatic officials, consular officers, and other workers from one country will be provided the facility to take necessary items to the other country without any customs duties, taxes, or levies. However, it is restricted that the workers should not be citizens of the respective country and should not be engaged in personal employment in the other country. Similarly, it can be seen that both countries have agreed that no customs duties, taxes, or levies will be imposed on the items sent by the respective country for diplomatic officials, consular officers, and other workers later on. However, the fifth article imposes some restrictions on the facilities mentioned in the fourth article. According to this, diplomatic officials must inform the relevant country's authorities in advance to obtain such facilities, and the relevant country may request information about such items, and if such items are found to be against the rules in the relevant country, there is a prohibition on sending or bringing back such items. This provision ensures that no party can bring items that violate the laws and interests of the relevant country, thus eliminating the fear of illegal items entering the relevant country.

According to the sixth article, both countries agree to provide facilities and protection to the citizens of each other's countries according to universally accepted international laws, ensuring the protection of their lives, property, and rights by the authorities and laws of the relevant country, and that the treatment of these citizens will not be less favorable than that of citizens of third countries residing in the relevant country. According to the agreement made in this article, when Nepali citizens go to America for various purposes, they will receive protection for their lives, property, and other rights, and they will be able to enjoy the same facilities and rights as citizens of other countries, which has become a positive aspect for Nepalese.

As mentioned in the seventh point, if the United States or Nepal has agreed on matters such as trade and maritime transportation

facilities, privileges, customs exemptions, or the application of customs with any third country, both Nepal and the United States have agreed to grant and receive the same rights and facilities from each other accordingly.

However, if either country has accepted membership in the customs union, and if it has made an agreement with neighboring countries for the convenience of transit in the marginal areas (demarcated countries), and if it has established relations with countries that are parties to various economic agreements that are generally applicable in significant trade areas with the aim of promoting international economic relations or international trade recognized by the United Nations, then the provisions regarding special facilities provided or to be provided according to point seven shall not apply, as mentioned in point eight.

In point nine, rules regarding the import and export of luxury goods and military weapons are also made. This point mainly addresses the export and import of goods made of gold and silver, and military weapons, during times of national crisis, when it is necessary to fulfill the duty of maintaining international peace and security, and when rules need to be established for those coming from abroad to reside in the country. It is mentioned that both countries have the right to create and enforce any kind of law or regulation that suits their interests. This means that if any rules need to be established regarding the matters mentioned above, such agreements will not cause any difficulties.

In the moral or humanitarian field, regarding humans, animals, plants, or health issues, or in the enforcement of rules related to customs and police, this agreement will not impose any restrictions, as clarified in point ten. As mentioned in point eleven, all the rules mentioned in this agreement will apply to all areas within the sovereignty and rights of both countries, but will not apply in the Panama Canal area. The provisions that some matters mentioned in the agreement between the two countries will not apply to the Panama Canal seem to take into account the interests of the United States.

It is mentioned in point twelve that this agreement will remain in effect continuously until another detailed trade agreement is made. Similarly, either Nepal or the United States has the right to terminate

this agreement if they do not wish to continue it. However, for this, any country must provide a written notice of 30 days. Likewise, if points seven and eight need to be revoked, this can also be done, but a written notice of 30 days is required. However, until now, neither Nepal nor the United States has attempted to revoke the entire agreement or any matters in points seven and eight. This indicates that both countries are fully satisfied with this agreement. This agreement has been the driving force behind the Nepal-U.S. relationship so far.

The importance and characteristics of the agreement

This agreement between Nepal and the United States has various characteristics and significance. This treaty was Nepal's second diplomatic treaty after the one with Britain. Until then, Nepal had not established diplomatic relations with any other countries besides these two. There is no time limit set in this treaty, which means that it is not specified that this treaty will be renewed after a certain number of years. Therefore, according to this treaty, diplomatic relations between Nepal and the United States have been continuously advancing. This is not a treaty of win or loses; it is an agreement made between a large and powerful country and a small and weaker country based on equality and parity. This treaty does not include provisions where one country gives up or provides something while the other country only receives. This treaty is not related to military and security matters but is purely political and diplomatic, as well as related to trade and commerce. After this treaty was signed, Nepal established friendship with the United States, which emerged as one of the world's powerful nations after World War II. At that time, the Cold War was intensifying between the United States and the Soviet Union. This treaty could raise suspicions that Nepal might be part of the American bloc. Therefore, Nepal established diplomatic relations with the Soviet Union on July 20, 1956 to show that the Soviet Union is also a friend of Nepal. This also played an important role behind establishing diplomatic relations with Russia.

Conclusion

After the Rana rulers saw the end of British rule in India, they wanted to establish friendship with a powerful country like Britain to

maintain their rule and felt it necessary to ensure their presence in the region to prevent the spread of communism from China and the then Soviet Union in Southeast Asia, leading to the establishment of diplomatic relations between Nepal and the United States. It appears that the diplomatic relations between the two countries were established due to their respective interests. Initially, while establishing diplomatic relations with the United States, the interests of the ruling class played a role more than national interests, but over time, it seems to have fulfilled national sovereignty. This is because, after the establishment of diplomatic relations, the United States has provided significant assistance for the development of Nepal's infrastructure, the advancement of democracy, and the protection of human rights. This has strengthened the relationship between the two countries.

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Gossner Mission in Leprosy Care in Chota Nagpur Division of British India: A Study on the Encounter between German Evangelists and Colonial Legislation; 1880s-1910s

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Abstract

The Gossner Evangelical Lutheran Mission (GELM) is the first Christian missionary group that arrived in the Chota Nagpur plateau, India (1845), commonly known as the Gossner Mission. GELM was founded by J.E. Gossner in Berlin, Germany (1836). In the late nineteenth century, a lot of asylums were established by various groups of Christian Missionaries and were aided by Mission to Lepers (MTL). The impact of this phenomenon can be felt in the case of Chota Nagpur Division, under the auspices of the aid of MTL two Leper Asylums set up by Rev. Ferdinand Hahn and Rev. Henrich Uffman, missionaries of the Gossner Mission at the Lohardugga town of the upper plateau and Purulia town of the lower plateau respectively. Notably, the colonial era saw a significant development in the conceptualization, ideation, and implementation of 'care' through missionary efforts, marking a pivotal moment in the nineteenth century. The most appealing aspect of this 'civilising mission' was the explicit cooperation that existed between the colonial state and the missionary bodies. This article seeks to locate these aspects of leprosy in the colonial Chota Nagpur Division.

Keywords: asylum, confinement, segregation, legislation, philanthropism

The missionary activity imprinted the Christian representation of leprosy in the public mind and has discussed how historically this care and treatment evolved into a 'separatist tradition'.¹ The colonial policy and practices of leprosy were also drawn by a mixture of

Christian symbolism, biomedicine, and political expediency and the health of indigenous people was peripheral.² Jane Buckingham's study shows that the Lepers Act 1898 marked a new relationship between the Mission to Lepers and the colonial government, with the Mission seeking autonomy while receiving funding tied to accommodation provision. This led to the Mission taking on responsibility for leprosy care and treatment from the early 20th century. The Mission successfully balanced autonomy and government support, maintaining its independence while providing accommodation under the Act. As a result, the care and treatment of leprosy sufferers fell largely under the Mission's responsibility, with the government providing financial support.³ While Jo Robertson disagrees with Buckingham's timing of the shift in responsibility for leprosy care, although she concurs with her assertion that leprosy care transitioned from being a primarily governmental concern to a predominantly missionary one. In the view of Robertson, the Mission's activities and reforms in asylums preceded and, in some cases, served as a model for government institutions. She argues that while the transition was complete by 1898, its beginnings can be traced back to the time initial tour in 1886 of Wellesley Bailey, the founder and general secretary of MTL, which marked the commencement of this process.⁴ In this context, Das has brought to criticize the concept of 'degeneration', was present in colonial reports, including negotiations among central authorities, local deputy magistrates and indigenous public associations, on the debates over the Leper Bill of 1889, and subsequent legislation such as the Leprosy Commission, Bengal Lepers Act, and Lepers Act of 1898.⁵

Gossner Missionaries initiated benevolent works in Chota Nagpur, including two Leper Asylums at Lohardugga and Purulia town, from the 1880s to 1910s. This article examines the encounter between Missionary care and colonial legislation regarding leprosy, aiming at proselytization and prevention measures. The consequences of these objectives are studied through analysing the colonial legislation for the asylum managements before and after the 1898 Lepers Act. The article outlines the legal ways relationship through depicting the collaborations and negotiations among the Gossner Mission, the MTL, and colonial administrators. It explores

how these parties navigated their objectives, leading to the establishment and management of the Leper Asylums. By analysing these interactions, the article sheds light on the complex dynamics between missionary work and colonial legislation in addressing leprosy in the region.

Responses from the Gossner Mission and Local Governments for Leprosy Care: Establishment of Leper Asylums at Lohardugga and Purulia

In the Chota Nagpur division, leprosy was prevalent in both the upper and lower plateaus, as reported in missionary literature and colonial reports. Rev. Hahn reported that in Lohardugga, leprosy was not stigmatized, and infected individuals were found throughout the district, albeit in small numbers. The local Kols tribe did not consider leprosy contagious and interacted freely with those infected.⁶ In 1881, Rev. Hahn and Mr. Bailey formed a working relationship for leprosy care in the region. Rev. Hahn sought advice on treating leprosy patients, and Mr. Bailey offered to aid the Gossner Mission in opening an asylum. Rev. Hahn welcomed this 'new idea' and proposed establishing the asylum in Ranchi, but it was ultimately built in Lohardugga due to its central location.⁷ The asylum opened in February 1884, near the town site provided by the young Maharaja of Chota Nagpur. Initially, it admitted leprosy patients, and later, healthy children of leprosy-infected parents were also taken in as part of philanthropic efforts. Civil Surgeon of the division, Dr. Swaine visited the asylum and approved its management, acknowledging the efforts of Rev. Hahn and the Gossner Mission.⁸

In Purulia town, the circumstances were different due to strong prejudices against leprosy care. Europeans feared the accumulation of leprosy patients would pose a public health risk, while locals believed it was against God's will to help them.⁹ However, Rev. Uffman was motivated to build an asylum after his eight-year-old daughter Maria died of measles complicated by leprosy in 1883. After this incidence, he invited leprosy-infected beggars to live in his bungalow, and a report sent to Mr. Bailey described the 'unusually harsh treatment' of municipality to leprosy patients in Purulia, highlighting the need for an asylum. This sparked enthusiasm among MTL members, leading to a meeting in Dublin on February 7, 1884,

where they agreed to aid Rev. Uffman in building an asylum at Purulia.¹⁰ The asylum was seen as a 'moral necessity' to address the harsh treatment of leprosy patients.

A report by the colonial government describes an incident that sheds light on colonial perspectives of local phenomena. In Purulia town, a 'leper refuge' was initially located near the jail wall, but was later deemed unsuitable and relocated to the north side of town. However, the refuge attracted many leprosy-infected people, becoming a nuisance. In 1883, the municipality ordered non-resident leprosy-infected people to return home, with a temporary contribution of twenty rupees towards expenses. Despite this, leprosy-infected people continued to return, leading to the eventual burning of the refuge huts. Rev. Uffman then contacted the MTL committee in Edinburgh, securing funds for an asylum. In 1888, a thirty-seven bigha land was acquired, and the Purulia Leper Asylum was established, initially housing seventy-seven inmates. As the asylum's population grew, Rev. Uffman faced financial difficulties. In 1894, with 284 inmates and a 600-rupee debt, he appealed to the municipality and Deputy Commissioner for help. He claimed to have relieved the municipality of dealing with leprosy-infected individuals and requested recognition of this service. However, records showed that previous contributions were made through subscriptions, not municipal funds. Meanwhile, a 100-rupees monthly contribution was sanctioned by the order of the Lieutenant Governor of Bengal since 1891. Mr. Windsor, the municipal chairman, requested a three-year account statement from Rev. Uffman. The municipal committee offered a grant of ten rupees per month, conditional on Rev. Uffman providing housing, food, and medical treatment to all leprosy-infected individuals, who were willing to enter the asylum voluntarily, and such leprosy-infected people as might be sent by the municipality should be treated according to their religious faith and customs.¹¹ However, Rev. Uffman declined the grant, refusing to accept conditions, and did not submit the requested accounts, ending the matter.

In December 1894, a petition with 40 signatures of European and native residents of the town was submitted, expressing concerns that Rev. Uffman's asylum was attracting leprosy-infected individuals to Purulia town, creating a nuisance and impairing property values.

The petitioners complained that the asylum's presence discouraged town development. Mr. Windsor, the municipal chairman, was requested to persuade Rev. Uffman to relocate the asylum. The deputy commissioner offered to assist by procuring a site and collecting subscriptions. Rev. Uffman refused to accept these terms. In response, Mr. Windsor passed an executive order under section 237 of the Municipal Act, forbidding leprosy-infected individuals from entering the town. The committee requested Rev. Uffman not to erect new houses without permission. The municipal authority argued that they were justified in interfering with the asylum's management due to residents' objections. Rev. Uffman petitioned the chairman on April 6, 1895, for permission to increase accommodation due to overcrowding. The petition was referred to a sub-committee, but the committee was legally refused sanction. It was resolved that Rev. Uffman was free to build a new house, and the legal remembrancer's opinion would be taken on the committee's power.¹² The dispute between Rev. Uffman and the municipal authority continued, with the asylum's uncertain future.

Legislating the Confinement and Segregation of Sex: The Scenarios at Lohardugga and Purulia

The colonial government sought to amend legal provisions for managing leprosy inmates' rights, beyond social isolation and sex-based segregation, however, homogenizing indigenous concepts and discourses on infectious diseases proved challenging.¹³ A draft bill was formulated in June 1889, aiming to isolate lepers and improve their condition. The bill initiated a decade-long debate and negotiation on compulsory confinement of leprosy-infected individuals in India.¹⁴ The bill was sent to various authorities for consideration, but unlike in metropolitan cities, no public associations of Indian people were consulted in the Chota Nagpur division. W. H. Grimley, Commissioner of the Chota Nagpur Division, consulted with local officials, medical experts, and missionaries. E. N. Baker, Deputy Commissioner of Manbhum, criticized the bill's principle, citing divided medical opinions on leprosy's contagiousness. He argued that the bill was unjust and unwise, targeting only beggars and loafers while leaving leprosy-infected individuals in homes untouched. Baker reported that out of 76 Purulia Leper Asylum's inmates, 19 contracted

the disease from leprosy parents, and 13 from marriage connections. He suggested that the bill's scope should be enlarged to prohibit leprosy-infected individuals from engaging in occupations and employment to effectively arrest the disease's prevalence.¹⁵ The administrators proposed modifications to the bill, aiming to balance public health concerns with individual rights and cultural sensitivities.

The Gossner Missionaries expressed concerns about segregating leprosy-infected individuals by sex and their religious rights. Rev. Hahn highlighted the humanitarian difficulties in separating married couples and families. While the Purulia Asylum enforced sex segregation, Rev. Hahn couldn't separate married couples in the Lohardugga Asylum. Rev. Dr. Nottrott agreed with the bill's provisions but suggested the government should care for minor children of separated parents and build homes for them within the asylum. The Gossner Missionaries established programs for children, teaching them basic knowledge and skills, and planned to open industrial schools. Rev. Hahn recommended revising section four of the draft bill, as it was impractical for leprosy-infected individuals from interior regions to apply for admission to an asylum. He proposed a helping agency to provide legal support and suggested authorizing missionaries or native pastors to assist. Rev. Hahn criticized section five for authorizing police to arrest and commit leprosy-infected individuals, instead proposing that they only bring offenders to the notice of the Magistrate. He emphasized the need for strict control over punishment and suggested that missionaries or philanthropic individuals manage the retreats. He argued that leprosy-infected individuals required kindness, consideration, and moral guidance to prevent them from engaging in harmful behaviours. The Gossner Missionaries accepted the conditions outlined in sections eight and ten, regarding the power of local government to make rules and provide grants. However, they clarified that religious instruction in the asylum was not obligatory, and inmates could maintain their caste and religious beliefs.¹⁶ The Government of Bengal refused to provide grants to Hahn's asylum due to his reluctance to enforce segregation of married couples.

In 1891, the Leprosy Commission was appointed to investigate leprosy and legal measures to combat it. The Commission concluded that leprosy is not hereditary, but contagious and inoculable. They

identified predisposition causes such as poverty, bad food, and poor sanitation as indirectly influencing the disease.¹⁷ The Commission visited the Purulia Asylum in February 1891 and reported that it followed segregation and housing guidelines. They noted that no children were born in the Asylum, and no healthy children had become infected with leprosy.¹⁸ Wellesley Bailey and Dr. Hilson also visited the Asylum, in the same year. Dr. Hilson reported that the sex segregation arrangement was efficient, and children of leprosy-infected individuals were kept in separate buildings. He commended the cleanliness and good sanitary arrangements under Rev. Uffman's supervision.¹⁹ The Leprosy Commission's and Dr. Hilson's positive reports facilitated or paved the way for a legal and institutional understanding between the Gossner Mission and the GOB. This enabled the Gossner Mission to continue managing the Purulia Asylum, received funds as adhering to government guidelines.

The Leprosy Commission's report provided practical measures for controlling leprosy. The Government of India (GOI) agreed with the commission's recommendations after reviewing responses from provincial governments. On October 31, 1893, the GOI acknowledged the commission's recommendations as the ultimate solution for the "leper" problem. However, the GOI delayed creating an Imperial Act to control leprosy. Instead, the Government of Bengal (GOB) passed the Bengal Lepers Act on March 23, 1895, to segregate "pauper lepers" and regulate certain trades or callings. The act, also known as Bengal Act No. V of 1895, was drawn up under Lieutenant Governor Sir Charles Elliott's instructions. The legislation distinguished 'pauper lepers' from common leprosy sufferers. The Bengal Lepers Act allowed for compulsory confinement of vagrant 'lepers' with a medical authority's certificate, applicable only in municipal areas with existing asylums.²⁰ This act marked a significant step in addressing leprosy in Bengal, while the GOI continued to hesitate on imperial legislation.

On April 4, 1895, N. Bonham Carter, under-secretary to the GOB, directed W.H. Grimley, commissioner of the Chota Nagpur Division, to report on the suitability of the Lohardugga Asylum for declaration under the Bengal Lepers Act. Grimley was also asked to ascertain the wishes of the proprietors regarding bringing the asylum under the Act. Grimley proposed to submit a similar report on the

Purulia Asylum, suggesting it was larger than Lohardugga. He wrote a report on bringing both asylums under the act, noting that Rev. Hahn, formerly in charge of Lohardugga, had left for Europe and Rev. Gemesky was now in control. As of April 1, 1894, the Lohardugga asylum had 23 inmates, with four deaths, one departure, and three new admissions, including a Brahmin sent from Hazaribagh. Most inmates were baptized, only five non-Christians. The asylum also accommodated seven boys and six girls, healthy children of leprosy parents, in a separate children's home.²¹ Deputy Commissioner Colonel Gordon reported that he had visited the asylum multiple times, finding it always sanitary, neat, and clean, and conducted with careful principles.²²

Mr. Grimley's report aimed to assess the asylums' suitability for operation under the Bengal Lepers Act, considering factors like management, condition, and inmate demographics. The report highlighted difficulties with the Purulia Leper Asylum. The asylum served both as a hospital for advanced leprosy cases and an almshouse for 'pauper lepers' with less severe symptoms, conflicting with section eleven of the Act. This section allowed for the discharge of 'pauper lepers' when they no longer posed a hazard to the community. Additionally, religious restrictions and practices in the asylum interfered with its full utilization as intended by the Act. The average cost of caring for each inmate was three to twelve rupees per month, covering expenses like food, shelter, medical attendance, medicine, school, and spiritual instructions.²³ Deputy Commissioner Mr. Morshead noted that Rev. Uffman was justified in imposing religious conditions on voluntary admissions.

I do not allow the inmates to worship idols, nor do I require them to become converts. Every inmate is allowed to remain in his own religion and is not required to become a Christian; they can attend religious service if they choose, but are not forced to do so if they do not wish.²⁴

Mr. Morshead expressed dissatisfaction with the Purulia Leper Asylum's discipline, citing the lack of boundary walls, allowing inmates to visit relatives and interact with outsiders, residents' objections. He questioned the justification of sending 'lepers' to such an institution. Additionally, he noted the absence of adequate medical care and sanitation measures, with only two sweepers using

phenyl to disinfect the premises. To address these issues, a proposal was made to set aside a portion of the institution for declaration as an asylum under the Act, subject to MTL approval.²⁵ Maps of the Purulia town and asylum were submitted to plan the establishment.

On the other, Wellesley Bailey wrote to the Lieutenant Governor, On June 17, 1895, inquiring about advantages of outfitting Lohardugga Asylum under the Act. Mr. Bailey, secretary of MTL, requested a meeting with the Lieutenant Governor, outlining four key points:

1. Expenses for new buildings, maintenance, and inmate remuneration.
2. Concerns about joint proprietorship.
3. Government's position on homes for untainted children.
4. Restrictions on Christian instruction in asylums aided by MTL.²⁶

H. H. Risley, secretary of the municipal department, suggested utilizing existing Leper Asylums in western Bengal, a recognized leprosy-prone zone, in the simplest and cheapest way possible.²⁷ He proposed a capitation grant for each inmate sent to an asylum under the Act, conditional on:

1. Separate houses for inmates.
2. Rules for sex segregation.
3. Freedom to exercise their religion.

These were the approaches of colonial government, addressing the concerns of MTL and its aided missionary groups for implementing the Bengal Lepers Act. The Commissioner of Chota Nagpur, W.H. Grimley, consented to put Lohardugga Asylum under the Bengal Lepers Act on August 8, 1895. Rev Dr A. Nottrott also agreed to bring the Asylum under the Act. H.H. Risley instructed the Commissioner to define local areas for sending "lepers" to the Asylum. Colonel Gordon designated the entire Lohardugga district and assigned the Head of GELM as Superintendent. A Management Board was formed with four members, including the Head of GELM and local officials.²⁸

The Lepers Act, 1898: Application and Consequences in the Gossner Missionary's Asylums

The Government of British-India proposed an Imperial Act on leprosy before completing the enactment process of the Bengal Lepers Act. A bill introduced in the Legislative Council on July 30, 1896, modelled on the 1895 Act, aimed to segregate "pauper lepers" and restrict leprosy-infected individuals from certain occupations. The 1896 Leprosy Bill justified legislation for full intervention in the daily lives of leprosy-infected people to reduce infection risk, without mentioning the contagiousness degree.²⁹ The Lepers Act 1898, No. III, introduced on February 4, 1898, made these interventions under regulations on leprosy-infected people in India. Section two of the Act defined 'leper' and 'pauper lepers', emphasizing those who publicly solicit alms or expose their condition to obtain charity.³⁰

The Purulia Asylum flourished under Rev. Uffman's superintendence, earning praise from John Jackson, working secretary of MTL, who toured Indian Leper Asylums and published his travelogue in 1901. Jackson called the Purulia Asylum a 'leper village' and commended its church-centred village life, separate spaces for leprosy-infected people and their children, and various work activities like cultivation and brick making.³¹ After consulting Rev. Uffman, Jackson wrote to H.C. Woodman, Under-secretary of the GOB, on 12 and 13 March 1901, about bringing Purulia Asylum under the Act of 1898. He drafted rules based on the asylum's practices. In response, Woodman informed the Commissioner of Chota Nagpur, on 3 April 1901, about introducing the Lepers Act, iii of 1898, into Bengal, suppressing the 1895 Act.³² The commissioner was directed to negotiate consent for Purulia Asylum's appointment, consult with Jackson and Uffman on rules, and appoint a board of management under section five of the Act. The board would consist of at least three members, including the deputy commissioner, civil surgeon, and possibly the superintendent of the institution. The superintendent's dual role was debated, and it was suggested to appoint them under section four of the Act. The negotiation was to determine the local area for sending 'lepers' to Purulia Asylum. The Lieutenant Governor suggested the whole Chota Nagpur Division and districts of Bankura, Burdwan, and possibly Santhal Parganas.³³

After John Jackson's return to London and Rev. Uffman's passing, the local committee 'Vorstand' of the GELM sent a report to the deputy commissioner and MTL Secretary. The report requested opinions on proposals and draft rules for the Purulia Leper Asylum. The Local Committee sought clarification on appointing subordinates and the government-appointed Board of Management's control over the asylum. They requested continued spiritual influence by Gossner Mission agents over 'lepers' and sought changes to the draft rules. The Local Committee found the word 'education' in section fourteen ambiguous, suggesting it referred only to secular education. They requested adding 'and religious instruction' to remove doubts. Gossner Mission emphasized the importance of free exercise of religion for inmates under the Act. Gossner Mission argued that religion centred around caste rules and suggested altering "religion" to "caste rule" in section fourteen. They permitted non-Christian inmates to observe their caste's food rules, allowing freedom under the circumstances.³⁴ Gossner Mission emphasized the importance of accommodating inmates' religious and caste practices, ensuring their freedom and well-being. Further, Rev. Hahn wrote to the commissioner on May 6, 1901, stating that extending the Lepers Act to Chota Nagpur was unnecessary, except in Manbhum district. He noted that few vagrant lepers existed in areas like Lohardugga, and Kols didn't outcaste leprous family members, except in some areas where a few leprous beggars preferred freedom over asylum life.³⁵ The Local Committee's objections highlighted practical concerns about the asylum's location and language barriers, while Rev. Hahn's letter emphasized the limited need for the Lepers Act in Chota Nagpur.

Missionary intervention in leprosy led to further separation and exclusive proselytization in Leper Asylums, with varying attitudes towards confinement. Medical beliefs of asylum managers played a significant role, while the colonial government remained largely silent on inmates' religious rights. In October 1902, F.A. Slacke, Commissioner of the Chota Nagpur Division, responded to the GOB's queries about Purulia Asylum's capacity, funding, and infrastructure needs. The GOB then issued notifications on November 15, 1902, to bring part of the asylum under the Lepers Act of 1898, allowing 'lepers' from Manbhum district to be admitted, contingent on

additional buildings being constructed. The Superintendent would oversee asylum operations, report incidents, and provide necessary facilities, including religious freedom.³⁶ This collaborative governance model balanced coercion and persuasion, demonstrating the GOB's willingness to work with Gossner Mission to manage leprosy cases.

L.P. Shirres, secretary of Municipal department of GOB, allocated 5200 rupees for infrastructure to construct an office building, a dispensary, quarters for the native doctors, walls around the government portion of the asylum and additional latrine; also sanctioned capitation grant 5 rupees per mensem for each inmates confined in the asylum.³⁷ In January 1905, the government provided an 8,100-rupee grant and allocated 450 inmates 18 rupees per head for three years.³⁸ The Purulia Asylum's development under the Lepers Act 1898 marked a significant shift in leprosy management, with increased government involvement and funding, but also raised concerns about religious rights and exclusive proselytization. Despite collaborative efforts, the government questioned the accuracy of asylum inmate numbers and sought precise data. In 1904, only 414 out of 622 inmates had visible ulcers, leading the government to consider reducing funding.³⁹ T.A. Bailey argued that non-ulcerous cases, including tubercular patients, required equal attention and funding. He requested increased capitation grants due to financial difficulties, but the government refused, citing a fixed three-year budget.⁴⁰ In 1910, the government provided Rs 12,000 for 500 inmates, a lower rate than requested.⁴¹ By 1913, the asylum population grew to 714.⁴²

The 1901 census revealed over 28,000 leprosy-infected people in Bengal, with a higher prevalence rate than in 1891, despite a decline in figures except for Manbhum and Santhal Parganas.⁴³ Missionary groups urged the government to provide accommodation for segregating all leprosy sufferers, encouraging the establishment of voluntary institutions and subsidizing existing ones. The MTL organized a conference for Leper Asylum Superintendents at Purulia Asylum from February 18-21, 1908, to discuss managing asylums with government funds while achieving proselytizing goals along with following colonial instructions. The conference was attended by superintendents from United Provinces, Bengal, and Central India, with Wellesley Bailey as Chairman and Rev. H.M. Blaby as Secretary.

The Lieutenant Governor of Bengal was invited but unable to attend, so Mr. W.C. McPherson, Deputy of the Board of Revenue, represented him.⁴⁴

The conference submitted issue-based resolutions to the Lieutenant Governor of Bengal province. The main issue was the reconsideration of the definition of 'leper' under the Act, which was interpreted differently across India. In some districts, a healed ulcer meant a 'leper' was no longer under the Act, while elsewhere, any past ulceration kept them under the Act. The conference noted many contagious tubercular cases without ulceration were not covered under the Act. The conference requested the government to alter or modify the definition to address this issue. Another key issue was the need to accelerate the Lepers Act's application across Bengal province and India. The conference urged the government to legislate and provide accommodation for segregated 'lepers' and encourage voluntary institutions throughout the province. The conference believed sex segregation was essential in all asylums, except in exceptional circumstances involving married couples.⁴⁵ The conference sought to address the challenges in leprosy management, including inconsistent definitions and the need for expanded legislation and accommodation.

C. A. Oldham, Secretary of the Municipal Department of Bengal, responded to the conference with observations on the resolutions. He stated that altering the definition of "lepers" was a matter for the Government of India (GOI) to consider, and the conference's suggestion was submitted accordingly. Regarding extending the Lepers Act throughout the province, the GOB deemed it impracticable, opting for a cautious approach, only extending the Act where necessity was proven, and proper arrangements could be made. They recognized the necessity of segregating sexes, acknowledging it as a practical measure to prevent the disease.⁴⁶ On May 25, 1908, the Deputy Commissioner of Sambalpur district declined to bring the district under the Act, citing few leprosy cases, and instead sent them to Purulia Asylum. The GOB argued that extending the Lepers Act was under consideration, and they accepted the desirability of extending it to notified areas.⁴⁷ The GOB's responses reflected a cautious approach to extending the Lepers Act,

prioritizing careful consideration and practical arrangements over widespread implementation.

Conclusion

The Gossner Mission initially aimed to proselytize leprosy-infected people, but colonial regulations contradicted this goal. Positive negotiations resolved the issue, and asylums adopted colonial regulations to secure government funding. During World War I, the asylum faced a crisis due to the Gossner Missionaries' German nationality, opposing Britain. The British government took control of the asylum management authority, transferring it to a British organization. The Gossner Mission navigated conflicts for proselytization, confinement, and segregation, and MTL ultimately addressing them through mediation. The MTL's focused on Purulia Leper Asylum and plead for adaptation of colonial regulations allowed Gossner Mission to achieve their objectives while maintaining British government support.

Despite the asylum's proselytizing activities under a church with in asylum, the colonial government ignored them, referring to the institution as the 'Leper Asylum' instead of the missionary term 'Leper Village'. The Gazetteer acknowledged the asylum's church-centred settlement and growth into a small town.⁴⁸ The differing titles used by the colonial government and missionaries reflect their distinct perspectives on the working relationship between the Gossner Mission and the colonial government in leprosy care in the Chota Nagpur division.

Apart from these, the initiatives of Gossner Mission that the separate accommodation for children with definite leprous lesions of Leprosy-infected people or inmates under observation, and those who are free from all signs of the disease. The Purulia Asylums had a special feature for the healthy children of leprosy-infected people by establishing the girls' home which was attached to the nursing sister's quarters and the boys' home in the proximity of the superintendent's quarter. These healthy descendants of former inmates of the homes composed an independent village near the Asylum. 'This is a flourishing village, and the good health of the inhabitants and their freedom from leprosy is a standing evidence against the old heredity theory of leprosy'.⁴⁹This is the village which have named Uffmanpur,

after the name of Rev. Uffman, most of the residents were proselytised.

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Psycho-Social Dimensions of Rural Leadership (A Case Study of Tribal Leadership in West Champaran District of Bihar)

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Abstract

Leadership is not a static but an ever changing phenomenon according to man, milieu and the moment. Rural India is passing through a period of transition and be wilderment. The new Socio-economic forces generated by the large scale development plans have shaken up the social structure and are beginning to alter the old values and attitudes as well. The traditional leadership is also undergoing a change and new patterns of leadership are emerging on the scene. The introduction of community development projects, Land reforms decentralized local administration and adult franchise etc, which aim at the reconstruction of rural society, have brought forth the importance of leadership. "Leadership is an eternal and universal phenomenon. Being a socio-Psychological process, it is present to some degree where human beings get-together be it is primitive family of Cave-dwellers or the approaching twenty first century national community" "If the community is to be able to act as a unit, it must have leadership which is recognized and has community confidence. Community leaders are necessary to make decisions, to direct community activities, and to speak for the community both in relation to its internal organization and its outside relationship. If there is no Leader, no one can speak for the community and the effective community action is aborted." It shows the importance of leadership in influencing people and co-operating them towards a common goal and collective response.

Introduction

Rural Leadership is some thing different from national leadership or urban leadership. The setting of the rural and urban social life is responsible for the difference. For making distinction

between rural and urban societies, the criteria consist of social composition of population, the cultural heritage, the magnitude of material wealth, social satisfaction of the population, the degree of complexity of social structure and social life, the intensity and variety of social contact and others". This criterion has been adopted by many sociologists. It may be said, that rural community consisting of cultivators and agriculturists of plain living standard, is near to nature, small in size, less density populated, and homogeneous than an urban community. The above characteristics of the rural society determine the social and cultural values of the villagers. The leadership is a social phenomenon and so the pattern of rural leadership is essentially dependent upon and linked with the characteristics of small setting. "Leadership is a process by which the behaviour of one or more individuals is determined, directly or indirectly by another individuals or a group of individuals." Rural leadership depends on the process of interaction is rural social structure. There are many variables which are directly linked with the leadership but in this study only few are included which exist in rural setting. ⁽¹⁾

Leadership is defined in various ways by different social scientists. Some definition are as follows:- According to Duze (1965), the interest of contemporary social scientists today centers mainly round the functional aspects of leadership, and leadership is being considered as a function of the group (P.24). It can not be denied that to perform the function of leadership, an individual must exhibit, as a part of his personality and character some qualities which distinguish him from the other members of the group. But leadership is regarded as an activity of influencing to cooperate towards some goal which they come to find desirable. ⁽²⁾

According to Krech and Crutch Field (1948) the interpersonal relationships which a group are to a greater extent determined by the structure of the group rather than by the personality of the individual leadership emerges grows and is achieved within the group. ⁽³⁾

Studies focused on the problem of rural leadership have been published; books dealing with patterns of rural social structure and with agrarian problems published in last decades contain useful information on stratification status, group dynamics, Power relations

and decision making etc. There are many studies dealing with different aspects of leadership. ⁽⁴⁾

Dube (1960) classifies leaders as village leaders, professional leaders, sectional and functional leaders" (P.14).

Mathur (1960) states "the old hierarchy of Zamindars Mukhias and Lamberdars, through dying out is by no means dead. The Sarpanch, Pradhan and Panchs are considered as a new hierarchy, superimposed on the village tribe" (P.15)

Naryan (1963) is "Democratic Decentralization : The idea, the image and reality" describes that the new leadership is power motivated not development oriented; Sarpanch and Pradhan have become new monopolists of power and these are political consciousness without civic consciousness among leaders. ⁽⁵⁾

Setty (1981) in a study of Valaya communities found that leadership among Valaya is dispersed and shared, and does not involve any significant struggle. The majority of the leaders are in the group 30-50 years, the function in religious, magical, agricultural, ceremonial, political, civil and crucial matters. Leadership in those areas is shaved between individuals, based on their competence and is not concentrated in few hands. There is both ascribed and acquired leadership and there are leaders both from villager and non-Valaya communities. In general leadership among Valaya is self contained and there is no significant gulf between the Valaier leaders and his followers. ⁽⁶⁾

Gupta (1984) in his study found that the functioning of local bodies and local leadership have increased political consciousness, political participation, political involvement and sense of civic duty, which together have contributed a great deal to the political development of the village communities and lead to strengthening of the support structures of the ruling party in villages. Young political leadership is slowly gaining ground both in urban and rural areas, both in National or State level politics and in village politics. Dominance of upper middle classes and of higher castes is continuing. Harijan and members of weaker sections are fast emerging as important interest groups to shave power with higher castes and upper middle classes. Women are also fast emerging on the Indian political scene. Representation of masses is increasing by involving local bodies in the implementation of various developmental

programmes. Establishment of Panchatyati Raj and functioning of the community development programme have also greatly contributed in the political socialization of rural masses. ⁽⁷⁾

It can be said on the basis of studies mentioned above that leaders in Indian villages have higher caste status, higher level of living and greater political awareness of the national scene. In this connection, status and authority in Indian villages are still ascribed, and the fact is recognized and accepted by all. With changing times, the leaders have sought for other secular forms a power such as holding elective and normative offices, but the over all effect of their position is same as before. ⁽⁸⁾

In the present article, the term tribal is used for the member of any tribal group whether scheduled and non SC caste defined by sociologists and anthropologists, where as non tribal is a member of any group other than tribal group. However the present article was conducted upon Tharus tribal of west Champaran in State of Bihar. The tribal are divided in to five sub-castes: (i) Bhotia, (ii) Buksha (iii) Jannasari, (iv) Raji and (v) Tharu. Tharus are one of the most aboriginal tribal in India whose origin remains mystery. Scholars like Rahul Shankrityas opines that they migrated from 'Thar' deserts hence are called Tharu. According to some scholar, Tharus is the corrupt from the word Thakur, it is claimed that after the defeat of Maharana Pratap in the battle of Haldi Ghati, the wives of many Rajput warriors fled with their servant and come to life in Terai region, they did not return to their husband and later became the defacto wives of the servants. Lalit Bistar and Janak Katha relate Tharu with Gautam Budha. According to this perception the Tharu originated in Nepal and are the raiment of Shakya and Kohya.

The tribal's are socially, educationally, and economically backward and poor. They adhere to their traditional culture, virtue and value. They believe in their traditional way of living. The population of Tharu tribal community residing in west Champaran district is about 4 to 5 Lakhs. They are spread over in parts of Bagaha, Ramanagar, Sikarpur, Gaunaha and Manatars blocks of west Champaran districts. The Tharu dominated areas is known as 'Tharuhut' which is extended over 1490 Square Kilometers situated in between 26⁰-05' to 27⁰-04' N. Latitude and 83⁰-87' to 84⁰-06 Longitude of west Champaran in state of Bihar. The Tharu are

primarily agriculturists but they also hunt and catch fish from time to time. Their main crops are paddy, wheat, maize, gram, oil seeds. Their main diet consists of rice, fish and meat. A peculiar feature of the Tharus is that they do not drink milk. Through each family has 50 to 60 cows but they do not drink milk. Their children are fed on mother's milk till the age of two years old. From the age of six the Tharu begin to drink liquor which is their only weakness. Tharu have extraordinary big families. The Tharus believe in joint family system one family consist of 10 to 60 members, All of them work and handover their earnings to the head of the family who runs the house. There is no instance of separation of the son and his family from the main family during the life time of the parents.

In spite of the impact of modern age, the Tharus have still their traditional head of the village known as Gumasta. Gumasta is elected, but once elected the office becomes hereditary Gumasta can also be removed by the villagers. The Gumasta, with the help of the influential members of the village would settle the family disputes of the Tharus and impose fine upon the defaulting person. The fine realized is kept in custody and utilized for special purpose. In brief, the Tharus are also changing themselves according to the changing circumstances of their surrounding society. And they have been adapting the social, religious, culture and life style of the Hindus.

Objectives of the Study

In this study an effort has been made to examine the current trends of the emerging tribal (rural) leadership. Attempt is made to find out whether age, sex religious nature, Size of family, education, occupation, size of land holding, community participation, and political awareness have any role in determining the pattern of leadership in Indian village communities. After 62 years of independence, there are multi dimensional changes in the rural set up. Education, Land ceiling, occupational mobility and other measures which are responsible for betterment and upliftment of rural masses, have changed the rural social structure and leadership. The present study has tried to understand those changes.

Methodology

The universe of the study consisted of Tharus residing in the tarai region of west Champaran. Five villages of Bagaha Block of west Champaran were selected as the sample for the study. Data were collected through a semi-structured questionnaire. For the data collection, five major techniques have been used, which are (i) observation (ii) Individual Interview (iii) Group Interview (iv) case study method, (v) socio-metric and scaling technique. There were two types of interview schedule (a) for village and (b) for village leaders. Government documents were examined for few secondary statistics, required for the study.

Results

The data were analyzed and frequency and percentage were calculated. These are presented in Table. 1 to 8.

Age: - Leadership has been the monopoly of the aged person who in the past, dominated rural life in all its aspects. Oscar Lewis writes in his study of the village life in northern India: We see that in traditional pattern of leadership, the older man was both the ceremonial and Panchayat leaders." As the Table-1 suggests, the younger group is dominating the leadership among Tharus. 40.38 percent of total leaders were of 35-53 years age group. X^2 values calculated for the age and leadership were highly significant ($P < .01$). It suggests that distributions of leaders in different age group are not homogeneous.

Table-1 (N=104)

Age group (years)	Frequency	Percentage
20-35	36	34.60%
35-53	42	40.38%
53-65	11	9.60%
65 +	15	15.30%

$$X^2 = 18.70$$

$$P < 0.01$$

Sex:- Leadership has been the monopoly of the men in this society from the very beginning. After the independence and Introduction of Panchayati Raj system in the country, the situation has changed but changed is very slow.

Table- 2 (N=104)

Sex	Frequency	Percentage
Male	74	70%
Female	30	30%

Marital Status:- Marriage is considered as a symbol of being socially responsible person in our village society. Table 3 present that 5.77%, of the rural leaders are unmarried, while majority i.e. 94.23% is either married, widow or widowers. If any person has declared that he will not marry life long, then he is considered responsible in the village.

Table -3 (N=104)

M/S	Frequency	Percentage
Unmarried	6	5.7%
Married	80	76.92%
Widow	01	.95%
Widowers	17	16.36%

$$\chi^2 = 154.68$$

$$df = 3$$

$$Dd < .01$$

Education:- In the number of studies, education has been considered as an important index of modernization. Educational facilitates contacts with the agents of change like extension agencies and mass media exposure outside the village. In the modern age education is considered as necessary input for the development as well as for leading a happy and prosperous social life. Unlike older illiterate leaders, younger have passed school education and some of them have even higher education.

Table- 4

Educational Level	Frequency	Percentage
Illiterate	36	84.62%
Upto 8th std	40	38.46%
Matric	14	13.46%
Graduate	8	7.69%
P.G.	6	5.7%

Occupation: - Majority of the rural leaders is farmer. Farmers cover 71.15% only 9.62 % earn for their subsistence by caste occupation, 11.54 % rural leaders have dual type of occupation i.e. agriculture and form labours are engaged in non-agriculture activities i.e. in teaching.

Table-5

Occupation	Frequency	Percentage
Agriculture	74	71.15%
Teaching	8	7.69%
Agriculture and from labour	12	11.54%
Caste occupation and other	10	9.62%

$$\chi^2 = 118.46$$

$$p < 0.01$$

Size of Family: - Most of the tribal leaders come from the nuclear family, it covers 73.08%. The nuclear family includes surviving parents and unmarried brothers and sister also.

Table -6

Type of family	Frequency	Percentage
Joint family	28	26.92%
Nuclear family	76	73.08%

Table – 7

Size of family	Frequency	Percentage
1-5	4	3.85%
6-10	72	69.23%
11-15	18	17.31%
16-20	8	7.69%
21 ⁺	2	1.92%

Position of Leaders: - Position on which rural leaders is serving in quite significant for their performance.

Table- 8

Mukhia of village	Punch in Panchayat	Priest	Social workers	Tribal leaders	Dispute settler
10	40	6	30	04	8
9.62	38.46	5.77	28.84	3.85	7.69

Table-8 shows that majority of rural leaders 38.36% are punch in village Panchayat. Next to it 28.84% are general social worker, only 9.62% leaders covered under present study are the head of

village Panchayat. Only 5.77% are purohit (Priest). They are Brahmins. Tribal leaders are 3.85%. These leader lead their community in the matter related to caste, marriage etc. About 7.69% rural leaders are dispute settler in the locality. They are different caste but mainly from the dominate caste of villages.

Recommendations for Tribal Development

The constitution of India provides a number of facilities, protection and privilege to the scheduled tribal communities. Due to these facilities the scheduled tribes have been able to develop educationally, politically and economically. But their level of development is still much bellow than that of non-tribal communities and it is limited only to the creamy layers of those schedule caste and schedule tribes. Hassan (1988) observed that tribal welfare programmes must be structured keeping in view of tribal needs and modern aspirations. The result of the study can be utilized for this purpose. Since the idealistic approaches are not proving to be fruitful, the approaches should be redefined with taking cognition of ground realities and current trends of leadership in tribal communities.

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Women and Freedom Movement in Bihar : An Analysis

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Abstract

The women of Bihar played a chivalrous role in the Freedom Movement. During the Non-Co-operation Movement, they came out from the Purdah and engaged themselves in the movement. Women leaders of Bihar toured the province and arranged meetings to propagate the message of Non-Co-operation Movement. In Darbhanga sadar sub-division and in Bettiah Sub-division Shanti Devi advocated in favour of the movement.

Introduction

The constructive works attracted the women of Bihar. Smt. Sarla Devi visited several districts of the Chotanagpur Division and reached the cult of Khaddar and Charkha. Smt. Shavitri Devi addressed meetings at Patna and her speeches encouraged the people of the province to go ahead for achieving the goals set for the nation.⁽¹⁾

The sixteenth session of the Bihari Student's Conference was held at Hazaribagh on the 5th and the 6th October, 1921 under the presidentship of Smt. Sarla Devi. She made stirring appeal to the students for dedication to the service of the country and for throwing of the "Yoke of foreign domination over the soil".⁽²⁾

The Purnea District Congress Conference and Khilafat Conference were held on the 3rd and the 4th December, 1921 at Purnea. These conferences were attended by Smt. Krishna Kumari Devi of Chapra. Her speeches moved the audience to tears. She said that she was ready to sacrifice even her child and her husband for the attainment of the Swaraj. She asked those who were not willing to join the movement to give up their male dress and put on a female dress. Her speeches made a considerable impression on the mind of the audience. Impressed by her speeches, Muhammad Safi

remarked in his presidential address that he was glad to say that their Bihar had produced such a type of lady.

The 36th session of the Indian National Congress was held at Ahmadabad from the 27th to the 28th December, 1921. As many as 558 delegates from Bihar attended this session of which 22 were members of the Subject Committee which included Smt. Lila Singh also. It had its sittings on the 24th, 27th, and 28th December.

On the 15th January, 1922 a big women's meeting was held at Safee Manzil at Muzaffarpur under the presidentship of Smt. Lila Singh. She dwells upon the introduction and popularization of Khaddar and Charkha and appealed to the people for getting themselves enlisted as volunteers. She asked only those to come forward who could control their mind. ⁽³⁾

The sudden suspension of the movement cast a shadow of surprise and glooms throughout the country. Even some Congressmen challenged the wisdom of Gandhiji's step and expressed their dissatisfaction. Meanwhile, the 37th annual session of the All India Congress Committee was held at Gaya in December, 1922. The session was presided over by Deshbandhu Chitranjan Das. The main question in the Gaya Congress was that of "Council-netry. Deshbandhu Chittaranjan Das strongly advocated it. But the Gaya Congress decided against it. Amongst the women delegates who participated in this session were Shrimati Urmila Devi and Smt. Vindhya Vashini Devi.

In January, 1927 Mahatma Gandhi again visited Bihar. He addressed several meetings in the province. The women of Bihar also participated in his meetings and they made contributions often in the shape of ornaments. During these years of constructive programme, Mahatma Gandhi also supported the anti-purdah movement in Bihar. ⁽⁴⁾

In Bihar during the period 1927-28, a vigorous anti-purdah movement was organized. Rama Nand Mihsra who had started the anti-purdah movement in Darbhanga met Mahatma Gandhi at Sabarmati. To encourage this movement Mahatma Gandhi sent to Bihar Maganlal Gandhi, his daughter Radha Behn and Durgabai, daughter of Dalbahadur Giri. Braj Kishore Prasad and Rajendra Prasad were also very active in this movement.

In January 1929, the All India Women's Conference was held at Patna. A Bihar Women's Constituent Conference was also organized. At one of its sessions held on the 7th December, 1929 resolutions were passed in support of the Sarda Act and against purdah and dowry system. It was also decided to concentrate the attention towards the cause of female education in the state.

The Congress Working Committee which met at Sabarmati from the 14th to the 16th February, 1930 authorised Mahatma Gandhi to start Civil Disobedience Movement. Now, Mahatma Gandhi decided to start the movement by manufacturing salt at Dandi. In Sitamarhi Mrs. Ramadayalu Singh delivered several speeches. Shrimati Chandrawati Devi and Smt. Kamleshari devi encouraged the salt manufacture at Muzaffarpur.

On the 4th May, 1930 Mahatma Gandhi was arrested. The arrest of Mahatma Gandhi aroused spontaneous protest throughout the country. Consequently haratals were observed. The Bihari women also participated in it.

On the 9th May, 1930 Rajendra Prasad, the then President of the Bihar Provincial Congress Committee, issued a circular directing all subordinate committees to start picketing cloth and liquor shops from the 16th May. In pursuance of this direction the women of Bihar started picketing. In Kesaria P.S. (Motihari), the women toured the villages with some pairs of the Churees (bracelets) and exhorted the male members to get themselves enrolled as Volunteers and carry out the propaganda work or to wear the Churees and live in purdah.

Thus, there was considerable progress in boycott propaganda work throughout the province of Bihar. Ladies, who had never come out of purdah, were then "tanking part at many places in picketing". Shrimati Chandrawati Devi, wife of Jagdish Narain Verma of Muzaffarpur, visited Purnea district in June. The District magistrate of Purnea reported on the 9th June, 1930 (Letter No. 3781C) to the Commission of Bhagalpur Division that "the recent visit of Chandrawati Devi with her husband who was touring in this district and delivering speeches might give an impetus to the movement".⁽⁵⁾

Thus, women created a new history. They participated in every activity. They made and sold salt to all sections of the people. They emboldened the work and the hesitant. They composed and sang songs, took out Prabhat Pheries, held banners, unfurled flags and

raised slogans. They also organized classes to train women for the national cause. They defied section 144, held meetings interrupted; they faced the police and their weapons and courted arrest and filled jails. ⁽⁶⁾

Therefore, the Working Committee of the Congress resolved on 27th June, 1930 at Allahabad that:

"The Committee notes with great appreciation that the women of India are containing to take an increasing part in the national movement and bravely suffering assaults, till-treatments and imprisonment".

To suppress the Satyagraha the Government started the arrest of leaders. Two ladies were also arrested for the first time during the week ending on the 27th June, 1930 in Bihar. They were Shrimati Saraswati Devi and Shrimati Sadhna Devi.

To prevent the women from participating in the Civil Disobedience Movement, the Government officials misbehaved with the women volunteers. But the women of Bihar boldly faced the ill treatments and the excesses resorted to by the Government.

The Working Committee of the Indian National Congress met at Bombay from the 30th July to the 1st August, 1930 and passed a resolution placing "on record its grateful tribute to the women of India for the noble part they are progressively playing in the present struggle for national freedom and the readiness they have increasingly shown to brave assaults, abuses, lathi charges and imprisonment while carrying on the Congress work. In particular, the committee congratulates Deshbandhvi Subbama, Mrs. Perin Captain, Mrs. Lilavati Munshi, Mrs. Lukmani, Mrs. Hassan Imam and others on their contribution to the national movement and on their conviction for the country's cause." The women of the province also helped the movement by using charkha etc. ⁽⁷⁾

Mahatma Gandhi reached Patna on the 11th March. He left for Motihari on the 14th March. On the 16th he reached Muzaffarpur. He visited collapsed houses; some ladies of the town interviewed him. He also addressed a meeting which was attended by about 5000 persons consisting of males and females. On the 30th March, 1934 he addressed a huge meeting at Mangale's Tank, Patna City. According to a Government report, about 5000 ladies were present in the meeting. After moving from place to place in the affected areas and

comforting the distressed persons, Mahatma Gandhi, accompanied by Miss Loster, Mira Behn, Miss Agatha Horrison, Prabhavati Devi, Bhagwati Devi, Kusum Devi and several others, addressed a meeting at Chapra in which more than 30,000 people were present. On the 2nd April, 1934 Mahatma Gandhi, along with, Miss Patel, Prabhawati Devi and some other ladies, went to Bhagalpur and addressed a meeting there. It is evident from the report dated the 26th April, 1934 of C.E. Walze, S.D.O., Deoghar, that Mahatma Gandhi addressed a ladies meeting held in the enclosed compound of the house of Dhundhanian in old Mina Bazar. It was exclusively a ladies meeting. According to the report of C.L. Gulathi, Reporter Inspector, C.I.D. dated 26th April, 1934, Mahatma Gandhi got collection in kind and cash from the ladies.

Mahatma Gandhi visited Gaya and Hazaribagh also during this time. The Deputy Commissioner, Hazaribagh reported on the 30th April, 1934 that Mahatma Gandhi held a women's meeting at Chatra which was attended by 150 to 200 women. On the 26th January, 1936 the 'Independence Day' was successfully observed in the province. No untoward incident occurred on that day. Though actual elections were to take place in 1937 preparations for the same had started one year earlier. The latter half of 1936 was spent in brisk canvassing by the different political parties for their candidates.

The election to the Legislative Assembly in Bihar was held from the 22nd to the 27th January. The women also participated in it. Shrimati Kamkhya Devi, Lady Anise Imam, Shrimati Sharda Kumari Devi and Shrimati Saraswati Devi were elected to the Bihar Legislative Assembly.

Thus, the women of Bihar contributed so much to the freedom of the country.

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Impact of Rural Infrastructure on Agricultural Production in Jharkhand

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Abstract

Agricultural development is essential for economic growth, rural development, and poverty alleviation in low-income developing countries like India. Increase in agricultural productivity is an effective driver of economic growth and poverty reduction. The importance of good infrastructure for increase in agricultural productivity is widely recognized.

Introduction

Agricultural production is highly dependent on rural infrastructure because it not only provides essential agricultural production conditions such as roads, telecommunication, power and irrigation system but also education and medical facilities which enhance the efficiency of rural labour.

Food and Agricultural Organisation (FAO) reported that roads, electricity supplies, telecommunications, and other infrastructure services are limited in all rural areas, although they are of key importance to stimulate agricultural investment and growth.

Investment in infrastructure is essential to increase farmers' access to input and output markets, to stimulate the rural non-farm economy and vitalize rural towns, to increase consumer demand in rural areas, and to facilitate the integration of less-favored rural areas into national and international economies.

Having realized the importance of infrastructure to achieve faster rate of economic growth, the government of India as well as the state government have ventured into making heavy investment in agricultural infrastructure especially from the First Five Year Plan. The major focus for infrastructural investment has been on irrigation, transportation, electric power agricultural markets.

The infrastructure in the agricultural sector enhances the comparative advantages of the area in which the infrastructural investment is made. That area gains comparative advantage in the agricultural activities such as the production and productivity of various agricultural goods.

Infrastructure, such as irrigation, watershed development, rural electrification, roads, institutional infrastructure, such as credit institutions, agricultural research determines the nature and the magnitude of agricultural output in India. Adequate infrastructure raises farm productivity and lowers farming costs and its fast expansion accelerates agricultural as well as economic growth rate. It is acknowledged that infrastructure plays a strategic role in producing larger multiplier effects in the economy with agricultural growth. It is estimated that a 1% increase in the stock of infrastructure is associated with a 1% increase in GDP across all countries. The level of both physical and institutional infrastructure significantly influences the spread of proven and demonstrated yield enhancing agricultural technology

Review of Literature

The studies unanimously confirm that rural infrastructure is a sine qua non for significantly accelerating the process of agricultural development.

Several econometrics studies have estimated the effects of infrastructure investment on agricultural output and productivity. Most of these studies find a positive and significant effect (Antle 1984; Binswanger et al., 1993; Mundlak, Larson, and Butzer 2002; and Fan and Zhang 2004).

The supply response by small farmers is also seriously affected by the state of infrastructure and market. Chhibber, (1988) found that a one percent increase in output prices would result in a supply response of 0.3-0.5 percent in areas with poor infrastructure and 0.7-0.9 in areas with good infrastructure. The farmers' willingness to adopt productivity-enhancing technology depends very significantly on the infrastructure and market situation with which they are faced.

Siddiqi et al (2004) reported that flow of credit to farmers has increased the demand for agricultural inputs to increase the crop production. Nasir (2007) credit has more favourable impact on

agricultural production. World Bank (2003) said that the presence of financial services helps to rural economy to grow and reduce rural poverty. Access to working capital can substantially accelerate the adoption of modern agricultural technology and production and thereby improve the ability of the rural sector to meet the subsistence need of the poor.

Analysis of data

Multiple regressions have been used to test the hypothesis. The equation is as follows:

$$Y = a + b_1X_1 + b_2X_2 + b_3X_3 + b_4X_4 \quad \text{Where}$$

Y = agricultural production

a = constant and $b_1, b_2, \dots, b_4$ are the value of coefficient of regression of the items of infrastructure and

$X_1, X_2, \dots, X_4$ are the scores of the independent variables

Adjusted R^2 has also been used.

Discussion and Results

The following table shows the coefficient of Determination (R^2) of paddy, wheat, Ragi and potato.

Table No. 1

R^2 of different crops in Jharkhand

Crop	R^2
Paddy	0.601
Wheat	0.500
Ragi	0.793
Potato	0.718

Source: Primary data

From the above table it is clear that 60 percent variation in the production of paddy is explained by explanatory variable, while 50 percent variation in the production of wheat is explained by explanatory variables and 79 percent and 72 percent variation in the production of Ragi and Potato is explained by explanatory variables respectively.

The following table shows the F-cal. value of paddy, wheat, ragi and potato.

Table No. 2**F value of different crops in Jharkhand**

Crop	F-cal	Significant
Paddy	1.884	Not significant
Wheat	1.248	Not significant
Ragi	4.779	Not significant
Potato	3.184	Not significant

Source: Primary data

The above table shows that the null hypothesis is accepted and alternative hypothesis is rejected. It means that rural infrastructure does not play an important role in the production of the crops selected for the study in Jharkhand state.

Conclusion

Rural infrastructure has an important bearing on the agricultural production in Jharkhand state. Therefore it may be suggested that more rural infrastructure facilities should be developed in order to increase the agricultural production which will require more investment in these infrastructures.

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Trend and Variability of Agricultural Production: A Study of Mayurbhanj District in Odisha

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Abstract

The study attempts to examine the variability of agricultural production such as rice, wheat, pulses, oilseeds, cereals, foodgrains, spices and vegetables in the study area by considering secondary data. Agricultural sector is one of the main sectors of Odisha economy and its contribution to State GDP is comparatively very high in comparison to other state of India. The overall purpose of the study was to examine the trend pattern of agricultural production and to know the variability in the agricultural production in the study area. The findings indicate that there is high degree of variability in certain type of agricultural production. The study also reveals there is need of the government towards the implementation of the government policy to eliminate the degree of variability in agricultural sector

Keywords: *Agriculture, Foodgrains, Trend, Variability.*

Introduction

The word "Agriculture" comes from Latin words 'Ager' meaning field and 'cultura' meaning to cultivate (Odisha Agriculture Statistics)¹. So, it refers to the art of raising plant from the soil. Agriculture, the world's oldest profession is the main source of life sustenance for human population. However, though there has been substantial growth in other sectors, the Agriculture Sector still continues to be the mainstay of livelihood for human civilization. Growth of the agricultural sector is important not only for ensuing food security and reduction of poverty in rural areas, but also sustaining growth of rest of the economy. More so, growth of two

¹ Odisha Agriculture Statistics (2007-08), Directorate of Agriculture and food Production Govt. of Odisha Bhubaneswar.

non-farm sectors viz. Secondary & Tertiary sectors can be sustained only when the agricultural sector continues to grow and provide adequate demand for goods & services along with market for their products.

Agriculture plays an essential role in the process of economic development of less developed countries like India. Besides providing food to nation, agriculture releases labour, provides saving, contributes to market of industrial goods and earns foreign exchange. Agricultural development is an integral part of our overall economic development. In India, agriculture was the main source of national income and occupation at the time of Independence. Agriculture and allied activities contributed nearly 50 percent to India's national income. Around 72 percent of total working population was engaged in agriculture. These confirm that Indian economy was a backward and agricultural based economy at the time of Independence. After 61 year of Independence, the share of agriculture in total national income declined from 50 percent in 1950 to 18 percent in 2007- 08. But even today more than 60 percent of workforce is engaged in agriculture. In spite of this, it is also an important feature of agriculture that is to be noted that growth of other sectors and overall economy depends on the performance of agriculture to a considerable extent. Because of these reasons agriculture continues to be the dominant sector in Indian Economy.

1.2: Statement of the problem

Agriculture sector is the mainstay of our economy, contributing about 15 percent of National Gross Domestic product (GDP) and more importantly, about half of India's population is wholly or significantly dependent on agriculture and allied activities for their livelihood (Government of India, 2011 a)². The introduction of high yielding varieties (HYV) technology (commonly known as Green Revolution) in mid-1960s Yielded spectacular results and the production of food grains increased from about 83.4 million tonnes in

² Government of India (2011a), Faster, Sustainable and More Inclusive Growth: An Approach to the 12th Five Year Plan (Draft), Planning Commission, New Delhi.

1964-65 to 104.4 million tonnes in 1971-72 (GOI, 2012)³. Subsequently, the country, which was threatened by hunger and high dependence on imports as late as in mid- 1960s, became one of the largest producers of many agricultural commodities such as Rice, Wheat, Pulses, Fruits and Vegetables, etc., thus being self sufficient in staple foods.

So it was realized that Indian agriculture had witnessed tremendous changes during the last 4 decades following the adoption of green revolution technology during late 1960's. The Green revolution technology was initially adopted on a large scale in the regions well endowed with irrigation. As this technology possessed vast potential for increase in productivity, it led to impressive growth in agricultural output in the regions where it was adopted. Because the spread of green revolution technology was highly skewed in favour of certain states and regions, this led to a high growth in agricultural output in selected regions while the other regions suffered from stagnancy or poor growth in agricultural output. As a result of which still today large scale variations in agricultural production has remained a deep subject concern in the area of agricultural economics both for policy makers and researchers.

Agriculture is a vital sector of the economy of Odisha and a good deal has been achieved in this sector during the plan period. Farm production has increased manifold and Yields of major crops such as paddy, pulses, oilseeds and vegetables have more than trebled in the last four and half decades. The impressive long term growth in agriculture has helped in taking the state out of famines and serious food shortages into one of the food surplus states in the country and ensuring food, nutrition and livelihood security. But although the need of making available an adequate food supply of reasonable quality for the population has been accomplished, the corresponding need of sustainable and equitable agricultural growth still remains a problem in the state. In fact, agriculture in Odisha is characterized by wide diversity and considerable spatio-temporal variations in growth and productivity. Therefore, there is a need to

³ Government of India (2012). Second Advanced Estimates of Production of Foodgrains for 2011-12, Agricultural Statistics Division, Directorate of Economics & Statistics, Department of Agriculture & Cooperation, Ministry of Agriculture, Govt. of India, New Delhi, February 2012.

examine the role of these factors in explaining the divergent agricultural performance among the states/regions of the country. Keeping in view all these things in the present study it is found that there is high degree of variation both in Area, Yield and Production of both Food and non-Food grains in Mayurbhanj districts of Odisha. Different inputs are having different effects on output, like some are having negative impact on total output while others are having positive impact on output.

Result and Discussion

Trends in production of major Food and Non-Foodgrains in Mayurbhanj district

In order to know the trend in production of major crops such as Rice, Paddy, Wheat, total Cereals, total Pulses, total Food Grains, total Oilseeds, total Vegetables, total Spices and Sugarcane trend linear regression model is estimated for Mayurbhanj districts. In this model Rice, Paddy, Wheat, total Cereals, total Pulses, total Food Grains, total Oilseeds, total Vegetables, total Spices and Sugarcane are taken as dependent variable and time is taken as independent variable i.e. time variable. There are ten trend linear regression model have been taken into consideration.

$$Y_t = \beta_1 + \beta_2 t + u_t \dots \dots \dots (i)$$

β_1 = Constant

$\beta_2 t$ = Rice, Paddy, Wheat, total Cereals, total Pulses, total Food Grains, total Oilseeds, total Vegetables, total Spices and Sugarcane

u_t = error term

$$Y_t = 1580.036 + 9.463636 (\text{time}) \dots \dots \dots \text{eq i.i (Rice)}$$

$$Y_t = 2275.273 + 25.31818 (\text{time}) \dots \dots \dots \text{eq i.ii (Paddy)}$$

$$Y_t = 917.6182 + 52.79091 (\text{time}) \dots \dots \dots \text{eq i.iii (Wheat)}$$

$$Y_t = 1619.691 + 4.955455 (\text{time}) \dots \dots \dots \text{eq i.iv (T. Cereals)}$$

$$Y_t = 404.0909 + 8.090909 (\text{time}) \dots \dots \dots \text{eq i.v (T. Pulses)}$$

$$Y_t = 1517.764 + 5.872727 (\text{time}) \dots \dots \dots \text{eq i.vi (T.F. grains)}$$

$$Y_t = 1015.527 + 30.33636 (\text{time}) \dots \dots \dots \text{eq i.vii (T. O. seeds)}$$

$$Y_t = 8596.618 + 369.6091 (\text{time}) \dots \dots \dots \text{eq i.viii (T. Vegetables)}$$

$$Y_t = 1040.491 + 69.50909 (\text{time}) \dots \dots \dots \text{eq i.ix (T. Spices)}$$

$$Y_t = 60628.80 + 217.6091 (\text{time}) \dots \dots \dots \text{eq i.x (Sugarcane)}$$

It is interesting to know that from equation no (i.i) that the beta co-efficient for time variable is 9.46 which is positive and it indicates that there is an upward trend in Rice production which means over the period 2004 to 2014, on average Rice production increased at the absolute rate of about 10 thousand metric tons per year. The equation no (i.ii) indicates that the beta coefficient for time variable is 25.32 which is positive and it indicates that there is an upward trend in Paddy production. It means over the period 2004 to 2014, on average Paddy production increased at the absolute rate of about 26 thousand metric tons per year. The equation no (i.iii) indicates that the beta coefficient for the time variable is 52.80 which is positive and it indicates that there is an upward trend in total Wheat production. In other words over the period 2004 to 2014 on average the total Wheat production increased at the absolute rate of 53 thousand metric tons per year. The equation no (i.iv) indicates that the beta coefficient for time variable is 4.96 which is positive and it indicates that there is an upward trend in total Cereals production which means over the period 2004 to 2014, on average total Cereals production increased at the absolute rate of 5 thousand metric tons per year. The equation no (i.v) indicates that the beta coefficient for time variable is 8.09 which is positive and it indicates that there is an upward trend in Pulses production which means over the period 2004 to 2014, on average Pulses production increased at the absolute rate of about 9 thousand metric tons per year. The equation no (i.vi) indicates that the beta coefficient for time variable is 5.88, which is positive and it indicates that there is an upward trend in Foodgrain production. It indicates that over the period of 2004 to 2014, on average Food grain production increased at the absolute rate of about 6 thousand metric tons per year in Mayurbhanj district. The equation no (i.vii) indicates that the beta coefficient for time variable is 30.34 which is positive and it indicates that there is an upward trend in Oil seeds production. In other words, over the period of 2004-2014, on average oil seeds production increased at the absolute rate of about 31 thousand metric tons per year. The equation no (i.viii) indicates that the beta co efficient for the time variable is 369.61 which is positive and it indicates that there is an upward trend in total Vegetables production. In other words over the period 2004 to 2014 , on average total Vegetables production increased at

the absolute rate of 370 thousand metric tons per year. The equation no (i.ix) indicates that the beta coefficient for time variable is 69.51 which is positive and it indicates that there is an upward trend in Spices production which means over the period 2004 to 2014, on average Spices production increased at the absolute rate of 70 thousand metric tons per year. The equation no (i.x) indicates that the beta coefficient for time variables is 217.61 which is positive and it indicates that there is an upward trend in Sugarcane production which means over the period 2004 to 2014, on average Sugarcane production increased at the absolute rate of 218 thousand metric tons per year.

Instability in Agricultural performance in Mayurbhanj District

Instability is one of the important decision parameters in development dynamics and more so in the context of agricultural production. Issues relating to fluctuations in agricultural production are important are several reasons. Wide fluctuations in agricultural production affect prices and bring about sharp fluctuations in prices. An analysis of fluctuations in crop output, apart from growth, is of importance for understanding the nature of food security and income stability. Wide fluctuations in crop output not only affect prices and bring about sharp fluctuation in them but also results in wide variations in disposable income of the farmers. The magnitude of fluctuations depends on the nature of crop production technology, its sensitivity to weather, economic environment, availability of material inputs and many other factors. High growth in production accompanied by low level of instability for any crop is desired for sustainable development of agriculture.

Table No. 3: Instability in Area, Production and Yield of major Food and Non-Foodgrains in Mayurbhanj district (2003-04 to 2013-14).

	Mayurbhanj district		
Crops	Area	Production	Yield
Rice	5.12 %	14.69 %	14.79 %
Paddy	5.12 %	13.74 %	15.16 %
Wheat	30.08 %	30.32 %	26. 11 %
Total Cereals	5.09 %	36.89 %	36.77 %
Pulses	11.11 %	19.27 %	12.71 %

Total Food grains	4.91 %	14.47 %	213.56 %
Oil seeds	27.39 %	39.88 %	16.97 %
Vegetables	5.83 %	10.29 %	13.63 %
Spices	5.09 %	13.47 %	17.44 %
Sugarcane	34.81 %	32.14 %	12.86 %

(Note –Instability of Area, Production and Yield is calculated from secondary data)

This table shows that during the years 2003-04 to 2013-14, the cultivated Area for Rice in Mayurbhanj district (5.12%) fluctuated. Likewise the Production (14.69%) and Yield (14.79%) of Rice in Mayurbhanj has indicated a greater degree of instability. It indicates that there is high fluctuation in Area, Production and Yield of Rice in Mayurbhanj district. In case of Paddy the Area (5.12%), Production (13.74%) and Yield (15.16%) in Mayurbhanj district the degree of instability is more during the mention year.

But in case of Wheat in Mayurbhanj the instability in Area (30.08 %) and Production for wheat is (30.32 %). In case of total Cereals the Area in Mayurbhanj (5.09%) showed greater instability. But the Production (36.89%) and Yield (36.77%) of total Cereals in Mayurbhanj district showed greater degree of instability. In case of Food grains the in Mayurbhanj district Area (4.91%), Production (14.47 %) and Yield (213.56 %) showed more instability. So the rate of fluctuation with regard to total Oilseeds is also high in Mayurbhanj district.

Conclusion

Regarding instability it is seen that the Area, Production and Yield of Rice and Paddy has shown greater degree of instability, Likewise the Area, Production and Yield of total Cereals, Vegetables and Sugarcane has indicated greater degree of in stability. Moreover the study reveals that there is upward trend in the production of rice, wheat, pulses, oilseeds, cereals and vegetables which is good for the economy. There are various factors which are responsible for instability in agricultural production like irrigation, rainfall and variation in land productivity. Another interesting feature of land productivity is that it very closely follows variation in per hectare fertilizer-use. Cropping intensity which is an important factor to measure agricultural performance is associated with increase in

production and area under different food and non-food grain items. The information on cropping intensity matters for productivity but itself is affected by rainfall and irrigation. Diversifications towards high- value crops have also been observed to have a significant effect on variations in productivity in agriculture. Increase in instability in area and production of rice is mainly due to erratic, irregular and insufficient power supply for irrigation purpose and highly erratic rainfall distribution during a harvesting period.

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Development, Displacement, Deprivation and Disadvantage: 4 D in development scenario

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Abstract

With the liberalisation of Indian economy in the early 1990s the mineral rich States of Jharkhand, Chhattisgarh and Orissa are alluring corporate giants for aggressive investment. The Centre as well as the State governments has become conduit to the sinister designs of the corporate sector. Consequently, in a span of less than a decade the government of Orissa has signed 100 memorandums of understanding (MoUs), Jharkhand 105 and Chhattisgarh 58. Notable among them are international and Indian corporate giants namely POSCO (South Korea), Vedant Aluminum (UK), Rio Tinto (UK), BHP Billition (UK-Australia), Alcan (Canada), Hindalco, Jindal, Birla, ESSAR, Tata and Sterlite.

Background

In Orissa, mining projects worth 3,000 billion rupees have already been launched and projects worth a further of Rs. 11,000 billion are in the pipeline. Similarly, in Jharkhand one million crore rupees and in Chhattisgarh 48 thousand crore rupees worth of projects are being considered favourably by the respective state governments.

Adani Group has signed an MoU with the Jharkhand government for a total investment of Rs 50,000 crore. Of the Rs 50,000 crore, an investment of Rs 15,000 crore has been proposed in setting up two thermal power plants. The rest would be invested to set up a unit that would produce coal-based methane fertiliser. Further, the Vedanta group would invest Rs 2,000 crore in setting up a steel plant. The Jharkhand industry department has also received 11 letters of intent from various companies, committing an investment of Rs 10,000 crore in setting up units in the chemical, IT, textile and construction sectors.¹ These MoUs were exchanged in the

presence of Jharkhand Chief Minister Raghubar Das at a Make in India Week function in Mumbai organized in 16 feb. 2016. The state government also released a new industrial and investment promotion policy to ensure ease of doing business.

The state has deposits of energy, ferrous, non-ferrous, fertilizer, industrial, refractory, atomic, strategic, precious and semi-precious groups of minerals. The Coal, Iron ore, Copper, Bauxite, Dolomite and Pyroxenite deposits are available in plenty. China clay, Fireclay, Magnetite, Graphite, Kyanite, Quartzite, Quartz, Feldspar, Mica & Decorative stones are present in sufficient quantity. The reserve of Andalusite, Manganese, Chromite, Beryl, Talc, Gold, Bentonite are available in small quantity. In the Jharkhand State presently about 150 million tone of different minerals are mined out annually which have value of about 15 thousand cores. There is vast scope to increase the production of minerals in the State. The efforts of State will be to increase the mineral production from 150 million tone to 200 million tone in coming XII five year plan period.

This huge investment has an alarming dimension. If even 50 per cent of the projects were implemented, what would happen to state's environment, and huge displacement of the poor and marginalised people as a consequence of land acquisition?

Post-Independence Growth in Jharkhand

Very few regions of the country are developing as fast as Jharkhand. The rich flora and fauna, which was at the epicentre of Jharkhand culture and often found a place in the folklore of the region, soon receded to the background with the onslaught of modern development. The modern-educated development-loving man cast his eyes upon the rich mines and minerals of the region and could not see beyond this.

Industrialisation began with the establishment of the first coal mining industry in Raniganj in the year 1775. In the year 1843, the first joint stock Company Mr/s Bengal Coal Company was formed. Chains of collieries were soon to follow, which were established on the left bank of the Damodar River. The famous Jharia Coalfield in Dhanbad district is the richest treasure house of India's metallurgical coal. The working of Jharia, Bokaro and Karnpura Coalfield started in 1846. The opening of coal mining in Dhanbad area during the second

half of the 19th century and the establishment of the Tata Iron and Steel Company in Jamshedpur in Singhbhum district marked the beginning of the large scale exploitation of mineral and other resources in Jharkhand.

The old pre-Cambrian rocks of Singhbhum-Orissa boarder known as Iron Ore series and Kolhan series constitute the chief iron belt of India. It is one of the richest iron belts in the world. The Department of Geology has reassessed the reserve iron ore in this part, as of the order of 3,758 million tonnes with 60 per cent ferrous content. Gua, Jamuda, Noamundi, Kiriburu, Chiria are chief mines of the region, supplying iron ore to steel plants at Jamshedpur, Bokaro, Rourkela and Durgapur steel plants.²

Copper is another very important mineral, which occurs in a 129 km long belt from Duarpuram to Bahragora through Kharsewa, Saraikela and Dalbhum. Total reserves of this area are about 153 million tonnes with 2.5 per cent copper content. Mosabani, Dhobani, Badia, Rakha, Chofir, Duarpuram are the mining centres.

Mica is another important mineral in which Jharkhand is rich. The mica belt covering about 3,800 sq km lies in the heart of this region. The belt supplies over 71 per cent of world's high quality sheet mica. Limestone is the chief material for cement. It is quarried mainly in Singhbhum, Hazaribag and Ranchi districts. Kyanite is an important mineral used in the iron and steel industry. The world's largest deposits of high-grade kyanite occur at Lapsa Buru in Singhbhum. Besides the above, china clay mining is developing in the Hat Gahmaria area of Singhbhum and also in Palamu, Ranchi and Santhal Parganas. Bauxite is growing in importance as the raw material of aluminium industry. In Jharkhand, bauxite quarries are located in and around the Pat region in north-west Ranchi district within a radius of 9-30 kms from Lohardaga. Fire clay mining and its associated industries have developed in the Damodar basin in Jharia and Raniganj coalfields.

Mining of manganese, apatite, chromite, quartz and silica, steatite and asbestos have developed on a large scale in various parts of Singhbhum district. Dolomite is mined at Palamu and Singhbhum. The Uranium Corporation of India Ltd, a public sector undertaking, has established an atomic plant at Jadugora in Singhbhum and has started mining of uranium at Banduhurang,

Chrewadungri, Kewa, Mahuldih, Bhatin, Narwapahar, Turamdih, Bagjanta, and other villages in Singbhum.

Industrial Concerns and Displacement

Large-scale availability of minerals, cheap labour, road and railway facility in Jharkhand has lured several industries to set up their shops here. Apart from Tata Steel, Bokaro Steel, Heavy Engineering Corporation (HEC) at Hatia, Sindri Fertiliser Corporation, Copper Smelter at Ghatshila, Uranium Corporation India Ltd (UCIL), Hindustan Malleable and Forging, Usha Martin which are major industrial set ups of the State, there have come up innumerable industries in Jharkhand. No proper data on the recently arrived industries is available with any organisation. Proper data on number of displaced families by these industries; and compensation extended also is not available. There are as many as 201 industries in the State, of which 11 are very big size industries. Four of the 11 industries have been set up in Singbhum district, thereby making the district industry intensive.³

Industrial concerns have brought about massive displacement in Jharkhand. The pioneering industrial concern of the region, Tata Iron and Steel Company established in 1907, initially acquired 3564 acres of land comprising the villages of Sakchi, Nutandi, Suhndih and the northern part of Jugalai.⁴

The Heavy Engineering Corporation (HEC) established at Hatia, Ranchi in 1958 acquired 9200 acres of land. This land was acquired from 25 villages, of which 12 were acquired full and the rest were acquired partly. As a result, 2,198 families or 12,290 people were displaced. Only some of these displaced families were rehabilitated.⁵

Bokaro Steel Ltd is the largest steel plant in India. Its construction in 1967, 46 villages were acquired. Total land taken in terms of acres was 30,984.22 displacing as many as 12,487 families.⁶

Mining: the main cause of displacement in Jharkhand **Coal Mines in Jharkhand:**

Coal mining is the major mining activity here. The State has more than one-third of coal deposit of the country and is the only region where coking coal is mined. Prior to 1970-71, coal was mined in haphazard way by private companies, owned by individuals. After

the nationalisation of coking and non-coking coal in 1973, the entire coal sector was entrusted to Coal India Ltd. (CIL), a public sector undertaking. Three of the eight subsidiaries of CIL namely Bharat Coking Coal Ltd (BCCL), Eastern Coalfield Ltd (ECL) and Central Coalfield Limited (CCL) actively engaged themselves in coal mining of the region. After nationalisation, coal mining grew at a much higher rate. Several open-cast mining centres were also undertaken. As open-cast mining occupies more lands than underground, the volume of displacement went up. Environmental hazard also grew on equal rate, thereby affecting directly upon people.

According to a survey conducted in 1992, there were 1274 coal mines in the entire country. Of which 193 belonged to Jharkhand in 1996.⁷ Important among them were situated in Bokaro, Deoghar, Dhanbad, Giridih, Godda, Hazaribag, Palamu, Ranchi, Sahebganj and Dumka. Jharkhand is rich in almost all kind of minerals. Consequence, public and private corporate houses have made massive presence in the State, thereby displacing large number of families.

Hydro-power, Thermal Power projects and Dams

The State needed power to run the big industries that have been set up. Hydro-power projects, therefore, were constructed in several of the rivers and even Thermal power stations were set up to generate power that could supply energy to these industrial set ups. As coal is available a plenty in the State, the Thermal power stations were fed by the coal mines. While the river projects supplied power during rainy season, the thermal power stations were there to bail out power crunch during summer.

The following river projects have been constructed in Jharkhand:

S.	Name of the Project	District	River	Power (Million Unit)
1.	Tileiya Dam	Hazaribag	on Damodar River	7.857
2.	Maithan Dam	Dhanbad	on Damodar River	147.61
3.	Panchet Dam	Bokaro	on Damodar River	115.86
4.	Konar Project		Damodar	
5.	Subarnarekh	West Singhbhum		
6.	Mayurakhi Project	Dumka		
7.	Kutku Dam	Palamu		

Source: Ekka, Alex: Jharkhand: Rehabilitation and Displacement, ISI, New Delhi, 2004, pg 24-25

S. No.	Thermal Power Stations	District	Unit
1.	Chnadrapra	Bokaro	2137.06
2.	Bokaro Thermal	Bokaro	262.310
3.	Tenughat	Bokaro	2033.32
4.	Patratu Thermal	Hazaribagh	

Source: Ekka, Alex: Jharkhand: Rehabilitation and Displacement, ISI, New Delhi, 2004, pg 24-25

As far as land acquisition and displacement is concerned, a total of 5,07,952 acres of land has gone into building hydropower projects in the State. It has displaced as many as 2,32,968 persons uptill mid 1990s. An additional 6026.87 acres of land has gone against setting up of thermal power stations.⁸

Military Cantonments and Stations

Military stations have come up in various districts of Jharkhand. Some of these stations existed even before the Independence of the country, while others were established later. Military establishments could be spotted in places like Meru and Ramgarh of Hazaribag district, Namkom and Deepatoli of Ranchi district.

Military firing practice by military personnel are being held in Netarhat hill region of Latehar district for the last 30-40 year. One can imagine the extent of torture that the people of a residential area would face if the military drops in their place to hold its regular firing practice one fine morning. This is what has happened to the people of Netarhat for the last 30-40 years. They have been subjected to utter physical, psychological, economic and social tension every time the military reached there to hold its practice. The people are simply asked to leave their houses and go away, so that the military could practice. Old people, women especially the pregnant ones not mentioning the children, suffer the ugliest. There have been instances where pregnant women have delivered their babies not in their houses but under trees just like animals. What more inhuman treatment could be given to a woman than this?⁹

The Government pays the people for leaving their houses during the firing practices. As per rules, one male adult is paid one rupee and 50 paise as compensation while an adult woman is paid Re 1.¹⁰ Anil Manohar, a leader of the Netrahat Kendriya Jan Sangharsh Samiti says: "As per a survey conducted by us, so far there have been 38 rapes and 63 attempted rape cases by soldiers. When we approach the local police to register FIR against the military personnel, they refused. They too started oppressing us."

The Kendriya Jan Sangharsh Samiti is still fighting against the Government's proposal to convert the Netarhat hill region into a full-fledged Field Firing Range.

Impact of Aggressive Growth on Women and Children

A study on impact of aggressive growth on women could be broadly divided under two heads: a) socio-cultural impact and b) economic impact. Now, we would further pursue the impacts one by one under these heads.

a) Socio-Cultural Impact: Rural Jharkhand society is alive on web of cultural network. The rural folks draws its meaning of existence in living together, sharing the joys and sorrows together as a community. Land property in the tribal community is understood as a sacred inheritance from the ancestors and the sons who inherit them are the custodians of this land. But big development projects when uproots them from their ancestral place, they are socially ruined. The well-knit social fabric of the rural community, which was a treasured property for centuries, gets completely shattered. Women are the worst hit group due to break down of society.¹¹ Women suffer the most due to displacement and the consequential breakdown of social network. Men start drinking or increase drinking as a 'coping' mechanism. Violence against women at home also increases.

The influx of hordes of outsiders in the area affects their cultural and social value. The material culture that the outsiders bring in along with them affects the locals. They start feeling insecure about their own culture. The local society, which earlier had a distinctive culture, faces a peculiar problem hitherto unheard—that of cultural identity. The processions taken out in the heart of the Capital City during the traditional festivals like sarhul (festival of flowers),

karam, jitia and others, mostly celebrated by local tribals and the sadans, is a new phenomenon. "But at present the traditional culture of Chotanagpur is passing through a very critical phase. Without caring for its identity, rulers are forcing it to the domain of exploitative 'mainstream'. Now, it is feared that it will not be able to survive long. It is facing a serious crisis—the crisis of identity and existence. If proper care is not taken promptly, it will face extinction. The main factors which are leading it to this pathetic situation are a) colonial rule, b) abrupt uncongenial development plans, c) land alienation and brutal exploitation, d) hatred towards indigenous culture and e) finance capital and capitalism."¹²

Homelessness

It is the worst effect of any displacement. Uprooted from ancestral villages and houses due to displacement, the families know not where to go. The displaced families in the Chandil dam "were granted just Rs twenty thousand as amount to build their houses. How big would a house a displaced person, whose family size is about five-members on an average, make with this money? Some people who were better off could build their houses, other made small houses just to shelter themselves. Those who could not build their houses, the Government made Indira Awas for them, which broke down in a year or two."¹³

Increase in alcoholism among men

Sense of loss, neglect and above all frustration drives displaced men to nuts. Psychologically bogged down, it is little surprising when they take to drinking to cope with the new situation. Those who were in the habit of alcohol, increase their intake while the younger generation, aping the elder, took to the new habit. It is therefore, difficult to find non-drinking men in the region where the displaced people live. The drinking habit of the men has a very bad effect on women of the household. As the man comes back home often in inebriated condition, the woman questions him. Enraged, he takes to beating her up, unwilling to answer any one for his act. Thus regular wife-beating by displaced men is a general feature in these households.

Social dignity of women going down

The disintegration of the community network caused by displacement affect the women more severely than men. It is reported that there was a sudden increase in breaking marriages because of unemployment and other problems. Tribal women who generally enjoy a better social status in their communities are now treated according to status of women in the host villages.

Besides, in the new arrangement, the woman has no job except cooking and housekeeping. She is looked down upon by the man as a burden, because she fails to play the same role of bread winner for the family which she did in the pre-displacement phase.

2. Economic Impact

Displacement leads loss of land, loss of forest, loss of grazing land, loss of water bodies etc. Displacement thus brings loss of livelihood. The indigenous community, after displacement, is silently going through the same process, which the traditional Indian society experienced during the initial days of the British Rule—silent destruction of traditional occupation. Even if they try to find a way out and get employment in the new economy, jobs are not adequately available.

“Those who had no land earlier and were dependent mainly on share cropping or rendering services to the community and / or were dependent on common property resources, also lose their market and their access to the common property. Women face new situation where jobs, if there are any, generally go to men of the family, the compensation amount goes to men, and they are left with no work, find themselves pushed into their homes and have nothing else to do.”¹⁴

Migration of tribal girls

Migration of tribal girls to other States in search of livelihood is probably the ugliest fall out of aggressive growth and displacement in Jharkhand. According to a survey conducted by Bharat Jan Andolan, a people’s movement which is fighting against aggressive growth and forced displacement, found that no less than 5 lakh tribal girls of Jharkhand are outside the State working in posh households of metro cities as domestic helps.¹⁵

Conclusion

Development-induced displacement is the biggest issue today in Jharkhand or for the matter in India. Politics is mum and governments have no clear vision about development. The present form of concept of development has only created misery all over and will do so in future. Politics has to be more humane to address this serious issue or else the state and the country will have teeming millions with an inhuman plight.

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