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The Journal of Media and Social Development is an initiative to create scholarship in the area of media and social development by encouraging scholarly work by the academicians in interdisciplinary areas of social sciences. The Journal is a platform for publishing high quality original research and experiments in the significant areas of economic, political, social, cultural and media perspectives of development.

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Journal of Media and Social Development

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The Contributions of Psychological Science to Media Research: A Historical Outline

ESWARA H.S.

Abstract

This paper throws insight into integration of two academic disciplines and endeavours to identify the psychological inputs to communication theorizing and media research. Communication research became a major preoccupation of psychologists from the beginning of 20th century, when psychology had almost established itself as a scientific discipline and communication was making its beginning as a subject worthy of academic consideration. The early application of psychology for the understanding of communication behavior can be traced back to the field of advertising. A synthesis of behavioral and cognitive psychology provided a basic framework. It is in the area of study of attitude formation and change that psychologists have made significant contributions to media studies—the role of media in formation and change of attitudes, opinions and beliefs. Besides persuasion research another area of media research which has greatly attracted psychologists is media violence. These research initiatives culminated in the emergence of new branch of psychology, namely Media Psychology, which in India has great potential for research and placements, and introduction of courses in the Universities must be given an academic priority.

Keywords: Communication research, psychology, behavior, advertising, cognitive psychology, attitudes, media violence, media psychology

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COMMUNICATION RESEARCH; NEW BEGINNINGS

Communication emerged as an independent academic discipline in the early part of the previous century borrowing heavily from social, psychological and behavioral sciences. This has been acknowledged by no less an authority than Wilbur Schramm (Schramm, 1997) who was at the forefront of academic communication programs in their initial stages at various US universities. He has identified the “founding fathers” of this new discipline as political scientist Harold Laswell, experimental psychologist Carl Hovland, social psychologist Kurt Lewin and sociologist Paul Lazarsfeld. Further, reviewing the milestones of mass communication at the end of the 20th century, Lowery and DeFleur (1995) have confirmed that “Communication research is an extension of the methodology and theory building strategies of the social and behavioral sciences” (p.15).

The contribution of psychology, however, has been major in delineating communication process and explaining its effects. Given the major focus of psychology being analysis and explanation of behavior and communication being a behavioral act, it was well within the scope of psychology to engage in delineating the process of communication and explain its effects. Nevertheless communication research became a major preoccupation of psychologists from the beginning of 20th century, when psychology had almost established itself as a scientific discipline and communication was making its beginning as a subject worthy of academic consideration.

The early application of psychology for the understanding of communication behavior can be traced back to the field of advertising. Psychology has contributed a wide array tools, theories and techniques to the practice of advertising. Historically, we should begin with J.B. Watson, the founder of American ‘behaviorism.’ Watson worked for J. Walter Thomson, for some time. He was, perhaps, the first to recognise the importance of human emotions for making effective advertisements. He suggested that the basic emotions like love, fear and rage are key factors contributing to the effectiveness of advertising. As someone has pointed out that Watson’s “advertisements sold toothpaste, not because of its dental hygiene benefits, but because whiter teeth would presumably increase an individual’s sex appeal”. It was again J. B. Watson who promoted the use of celebrity endorsements.

Then, it was Harry Hollingworth, another psychologist, who made some important contributions to modern day advertising. Hollingworth suggested that advertising to be effective must achieve four things: It must attract consumer’s attention, focus his attention on the message, make him remember the message and finally, cause him to take the desired action. These initial suggestions of Hollingworth have been corroborated by later persuasion researchers. William McGuire’s (McGuire, 1968) communication-persuasion model, for example, provides an excellent corroboration. McGuire’s model which is essentially an information processing analysis includes five stages: attention, comprehension, acceptance, retention and action. To begin with, there must be exposure to the message. Then, one has to give attention to the content of the message. There is no response to advertising message if there is no attention to it. Attention is selective and this selectivity is guided by personal relevance. The content of the message has to be comprehended in relation to ones needs and gratification of those needs. Retention and recall of the message content is also crucial for the success of the message. Finally, message must be accepted and acted upon.

A synthesis of behavioral and cognitive psychology provided a basic framework. The initial impetus came from American Behaviorism leading to the early conception of hypodermic needle model which treats communication messages as stimuli and its consequences on the receiver as responses (see: Lowery & DeFleur, 1995). The challenges to this simplistic S-R model came from many sources. A more inclusive formulation within the framework of learning theory principles evolved out of the work of Yale Group of Experimental Psychologists, under the leadership of Carl Hovland. Hovland and Janis (1959) conceived communication situation as an interplay between source, message and channel characteristics, on the one hand, and audience predispositions, on the other, in a given setting through the operation internal mediating processes (attention, comprehension, and acceptance) in order to produce observable communication effects (changes in opinion, perception, affect, and action). It is in the area of study of attitude formation and change that psychologists have made significant contributions to media studies—the role of media in formation and change of attitudes, opinions and beliefs.

The work of Hovland and his colleagues (Hovland, Lumsdaine & Sheffield, 1949) in the Information and Education Division of the War Department during World War II focused on the psychological processes underlying attitudes and their modification in response to communication messages. It was around the same time several efforts to analyse propaganda were made. The Institute of Propaganda Analysis (1938) came up with a psychological analysis of propaganda techniques such as *name calling*, *glittering generalities*, *transfer*, *testimonial*, *plain folks*, *card staking* and *bandwagon*. The Nazi propaganda and Gobble's rhetoric during World War II was analysed by the Yale psychologist Leonard Doob and major propaganda principles were identified.

One of the other significant contributions from the field of psychology to communication research is the work of Osgood and his colleagues (Osgood, Suci & Tannenbaum, 1957). Osgood was basically an experimental psychologist and became interested in psycholinguistics. Osgood's contributions to communication studies are many. He developed a model of communication in association with Schramm (Schramm, 1954) which has clearly delineated communication process and its various elements. His book on 'Measurement of Meaning' identifies three dimensions of meaning *viz.*, evaluative, activity and potency. Besides conceptualizing attitude as evaluative dimension of a concept, Osgood provided a tool to measure attitudes *i.e.*, the semantic differential scales. These scales became very handy to communication researchers to assess various attitudes and changes in attitudes as dependent variables of communication and its manipulations as independent variable.

Another strand of psychology that influenced communication research was social psychology and group dynamics, notably the work of Kurt Lewin. The work of Lewin and his students highlighted the importance of group process in mediating the impact of communication in changing attitudes and behaviors. The truth of the matter is that nobody lives in isolation. Our thoughts, attitudes and actions are intricately interwoven with those of others in the groups to which we belong. Both the membership groups and reference groups provide a framework for us to evaluate our own opinions and actions, and these evaluations modulate them. The recognition of the influence of group in the communication process minimized the omnipotent potential of

communication in producing automatic responses on the part of the recipients of messages. The classical research on auto-kinetic effect by Sherif (1935), on conformity by Asch (1951), on Bystander Effect by Darley & Latne (1968, 1971), on Obedience by Milgram (2004) and on Deindividuation by Zimbardo (1969)—all these provided useful explanations or interpretations for mass media effects in the context of groups.

TURNING POINT IN COMMUNICATION RESEARCH

Communication research in the latter half of 20th century was dominated by cognitive psychology, particularly the so called cognitive consistency theories. Heider's Balance Theory (Heider, 1958), Newcomb's A-B-X model, Festinger's Cognitive Dissonance Theory (Festinger, 1957) and Osgood and Tannenbaum's Congruity Principle (1955) prominently figure in this cluster of consistency theories, and particularly Festinger's theory dominated persuasive and advertising research of the latter half of twentieth century. The need for balance, congruence and consistency serves as a major motivating force and serves as an influence over perception and behavior. Because individuals seek to maintain cognitive balance, their attitudes and beliefs help them select information to which they will attend, how much of it they comprehend, and the ways in which they incorporate messages in their perception and experience. In short, cognitive psychological theories of communication hold that communicators selectively attend to and avoid communication messages and participate in those events that are consistent with their belief and value structures (see: Freedman & Sears, 1965).

The psychology of motivation, specifically Maslow's (Maslow, 1954) theory of hierarchy of needs has made inroads into media research studies by way of uses and gratification theory of mass media use. Uses and gratifications perspective explores why and how people actively seek out specific media content to satisfy their specific needs. Instead of asking the usual question 'what media does to people?' this theory seeks answer to the question, 'what do people do with media?' Maslow's pyramid of hierarchy of needs containing biological needs at the base moving through safety, security, social, ego and self-actualisation at the top provided a basic framework for analysis of needs that audience seek out to gratify variety of media contents. Blumer and Katz (1974) have identified several of these

needs emerging from an array of studies into five categories namely, cognitive needs, affective needs, personal integrative needs, social integrative needs and tension release needs.

Besides persuasion research another area of media research which has greatly attracted psychologists is media violence. The coming of TV as entertainment in the middle of the 20th century gave rise to issues of media violence and psychologists became focused on questions relating to consequences of watching media violence. Although some psychologists believe that viewing violence has cathartic effect (Feshback, 1961), most of them have adhered to the position that exposure to media violence causes consequent aggressive behavior among the viewers, especially young children (Bandura, 1973; Berkowitz, 1993). Bandura's Social Learning Theory offered a useful psychological perspective for media violence studies. Several psychological mechanisms have been identified establishing a connection between media violent content and later anti-social activities, primarily aggressive behavioral acts. These include: cognitive priming, desensitization, lowered physiological arousal, observational learning, and justification. The amount of empirical evidence in support of these explanations from the experimental psychology labs is enormous and even cursory summary of those studies beyond the scope of this presentation.

Psychologists were not only interested in finding causal connections between exposure to media violence and consequent aggressive behaviors, they were also concerned with the long term socialization effects of media content, particularly television models. What has come to be known as 'cultivation research' focused on mass media impact the perception of social reality and how media shapes users 'world views'. One of the significant findings was that heavy viewers of television would perceive that the real world was more akin to what was portrayed on television, and they tend to estimate the prevalence of higher levels of danger in the world and feel more distrustful of fellow beings than light viewers of television. The research also found that television models, in the absence of other live experiences, formed the basis of reality and shaped their attitudes toward race, sex roles and professions. The researches by Gerbner and his colleagues (Gerbner et al., 2002) are highly representative of studies in the area of cultivation research.

The above developments spanning over almost a period of a century culminated in the emergence of new branch of psychology, namely Media Psychology. In 1987, the American Psychological Association crafted the Media Psychology Division, 'The Society supports the study and dissemination of information related to the impact of the media on human behaviour.' (apa.org) ('Division no. 46'.) Media psychology is regarded as branch of psychology which studies the relationships between media and human behavior. Media psychology assumes the nature of interdisciplinary science encompassing inputs from several disciplines such as sociology, psychology, linguistics, information theory and mass communication. The focus is to investigate how people interact with media and each other due to media influence. The scope of media psychology spans across the production, processing and impact of mass media messages on individuals and societies. Specifically, the focus of media psychology centers around themes such as: delineating the process of communication and identifying the role of attention, perception, comprehension and retention in the process; studying the impact of mass communication on cognitions, affections and behaviors; analysing the role of media on escalation or de-escalation of social aggression, national conflicts, terror and fanaticism; and investigating media production and consumption patterns. Media psychology has the potential to engineer media content so that it can be used to the best advantage of humanity.

It is often heard that 21st century belongs to India. Information technologies and media applications are pervading Indian society affecting nearly every aspect of our lives—not only what we wear and what we eat, but also how we think and feel. In this context, media psychology in this country has great potential for research and placements, and introduction of courses in the field in Indian Universities must be given an academic priority.

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How Valid are Newspaper Representations of Caste?

B. RAMAKRISHNA

Abstract

The long-standing view of Indian society as a caste-based hierarchy has been rejected by the Indian Constitution but continues to find currency in the news content. This view manifests itself in the form of terms such as ‘upper caste’ and ‘lower caste’. This article considers these terms and their usage problematic. Using deductive logic, it offers a test for determining inherence of the idea of hierarchy in a given news story. Further, it checks this test with a sample of recent news stories from two leading English-language dailies and finds that, along with the occurrence of problematic usage, there is acknowledgement of the contested nature of the said terms and that news sources are emerging as a major source of such usage.

Keywords: Caste, social hierarchy, deductive logic, representation, journalism

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INTRODUCTION

The 2015 edition of the World Bank’s annual publication, the World Development Report, titled ‘Mind, Society, and Behaviour’, is especially valuable for bringing into focus the psychological and social influences on people’s behaviour. In one telling case (World Development Report, 2015: 12), it cites a study on the effects of stereotypes, where it was found that boys from a disadvantaged group were as good as everyone else at solving puzzles when their caste was not revealed, but their performance fell by 23 per cent in tests after their caste identity was revealed. Its larger point is that what is true in an experimental situation is also true of the wider society. Given the news media’s power to shape worldviews, its representations can have long-term cognitive effects on society.

In this context, the moot question is why should Indian newspapers persist with the degrading description of a section of society as “lower caste” and certain others as “upper caste”? As social institutions dealing with the printed word, newspapers can be expected to have a valid basis for every bit of information they publish and every representation of reality they create. The principles of journalism also state as much, saying the profession’s first obligation is to the truth and its essence is the discipline of verification (Pew Research Center, 2015). By and large, newspapers uphold these principles and, through it, gain some of their credibility, but not always. All major newspapers in India use the terms “lower caste” and “upper caste” to qualify the social identity of particular groups. A simple Google search would provide evidence of this practice. Try, for instance, <“upper caste” thehindu.com>, or <“upper caste” timesofindia.com> on Google.

Do the newspapers have a basis for this usage? The roots of most conceptions of hierarchical society in India go back to ancient Hindu tradition, particularly to the 2000-year-old ‘law book’ called *ManuSmriti* (Jodhka, 2012: 2). Even with regard to that text, doubts have been expressed as to whether it should be read as a proposed, ideal system, or as an actual one in practice at the time of its writing (Thapar, 2010: 3). Even if there were no such doubts, there has been a consensus at least since India became a republic in 1950 that the egalitarian principles enshrined in the Constitution of India would override any tradition of social hierarchy that may have existed, and offer every individual the liberty to follow or not to follow a given tradition.

If newspapers continue to use terms such as “upper caste” and “lower caste”, it should be either an adoption of the above tradition as a convention, or a choice made consciously in each case of usage. India’s leading English newspapers, such as *The Hindu* and *The Times of India*, which often take nuanced editorial stances on social issues, cannot be considered to be unconscious adopters in this respect. Also, the same ancient tradition accords a lower status to women too, just as it does to certain social groups (Thapar, 2010: 28-29). But newspapers, creditably, disregard the tradition in favour of a modern value of equal status of men and women. So, if the terms

“upper caste” and “lower caste” continue to occur, it must be the case that the newspapers have a reason or two for using them.

If the reason is indeed a belief in the hierarchical system, then there is little to be investigated because it would quite simply be a case of a free exercise of choice from among the options before them, just as it would be for any individual citizen. If not, could it be that the social reality that the newspapers provide representations of, can only be understood in the said hierarchical terms, thereby possibly forcing newspapers to go against their own convictions?

SOCIAL HEIRARCHY AND INDIAN PRESS - ANALYSIS

The idea of social hierarchy can be considered to be either inherent in the issue being reported or it is not. How does one determine this? Can the text of published stories provide a test of the necessity of such usage? Broadly, for the purpose of answering the above question, a journalist’s work can be divided into two parts: the first, dealing with gathering of information from various sources; and the second, involving construction of a news report, a feature or an article with the information so gathered. Since the information gathered from sources will retain its sanctity only when it is left untouched and unmodified, one can assume that journalists do not alter information gathered from sources. They are of course at considerable liberty to decide what information to include and what to leave out of the story, but that aspect would properly belong to the second, i.e., the construction, part of their work. With these assumptions, it can be said that the notion of hierarchy is inherent in a given story and limits the liability of journalists if it is part of the information gathered from sources. If not, it would be a part of the journalist’s construction and the usage of the said terms would be considered without basis.

To examine the validity of newspaper representations of caste with this test, the researcher did a content analysis of a sample of recent stories, taken from two leading English newspapers, namely, *The Hindu* and *The Times of India*. Since the study is not primarily about the frequency of occurrence of either “lower caste” or “upper caste” but instead about the validity of the said terms when and where they occur, the search was restricted

to a one-month period from June 24, 2015 to July 24, 2015. The stories were selected from the Web editions of the two papers. The search resulted in 20 stories from *The Hindu* and 27 stories from *The Times of India*.

Guidelines for the content analysis of news stories:

- (i) In each story, words like “lower caste” and “upper caste” were identified.
- (ii) It was then determined as to whether the terms were attributed to a source or not. If it was explicitly or implicitly attributed to a source, it was considered to be used by ‘Source’. If not, it was considered to have been used by ‘Journalist’. For stories that are not news reports, e.g., columns, reviews or editorial page articles, writers are also considered to belong to the category of ‘Journalists’, and the same test was applied, namely, whether the term was attributed or not.
- (iii) Under qualitative aspects, the use of quotation marks or prefixes such as “so-called” was considered to be an acknowledgement of the contested nature of the terms.
- (iv) Finally, each instance of “upper caste” and “lower caste” was classified as either “inherent” to the construct of the story, or “not inherent”, depending upon whether the term was used by a ‘Source’ or a ‘Journalist’, respectively.

Table 1- Analysis of stories from *The Hindu*

Serial No.	Instance of 'lower caste' (LC) or 'upper caste' (UC)	Used by Journalist / Writer (J) or Source (S)	Qualitative aspects (presence or absence of quotes for the terms in question)	Whether 'inherent' (I) or 'not inherent' (NI)
<i>Story 1. Lalu, Nitish to be Hit Hardest if Caste Data Released: Paswan; July 23, 2015</i>				
1	UC	S	No quotes	I
2	LC	S	No quotes	I
3	LC	S	No quotes	I
4	UC	S	No quotes	I
5	UC	S	No quotes	I
6	UC	S	No quotes	I

<i>Story 2. A Meatless Argument; July 20, 2015</i>				
7	UC	S	In quotes	I
8	UC	S	No quotes	I
9	UC	S	No quotes	I
<i>Story 3. Dalit Farmer's Suicide Triggers Protest; July 20, 2015</i>				
10	UC	S	In quotes	I
<i>Story 4. Neerajghaywan on the Making of 'Masaan'; July 18, 2015</i>				
11	LC	J	No quotes	NI
12	UC	J	No quotes	NI
<i>Story 5. Upper Caste Men Can't Become Bihar CM: Union Minister; July 18, 2015</i>				
13	UC	S	No quotes	I
14	UC	S	No quotes	I
15	UC	S	No quotes	I
16	UC	J	No quotes	NI
17	UC	S	No quotes	I
18	UC	S	No quotes	I
19	UC	J	No quotes	NI
<i>Story 6. Memorial to be Built for Karamchedu Victims: Ravela; July 18, 2015</i>				
20	UC	J	In quotes	NI
<i>Story 7. Pond Water Here is Still 'Untouchable'; July 18, 2015</i>				
21	UC	J	In quotes	NI
22	UC	J	In quotes	NI
<i>Story 8. 'PMK Creating Division'; July 17, 2015</i>				
23	UC	S	No quotes	I
<i>Story 9. 'Let Dalits Have Arms'; July 16, 2015</i>				
24	UC	J	No quotes	NI
<i>Story 10. Lalu Leads March for Caste Census Data; July 14, 2015</i>				
25	UC	S	No quotes	I
<i>Story 11. Demonstration at St Michael's Cathedral; July 13, 2015</i>				
26	UC	J	No quotes	NI

<i>Story 12. Key Witness in Caste Conflict Case Found Dead; July 12, 2015</i>				
27	UC	J	In quotes	NI
<i>Story 13. Caste Wars Ahead of Bihar Polls; July 12, 2015</i>				
28	UC	S	No quotes	I
<i>Story 14. A Memoir Set in Princely Mysore; July 9, 2015</i>				
29	LC	S	No quotes	I
<i>Story 15. Hindutva Forces Posing A Threat to Dravidian Movement: Vaiko; July 8, 2015</i>				
30	UC	S	No quotes	I
<i>Story 16. Special Legislation Needed: VCK; July 3, 2015</i>				
31	UC	J	No quotes	NI
<i>Story 17. Shahumaharaj's Welfare Acts Remembered; June 29, 2015</i>				
32	LC	S	No quotes	I
<i>Story 18. In Bollywood, Storylines Remain Backward on Caste; June 28, 2015</i>				
33	UC	J	No quotes	NI
34	UC	J	No quotes	NI
35	UC	J	No quotes	NI
36	UC	J	No quotes	NI
<i>Story 19. A Dream Realised; June 28, 2015</i>				
37	LC	J	No quotes	NI
<i>Story 20. Fiction Rooted in Facts; June 25, 2015</i>				
38	UC	J	No quotes	NI

Table 2- *The Hindu* Story Analysis

	Usage of Caste Elements	Frequency
1.	Instances of “lower caste” (LC)	06
2.	Instances of LC with quotes or prefix indicating the contested nature of the term	00
3.	Instances of LC with no indication of the contested nature (No quotes or prefix)	06
4.	Instances of LC with Inherent (I):	04
5.	Instances of LC Not Inherent (NI)	02
6.	Instances of “upper caste” (UC)	32
7.	Instances of UC with quotes or prefix indicating the contested nature of the term	06
8.	Instances of UC with no indication of the contested nature (No quotes or prefix)	26
9.	Instances of usage with Inherent (I)	17
10.	Instances of usage Not Inherent (NI)	15

While a majority of the instances of LC and UC in this sample are “inherent to the story”, there is scope for improvement in terms of indicating the contested nature of the terms. Probably because of the political articulation of sensitivity to the use of the term “lower caste”, there were fewer problematic instances of its use (i.e., those lacking “inherent”) in *The Hindu* but they were not completely absent.

Table 3 - Analysis of Stories from *The Times of India*

Serial No.	Instance of ‘lower caste’ (LC) or ‘upper caste’ (UC)	Used by Journalist / Writer (J) or Source (S)	Qualitative aspects (presence or absence of quotes for the terms in question)	Whether ‘inherent’ (I) or ‘not inherent’ (NI)
Story 1. Eyeing Dalit Votes, Shah to Visit Tamil Nadu on Aug 6; July 24, 2015				
1	Dominant caste (=UC)	J	No quotes	NI
2	UC	J	In quotes	NI

Story 2. Both Lalu, Nitish are Venomous Snakes: Pappu; July 23, 2015				
3	UC	J	No quotes	NI
4	LC	S	No quotes	I
Story 3. Masaan – Movie Review; July 23, 2015				
5	LC	J	No quotes	NI
6	UC	J	No quotes	NI
7	Untouchable caste (=LC)	J	No quotes	NI
Story 4. Manjhi’s Eid Politics Baffles Observers; July 20, 2015				
8	UC	J	No quotes	NI
9	UC	J	No quotes	NI
Story 5. Sunil Pandey Shifted to Beur Jail on DM Recommendation; July 20, 2015				
10	UC	S	No quotes	I
Story 6. New Bridge on Ganga Approved; July 19, 2015				
11	UC	S	No quotes	I
12	UC	S	No quotes	I
13	UC	S	No quotes	I
14	UC	J	No quotes	NI
Story 7. Caste Data to Hit Nitish, Lalu Hard, Says Paswan; July 19, 2015				
15	UC	S	No quotes	I
16	UC	S	No quotes	I
17	LC	S	No quotes	I
18	LC	S	No quotes	I
19	UC	S	No quotes	I
20	UC	S	No quotes	I
21	UC	S	No quotes	I
Story 8. Sumo: Lalu’s Like ‘Hanuman’ Who Will Burn Own ‘Lanka’; July 16, 2015				
22	UC	J	No quotes	NI
Story 9. Poem for Kids Out of Rhyme With Anti-Casteist Law; July 15, 2015				
23	UC	J	No quotes	NI

Story 10. Dalit Beaten for Walking on Land Owned by Upper Caste; July 15, 2015				
24	UC	J	No quotes	NI
Story 11. Groups Clash Over Draining Water From Flooded Colony; July 14, 2015				
25	LC	J	No quotes	NI
26	UC	J	No quotes	NI
27	UC	S	No quotes	I
28	LC	J	No quotes	NI
Story 12. Bright Poor Upper Caste Students to Get Help in Bihar; July 13, 2015				
29	UC	J	No quotes	NI
30	UC	J	No quotes	NI
31	UC	J	No quotes	NI
32	UC	J	No quotes	NI
33	UC	J	No quotes	NI
34	UC	J	No quotes	NI
35	UC	J	No quotes	NI
36	UC	S	No quotes	I
37	UC	S	No quotes	I
Story 13. After Lalu-Nitish, Cong Demands Release of Caste Data; July 13, 2015				
38	UC	S	No quotes	I
Story 14. Memorial of Utkal Mani Razed, Locals Infuriated; July 12, 2015				
39	LC	S	No quotes	I
Story 15. Narendra Modi Belonged to 'Upper Caste' Before April 2000, Claims Lalu; July 11, 2015				
40	UC	S	In quotes	I
41	UC	S	In quotes	I
42	UC	S	No quotes	I
Story 16. We Gave First OBC PM, Most OBC CMs: BJP; July 11, 2015				
43	UC	J	No quotes	NI
44	UC	S	No quotes	I

Story 17. HC Issues Notices to Govt to Curb Atrocities on Dalits; July 11, 2015				
45	UC	S	No quotes	I
Story 18. Dalit Woman Seeks Wages, Man Burns Her House Down; July 9, 2015				
46	UC	J	No quotes	NI
47	UC	S	No quotes	I
Story 19. Posters with Casteist Slurs Put Up at Residential Colony, DM Approached for Probe; July 5, 2015				
48	LC	J	In quotes	NI
Story 20. Dalits Decry Death of their Old Dance Forms; July 4, 2015				
49	LC	S	No quotes	I
Story 21. Saibaba Steps Out of Jail After 419 Days; July 4, 2015				
50	UC	S	No quotes	I
Story 22. 'Lease Holders' to be Land Owners Now; July 4, 2015				
51	UC	S	No quotes	I
Story 23. India's Push to Save its Cows Starves Bangladesh of Beef; July 3, 2015				
52	LC	J	No quotes	NI
Story 24. Mirchpur Dalits get CRPF Security for 2 More Months; July 2, 2015				
53	UC	J	No quotes	NI
54	UC	J	No quotes	NI
Story 25. Director Neerajghaywan: Had Inhibitions to Cast Vicky Kaushal in 'Masaan'; July 2, 2015				
55	LC	J	No quotes	NI
56	UC	J	No quotes	NI
Story 26. Manoj Bajpai, Rajkumarrao Were to be Part of "Masaan"; June 29, 2015				
57	LC	J	No quotes	NI
Story 27. 'Masaan' Trailer Reveals Dark Side of Indian Society; June 26, 2015				
58	LC	J	No quotes	NI

Table 4 -The Times of India Story Analysis

	Usage of Caste Elements	Frequency
1	Instances of “lower caste” (LC)	15
2	Instances of LC indicating the contested nature of the term	01
3	Instances of LC with no indication of the contested nature (No quotes or prefix)	14
4	Instances of LC with Inherent (I):	05
5	Instances of LC Not Inherent (NI)	10
6	Instances of “upper caste” (UC)	44
7	Instances of UC indicating the contested nature of the term	03
8	Instances of UC with no indication of the contested nature (No quotes or prefix)	41
9	Instances of UC with Inherent (I)	21
10	Instances of UC Not Inherent (NI)	23

The above analysis (Table 4) suggests that in the sample from *The Times of India*, a majority of the cases were problematic either because of a lack of “inherent” factor or for not indicating the contested nature of the terms. It may be inferred that there is acknowledgement at the editorial level of the contested nature of the terms as indicated by the usage with quotes, but it is not always manifest in the stories; and that the news sources are emerging as a major source of problematic usage. Also, one may observe that the occurrence of the term “upper caste” is more frequent than the term “lower caste” in the news stories in both *The Hindu* and the *Times of India* newspapers.

Indian newspapers can legitimately take credit for providing wide coverage to caste-related injustices in society. It would only serve the purpose of such coverage better if some care is taken with regard to the kind of language that is used. After all, as the theory of social construction of reality says, rather than there being an objective social reality, it is made and given meaning by human actors. Given the power of language in creating representations of reality and that of the media in shaping worldviews,

newspapers should strengthen the chances of unjust impositions being contested, resisted and eliminated at all levels.

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Use of new media by the young in India: Need of Parental Mediation

RAJESH KUMAR

Abstract

With increasing access and use of Internet enabled services in India, the social ramifications of these technological tools and services come to the center stage of discussion. Today, the Internet driven new/digital media is not only an information resource or an entertainment tool but also a virtual platform or an assembly of people. People form online groups to discuss issues, chat and socialise among themselves, anonymously at times. This virtual platform may be enriching and convenient for social interactions, business and marketing, but certain age groups, particularly the young between the age group of 14-18 years are vulnerable to such platform assemblies. Here comes the role of parental mediation. Parental mediation may be in the form of solicitation for better and beneficial uses, counseling and intervening in the use of these technological tools and services to ensure the young one's online safety and also to facilitate optimum utilisation of these tools and services. This article puts an analysis of parental monitoring of Internet driven new/digital media by the young. While referring to different studies and experiences around the world, an attempt has been made to explain the need for parental monitoring in Internet uses by the young. It has been concluded that the young in India do need some form of parental monitoring in their use of new/digital media tools and services.

Keywords: Social media, youth, parental monitoring, digital media, online groups.

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INTRODUCTION

While Internet in India took more than a decade to move from 10 million to 100 million and 3 years from 100 to 200 million, it took only a year to move from 300 to 400 million users. Currently, India has the third largest Internet users' base in the world but it is estimated that India will overtake the US as the second largest Internet users' base in the world, behind China only. Further, 32% of the users are College students followed by 26% young men. Significantly, there has been a huge spurt in the number of people accessing Internet on a daily basis in urban India. As on October 2015, 69% of users use Internet on a daily basis. This daily user base has gone up by 60% from that of last year (IAMAI 17 November, 2015). This rapid growth in Internet access and users is a heartening trend but it brings with it some threats as well, particularly in relation to Internet uses by the young who face the concerns raised by cyber bullying, contact with strangers, easy access to porn material and other age-inappropriate information (McAfee, Synovate study, 2011). Therefore, social ramifications of new media particularly in relation to family and young children have emerged as a prime focus of study. Here an attempt has been made to explain the need for parental intervention in some form in Internet driven new media/digital media use by the young in India by referring to parental mediation practices, experiences and research studies around the world.

PARENTAL MEDIATION: GLOBAL EXPERIENCES

Parental mediation of children while they use Internet driven media involves the regulation of children Internet use by parents in order to maximise benefits and in particular to minimize the potential negative impacts of the Internet on children. It has been identified that when mediating children digital media uses, parents primarily favour social mediation over technical restrictions and restrictive rule making. While using social mediation they prefer staying nearby or sitting next to child while they are online. And if they use technical restrictions filtering software is more popular than monitoring software. Also, when making rules on Internet use, firstly parents favour restrictive rules to instructive rules; secondly more educated parents do not use technical software because they trust their children. However, less educated parents may not know how to use such software. Rules

governing children's online activities are guided more by moral panic and economic reasons than by the awareness of which online activities carry which form of risk. Thirdly, parents prefer multiple mediation strategies to single ones. Fourthly, parental mediation depends upon parent's characteristics i.e. parental role, education, and Internet use; for example, mothers engage in all types of parental mediation more than fathers (Livingstone and Helsper, 2007: 619-643; Livingstone and Helsper, 2008: 581-599). Also, Mendoza (2009: 28-41) examines three strategies of parental mediation—co-viewing, restrictive mediation, and active mediation—in order to make connections, challenge, and raise questions for media literacy. Co-viewing, whether it is intentional practice, or whether it functions to promote media literacy, is debated by Mendoza. Restrictive mediation, how it connects to protectionism, and whether restriction serves as a form of media literacy are also debated. Lastly, active mediation and whether it relates to an inquiry model of media literacy, is discussed. Mendoza (2009: 28-41) concludes with suggestions for future research on parental mediation and media literacy in the hope of advancing parents' media education.

Having mentioned various parental mediation/intervention practices involved in the exercise to ensure the welfare of our children, we must also look at it with the dimension of family involvement. In view of the findings, that mothers engage in all types of parental mediation more than fathers, one question becomes pertinent. Is it the gender attribute only which plays a significant role in the mediation practices prevalent at home? To ensure the wellbeing of the children, it has to be an equal effort on the part of the parents. Furthermore, Lim & Soon (2010: 205-216) find that consistent with their counterparts in other countries, Chinese and Korean mothers played a significant role in technology domestication because they typically ran the household; they were their children's primary caregivers and were thus intensively involved in raising and nurturing them. Principally, they had some influence over product acquisition and were mainly responsible for supervising the children's ICT use. Notably however, cultural conceptions of motherhood and maternal responsibility, the premium placed on academic achievement by children, as well as the two societies' highly positive outlook on technology greatly influence how Chinese and Korean mothers co-use and supervise their children's use of ICTs. Findings of this study also suggest the strengths

and limitations of domestication theory when applied to Asian settings and the ever-changing media environment. When considering the family dynamics, we shouldn't leave aside the fears of children being bullied when not assisted by their parents. Even if they are at home, there is a greater need for them to socialise with their peers. On several counts, this socialisation doesn't remain the same as we hope it to be. Patchin & Hinduja (2006: 148-169) find that many children have easy access to technological devices such as computers, Skype, cameras, Internet, and mobiles. These technologies can be used for productive reasons, but have recently become a means for children to become bullies and use the technology to make threats against other children. Cyber bullying has become a serious problem, inflicting psychological, emotional, and social harm to many victims. Ybarra and Mitchell (2004: 1308-1316) found that 20-25% of offenders and victims replied that they used cigarettes or alcohol, and 50% of the victims or offenders reported that their parents poorly monitored their online activities. With these observations, we are again made to review our stake on the question of monitoring children.

EURO BAROMETER STUDIES

The Euro barometer can be considered as one of the rigorous and exhaustive research endeavors undertaken to investigate the mediation practices in European countries. Data from Euro barometer in 2008 on parents' awareness of risk issues regarding children online activities confirms most findings from the EU Kids Online project but also raises new issues for some European countries. Especially in Portugal (with other southern European countries as well), parents' concern regarding children online activities is now apparently one of the highest in Europe.

As we have seen, there is an intricate relation between perceptions, attitudes and actual practices when it comes to online activities and risks. This is the specific case of parents' awareness of their children online activities and the strategies they apparently adopt to prevent (or enhance) the risks (or opportunities) that their children might face online. As the Euro barometer points out, risk perception does not necessarily lead to the adoption of any specific measures, but that doesn't mean either that parents don't take any measures. Additionally, parents own Internet experience seems to

matter in their assessment of online risks (but not as clearly as one could imagine) on what they actually do. Children's age also seems to play an important role in explaining not only parents' perceptions but also the way they seem to set rules or attempt different mediation strategies (Barbosa et al, 2011).

Results show that the presence of mediators varies according to the location of the child's use of the Internet, the household being the most frequent location of access. Despite the fact that one third of Brazilian children aged 5 to 9 use the Internet unsupervised, when he/she is not alone, the mother is perceived as the most present person during this activity. Results also reveal that household socio-economic status and mediation strategies are not independent variables. Brazilian parents favour social mediation strategies rather than technical ones. Furthermore, parents who use Internet are more likely to be present during the child's Internet use, implying the importance of media literacy for parents. Public school teachers also perceive that their level of ICT skills are not up to the mark and this is a barrier for greater use of technologies in the school environment. This necessitates the importance of the promotion of media literacy among teachers also. Therefore, addressing issues related to media literacy among educators and parents is essential to promote a safe use of new interactive digital media.

REVIEW OF STUDIES ON NEED OF PARENTAL MEDIATION

Today, the young (age 14-18 years) grow in a media rich environment and use of Internet enabled new/digital media is very much a part of their lives while they grow. These kids born after 1990 very much grew in the laps of ICT driven media environment. Palfrey and Gasser (2008) call them 'Digital natives'. They attribute their arrival to the human civilisation at the time when social digital technologies such as Usenet and bulletin board systems came online. These 'digital natives' have access to networked digital technologies and they possess innate ability to use them. Teenagers are connected to one another by a common major cultural aspect of their lives — social interactions, friendships and their social activities are mediated by digital technologies. These 'digital natives' have created a 24x7 network that blends the human with the technical to a degree we haven't experienced before, and it is perhaps transforming human relationships in fundamental ways.

Some proponents of digital media would argue that it helps us with a platform to express our opinion over issues, helps us bridge down the geographical distance and connect with people on social networking platforms and forums. Yet, it goes without saying that there are possible threats at such forums as well. Berg and Leenes (2011: 211-232) opine that social network sites lack a common mechanism used by individuals in everyday interactions to manage the impressions they leave on others and protect their privacy/audience segregation. The lack of this mechanism significantly affects the level of users control over their self-presentation in social network sites. They emphasise that audience segregation is not only important in real life, but vital, yet currently undervalued and overlooked for the protection of one's self images and privacy in social network sites. Having such observations, one would definitely ask what possible measures can be taken to ensure welfare of one's children. Here, parental intervention in some form becomes imperative.

Online communication has become central in the social life of late childhood and adolescence. Such extensive use of online communication elicits mixed reactions among adults. Scholars and practitioners have expressed concern that online communication leads to shallow relationships, and risks of online solicitation and cyber-bullying. In contrast, it has also been argued that online communication provides opportunities for identity exploration, access to social support and information, and the opportunity to develop meaningful relationship. Children and teens are frequent users of online communication. A study in the U.S. showed that 79 percent of youth aged 12 to 17 had sent messages to friends in the previous week using a social networking site, 69 percent had sent a text message, 56 percent had sent instant messages (IM) to friends, and 44 percent had sent E-mails. In Europe, a study of 29 European countries found that 62 percent of children aged 9 to 16 use instant messaging, 11 percent write or read a weblog and 59 percent have a social networking profile. Online communication has become an integral part of the culture of children and youth. Its widespread diffusion is associated with the network effect, indicating that the extensive use of E-mail, instant messaging and social networking sites by teens is a result of its diffusion through social networks (Mesch, 2013: 287-288).

Parents are under increasing pressure to monitor their children online behavior and practices. This reflects a neoliberal regulatory regime that places the burden of protecting children on parents. Data protection legislations in some countries purports to give parents control by requiring websites that target children to solicit parental consent before collecting, using and disclosing personal information from children (that is, less than 13 to 18 years of age, depending on the legal jurisdiction). This in effect creates a binary switch. Parents either consent or their children cannot participate in the online community. In addition, online companies have been active promoters of media education initiatives that promote parental surveillance. Companies like Microsoft, Google and Verizon routinely sponsor public education sites that link parents directly to monitoring software and urge them to use online filters and other technical controls to protect their children (Steeves, 2012: 356).

Parents have an important role when it comes to protecting and educating youth so that they are able to deal with the aggressive acts of their peers and 'predatory' adults. Thus, it is desired to maintain open lines of communication with their teens and use evaluative and restrictive mediation techniques to teach them about online safety (Subrahmanyam and Smahel, 2010: 208). The Internet has become an important vehicle for communication across the globe since the late twentieth century. Internet usage worldwide continues to grow. Recently, it has been reported that 21.3 per cent Africans, 31.7 per cent of Asians, 68.6 per cent of Europeans, 84.9 per cent of North Americans, 67.5 per cent of Australians and 49.3 per cent of Latin Americans have access to the Internet. And the world average stands at 39.0 per cent. Asia has the largest number of Internet users and number of Internet users in India ranks third in the world (Internet World Stats, 2013 Q4). In its original form, the Internet looked very different from how it looks today. Rather than being a space where people could engage in social networking, date or surf the web, it was intended to be a tool via which data could be moved around more easily (Abela and Walker, 2013). A study of 222 children in Korea by Lee & Chae (2007: 640-644) investigated the effect of four parental mediation techniques. Evaluative mediation measured as parents recommendation of websites and co-use of the Internet were related to children's use of the Internet for educational purposes. Restrictive mediation,

such as time limits and website restrictions was not related to the type of Internet use by the young.

Lwin, Stanaland and Miyazak (2008: 205-217) emphasise that the online environment is potentially harmful to children of various ages, from preteens to older teens. Further, in a dismissive fashion, they reject any defense against this unsafe online environment. However, in their opinion this issue has received a significant attention in the popular press and from public policymakers; no academic research has examined how children react to proposed website safeguards, and how parental mediation strategies may moderate those reactions. In their findings they identified two quasi-experimental studies which find definite evidence that, although website safeguards can be useful in curtailing the children's willingness to disclose personal identifying information in an online environment, the effectiveness of those safeguards is moderated by the type of parental mediation experienced by the child. Online retailers, parents, and educators should take heed of the results not only as a reason for changing approaches to protecting children on the Internet, but as a potential method as well.

Whatever the negative effects of media on children, they can be mitigated, and perhaps even redirected to become positive changes, through positive interaction and dialogue in the home. Such parental mediation, as it is called, can take any of three general forms. Active mediation involves talking with children about the media. This mediation may be either positive (e.g., endorsement of content) or negative (e.g., criticism of content). It may be fully intended as mediation (strategic mediation) or thought of by those doing it only as incidental conversation (non-strategic mediation). Restrictive mediation involves setting rules and limits on media use or screen time, a strategy used by most parents, at least occasionally. This could come in the form of preventing viewing certain programs, websites, or disallowing media use outside certain allowed hours. In other families, it takes the form of limits on overall TV/Media viewing or screen time. The final form of parental mediation is co-viewing, that is, watching television/media content with children. Most scholars agree that co-viewing TV with young children is very helpful, though admittedly not always realistic, especially as the child grows older (Harris and Sanborn, 2013).

There exist differences in mediation practices among different countries. A study on parental mediation shows those parents from Northern European countries such as Norway, Sweden, Denmark, Finland and the Netherlands practice above average active mediation of use but below average restrictive mediation. Eastern European countries such as Lithuania, Estonia or Romania are characterized by below average active and restrictive mediation. Especially in Turkey, Austria, Italy and Belgium, parents do more restrictive mediation and less active mediation than the European average. High active and high restrictive mediation is characteristic of some Southern European countries (such as Portugal, Spain and Greece) and is also found in big European countries - France, Germany and the UK (Duerager and Livingstone, 2012).

While considering the development of the child vis-à-vis the concern of their development in the context of their ICT and Internet usage, we must look at the micro systems in which our children are growing. Johnson (2010) argues that the presence of digital technologies in children's immediate environments is increasing day by day and these environments are rooted in our homes, schools and communities. She further suggests the need for an ecological techno-micro system. The ecological techno-micro system situates the developing child in the context of Internet use in home, school, and community environments. In her empirical study, she finds that these techno elements are a part of our everyday use and reality. She notes down the concept of Ecological systems theory (Bronfenbrenner, 1977: 513-531) which was developed much before the arrival of the Internet, dealt with the then available technology i.e. Television, and situates it in the context of the modern technological tools and devices ordinarily found in our households. Her empirical findings suggest that as children's age and grade increased, Internet use tended to increase; correlation strength was strongest for school-based Internet use. Johnson (2010) further establishes that emotional development and physical development were not related to any type of Internet use in any context (i.e., home, school, or community). However, her findings also indicate that cognitive development as rated by teachers was found related to Internet use at home and exchanging emails and visiting websites at school. Findings were significant correlations between specific uses of the Internet

in specific contexts and specific measures of child development and thus support the theoretical utility of the ecological techno-micro system. The developmental consequences of Internet use varied as a function of elements of the micro system (e.g., home and school characteristics) and elements of the technology (e.g., instant messaging versus email).

Leung and Lee (2011: 1-21) examined how demographics, addiction symptoms, information literacy, parenting styles and Internet activities can predict 'Internet risks'. Data was gathered from a probability sample of 718 adolescents and teenagers, aged 9–19 in Hong Kong, using face-to-face interviews. Their results showed that adolescents who are often targets of harassment tend to be older boys with a high family income. They are targets probably because they spend a lot of time on social networking sites (SNSs) and prefer the online setting. With respect to parenting styles, the findings referred above provide strong bivariate support for the hypotheses which predicted that stricter rules, more involvement and more mediation exercised by parents would be linked to children and adolescents being less targeted for harassment, suffering less from privacy risks, and being less likely to be exposed to pornographic or violent content. The multivariate regression results indicate that strict parental rules, involvement, and mediation had no or few effects on suffering from harassment and privacy risks. This suggests that adolescents may or may not be the target of harassment and may be having private information solicited at home. They may be experiencing these risks in school or at friends' houses since the Internet is a ubiquitous medium. Therefore, even if parents have the strictest rules and mediation in the use of the Internet at home, adolescents may still be targets – neither parental supervision nor the use of filtering technology would decrease the solicitation risk. One interesting fact is that most teens today are often the household experts in computer use, which disrupted the parents' guiding role. Another sensitive concern most parents have is the easy access to pornographic and violent content online, which may present a tremendous negative impact on the psychological development of children and adolescents. Therefore, parents who exercise strict rules and provide guidance and mediation at home, generally reduce the seductive influence of pornography and violent content online.

Monitoring (tracking and surveillance) of children's behavior is considered an essential parenting skill. Numerous studies show that well-monitored youths are less involved in delinquency and other norm breaking behaviors, and scholars conclude that parents should track their children more carefully. Stattin and Kerr (2000: 1072-1085) point out that those monitoring measures typically assess parents' knowledge but not its source, and parents could get knowledge from their children's free disclosure of information as well as their own active surveillance efforts. In their study of 703 children aged 14 years in central Sweden and their parents, parental knowledge came mainly from child disclosure, and child disclosure was the source of knowledge that was the most closely linked to broad and narrow measures of delinquency (norm breaking and police contact). These results held for both children's and parents' reports, for both sexes, and were independent of whether the children were exhibiting problem behavior or not. They however, conclude that tracking and surveillance is not the best prescription for parental behavior and that a new prescription must rest on an understanding of the factors that determine child disclosure.

Clark (2011: 323-43) describes the theory of parental mediation, which has evolved to consider how parents utilise interpersonal communication to mitigate the negative effects that they believe communication media have on their children discussing the strengths and weaknesses of this theory as employed in the socio-psychologically rooted media effects literature as well as socio-cultural ethnographic research on family media uses concluding by suggesting that in addition to the strategies of active, restrictive, and co-viewing as parental mediation strategies, future research needs to consider the emergent strategy of participatory learning that involves parents and children interacting together with and through digital media.

In recent years, there has been increasing interest in the processes through which parents facilitate the development of their adolescent children. Jacobson and Crockett (2000) identify how parental monitoring ensures children's development and welfare. Through their empirical research, they support the association between parental monitoring and a variety of adjustment indicators such as grade point average, lower levels of adolescent depression, and lower levels of adolescent sexual activity and minor

delinquency. For example, higher levels of parental monitoring have been associated with lower levels of adolescent depression and lower levels of adolescent sexual activity and minor delinquencies. In their empirical study, they identify that bivariate correlations indicate that parental monitoring has strong associations with all indicators of adjustment for both boys and girls, with a rare exception of boys' depression (Jacobson and Crockett, 2000: 65-97).

Kimberly Young (1996: 237-244) writes that anecdotal reports indicate that some online users are becoming addicted to the Internet in much the same way as others became addicted to drugs or alcohol which resulted in academic, social, and occupational impairment. However, there is no unanimity among the sociologists, psychologists, or psychiatrists upon addressing and identifying the addictive use of the Internet as a problematic behavior. Her study investigated the existence of Internet addiction and the extent of problems caused by such potential misuse. Kimberly identifies 396 dependent Internet users (Dependents) and a control group of 100 non-dependent Internet users (Non Dependents) based upon the adapted version of the criteria for pathological gambling defined by the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders - Fourth Edition (DSM-IV; American Psychiatric Association, 1994); the qualitative analysis of this study suggests significant behavioral and functional differences in Internet usage between the two groups.

SUMMARY AND SUGGESTIONS

It is evident from the meta study, research and experiences that the young ones do need parental monitoring in some form in their ICT uses. The form and process of mediation may differ depending upon socio-cultural and demographics variations, but undoubtedly, it is the need of the hour. This is so, particularly because the young children are vulnerable to content coming on this largely 'ungoverned' digital space; and they most often fail to understand how this content may impact them psychologically, socially and even culturally. With increasing young users of new/digital media in India, parents have to realise that they have to exercise some sort of intervention as has been witnessed in many countries.

It is also required of parents that they remain honest and open in the conversations with their children about how cyber bullies attack others and why it's important that they (parents) stay involved to help them (young ones) in difficult situations. The parents should prevail upon children the need to monitor their mobile phones and social networking sites. The parents must assure their children that they are not interested in their personal information, rather they need to be there in case their children get caught in a difficult online situation that they don't know how to handle. The parents' first thought when it comes to monitoring social media might be: "Watching over my child's shoulder is prying into their personal life and is none of my business". Therefore, it must be noted that the parents while monitoring should not become a cyber stalker or a cell phone spy by going on their children's sites or by scrolling through their text messages without their knowledge. If they do so, they risk losing their children's trust in them, which could ruin their relationship forever. Instead, the parents should take the following measures to create awareness against online harassment and better utilisation of digital tools and services:

- Indian parents should constantly update/upgrade their knowledge and skills about information and communication technology and services. It has been found in several studies that parents' limitations in this field are the biggest impediment in effective monitoring of their children.
- Parents should set up a Google Alert for child's name and make sure to set the content filter to "strict" and include "all online searches".
- They should regularly and openly monitor all social media accounts until their children are mature enough to socialise online without supervision.
- They should see that their children obey the age limits that social networking sites have set for users.
- They should empower their children to Ignore/Block/Report.
- Parents must understand that online image protection, damage control, and proactive content monitoring are parental obligation and responsibility.
- Parents should be prepared to restrict mobile devices or Internet privileges when necessary.

- Parents should not be sneaky when monitoring – be straight and honest about what they are doing and how they are doing it.
- Parents should teach their children to have respect for other online users.
- Parents must advocate and attend school programmes that provide education and awareness about ICT uses and social media policies.

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Infant Mortality in Karnataka – An Overview

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Abstract

Infant Mortality Rate is one of the indicators of development of a nation. The rate of child death in a country reflects the health standards of people. Most of the developing countries of East Africa and Asia have the lowest HDI which reflect the high infant mortality rate. Similarly, India being a developing country has a higher IMR. However, IMR in India has declined from more than 50 per 1000 before 2005 to less than 50 in the recent years. However the IMR varies from state to state particularly southern states like Kerala, Tamil Nadu and Karnataka which have lower IMR which indicate a better standard of living. Karnataka state has 35 per 1000 births which is better than many states in the country. However, there are regional disparities in IMR particularly in the districts like Gulbarga, Raichur, Koppal, Bagalkot and Bidar which have higher IMR than the southern districts of Karnataka. This regional disparity is attributed to social, economic and religious issues. Despite the regional disparities, Karnataka has the lowest IMR next only to Kerala state illustrating comparatively better health profile of the population. In the last five years there has been a sharp decline in the Infant Mortality Rate.

Keywords: Infant mortality, development, health,

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INTRODUCTION

Infant Mortality Rate is one of the indicators of development. Most of the developing countries have high infant mortality rate. This high Infant Mortality Rate is due to several reasons like poverty, illiteracy, unemployment inadequate pre and postnatal care, etc. Mortality rates are better indicators

of health and healthcare in the communities. Infant mortality is considered as a very important indicator of health which reflects the standard of living of people in the community and socio-economic development of the country in general and effectiveness of maternal and child health services offered in particular. Infant Mortality Rate (IMR) is defined as the number of infants dying within one year in a sample of 1000 live births. In India, the IMR is declining rapidly over the years but not upto the expected targeted level. Inter state variations are predominant as clearly reflected in the Human Development Index. As per SRS study 2010, Infant Mortality Rate for the country as a whole stands at 47; while Goa stands the lowest with 10 and Madhya Pradesh stands highest at 62 meaning Goa has a better health profile of the population than Madhya Pradesh. As per annual report on the registration of births and deaths of 2010, the average IMR in Karnataka is 35 for every 1000 live births. In Karnataka the highest IMR is found in Raichur district with 67. (Table 1)

IMR IN KARNATAKA

Table 1 – Infant Mortality Indicators at District Level in Karnataka 2011

Sl.No.	Districts	IMR
1.	Udupi	11
2.	Bangalore	15
3.	Dakshina Kannada	19
4.	Hassan	20
5.	Chikmagalur	22
6.	Shimoga	24
7.	Uttara Kannada	25
8.	Mandya	26
9.	Bangalore Rural	27
10.	Ramanagaram	27
11.	Kodagu	29
12.	Bidar	31
13.	Bijapur	34
14.	Tumkur	34

15.	Chamarajanagar	34
16.	Kolar	34
17.	Chikkaballapura	34
18.	Dharwad	35
19.	Haveri	35
20.	Belgaum	37
21.	Davanagere	38
22.	Mysore	39
23.	Chitradurga	42
24.	Bagalkot	43
25.	Gulbarga	49
26.	Yadagir	49
27.	Gadag	50
28.	Bellary	55
29.	Koppal	58
30.	Raichur	67
Average	Karnataka	35

The decline in IMR has been steady from 2005 onwards. The biggest decline of 4 points occurred in 2008-2009. This is attributed largely to a considerable increase in the rate of institutional delivery in Karnataka. Neonatal Mortality Rate (NNMR) where infants dying in the first 28 days of child's birth and which constitute 65% of IMR is also on the decline. Now Karnataka has taken up the task of bringing down NNMR in a phased manner to effectively decrease IMR.

REGIONAL DISPARITY

The status of indicators as enumerated above is not uniform in all the regions of Karnataka. The indicators are very good comparable with those of Kerala state, in the coastal districts of Udupi, Dakshina Kannada, Karwar and Coorg. IMR in some of the districts like Bidar, Gulbarga, Yadgir, Raichur, Koppal, Bijapur and Bagalkot is quite high and comparable with those prevailing in the states of Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, Orissa and Madhya Pradesh. This regional disparity is obvious because in those districts where IMR is

very high, HDI index is very low compared with coastal districts of Karnataka.

The neonatal mortality is common in rural areas due to existing socio-economic conditions of maternal mothers. The causes and factors responsible for Infant Mortality are multi-factorial.

1. Causes for Neonatal Mortality (0-4 weeks)

- a. Low birth weight and pre-maturity
- b. Birth injury and difficult labour
- c. Sepsis
- d. Congenital anomalies
- e. Haemolytic diseases of newborn
- f. Conditions of placenta and cord
- g. Diarrhoeal diseases
- h. Acute respiratory infections

2. Causes for Post Neonatal Mortality (1-12 months)

- a. Diarrhoeal diseases
- b. Acute respiratory infections
- c. Other communicable diseases
- d. Malnutrition
- e. Congenital anomalies
- f. Accidents

Infant mortality is due to interaction of a combination of several factors. These may be due to biological, economic and social factors. This plays a major role in eliminating the IMR and health of maternal mothers particularly in rural area.

1. Biological factors

a. Birth weight

This is a major determinant of infant and prenatal mortality and morbidity. Babies with birth weight of less than 2.5 kgs and more than 4 kgs run a special risk of mortality. Low birth weight is often due to poor maternal nutrition which is again associated with poverty.

b. Age of the mother

Chances of infant death are more when mother is below 19 years and above 30 years .

c. **Birth order**

First births and more than third births run a higher risk of mortality.

d. **Birth spacing**

Repeated pregnancies pave way to infant mortality. They cause malnutrition, anaemia in the mother which again pre-dispose to low birth weight and infant death. Wider spacing of births curtails infant mortality.

e. **Multiple births**

Infants born in multiple births face a greater risk of death than those born in single births as they are born often with lower birth weights.

f. **Family size**

Infant mortality increases with family size. Children in bigger families are deprived of optimum maternal care and also run into infections, mal-nutrition, etc.

g. **High fertility**

High fertility and high infant mortality often go together.

2. **Economic factors**

The availability and quality of healthcare and the nature of child's environment are closely linked to socio-economic status. Infant mortalities are highest in slums and lowest in rich families.

3. **Cultural and Social factors**

a. **Breast feeding**

Infant health is related to breast feeding because of the nutritional content and anti-bodies contained in mother's milk. Bottle fed infants run more risk of infections than exclusively breast fed infants due to low level of immunity.

b. **Religion and caste**

Age old habits, customs, traditions related to health, eating, clothing, child care, attributable to religion and caste play important role in infant deaths.

c. **Early marriages**

Teenage mothers have highest risk of infant deaths.

d. **Sex of the child**

Female infant deaths are much more than male infant deaths due to negligence of female children in Indian custom.

e. **Quality of mothering**

Survival of the child depends on the quality of maternal care the child receives. A woman who has borne children earlier will be a better mother than a woman who delivered for the first time.

f. **Maternal education**

Illiteracy is the greatest barrier for health improvement. Well educated mothers have lesser infant deaths than uneducated mothers.

g. **Quality of health care**

Healthcare received by the mother during her ante-natal, natal and post-natal period determines the health of the infant. Home deliveries carry a higher risk of infant deaths.

h. **Broken families**

Infant mortality tends to be high where the mother or father is dead or separated.

i. **Illegitimacy**

Children born out of wedlock are unwanted by mother and society. Hence they do not receive sufficient care and are at risk.

j. **Beliefs and customs**

Age old customs and beliefs like depriving the baby of colostrums, frequent purgation, branding of the skin, application of cow-dung to umbilical cord, faulty feeding practices and early weaning result in infant deaths.

k. **Unsafe deliveries**

Deliveries conducted by traditional *dai* who is untrained and often uneducated may result in infant deaths due to sepsis.

l. **Poor environmental sanitation**

Infants are highly susceptible to unsanitary conditions. Lack of safe water supply, poor housing conditions, bad drainage, over-crowding, and mosquito menace may lead to infant mortality.

CAUSES FOR INFANT MORTALITY IN KARNATAKA

As per 2010 data the IMR in Karnataka is 35 for every 1000 births.

During 1951 the IMR in Karnataka was 160 per 1000 births and from 1981 onwards there has been a gradual decline in the IMR particularly after 2005 it has come down to less than 50 which is a good indication of improvement in child and maternal health. Government has initiated new programmes to arrest IMR in Karnataka. Leading reasons which are responsible for majority of infant deaths and are being addressed by National Rural Health Mission are as following;

1. Addressing neo-natal mortality

Neonatal deaths (occurring within first 28 days after birth) which constitute 65% of all infant deaths were not addressed in the state amply till 2009-10.

2. Lack of quality in institutional delivery

Institutional delivery aims at bringing down IMR (and MMR), because the presumption is that, in an institution if deliveries are conducted in an aseptic manner, by qualified, trained and experienced functionaries and complications are foreseen and addressed at the earliest, Infant death can be avoided.

But unfortunately these are not happening in the real sense. The definition of institutional delivery has narrowed down to conducting delivery within the four walls of a health facility which could be a government facility as sub centre, PHC, CHC, TLH or a District hospital, state level hospital or a private clinic, nursing home or hospital.

Consequently 24% infant deaths are occurring due to infections acquired in the labour theatres of health facilities by non-observance of aseptic techniques and 23% are occurring due to asphyxia. It is due to wrong techniques and lack of sufficient and quality training given to health functionaries.

3. Non-staying of mothers after delivery in health facilities

Though the state supports and subsidizes 94% institutional delivery, the gains of the institutional delivery are being nullified by the early discharge of mothers and newborns from the health facilities than the stipulated period.

4. Lack of quality care of newborn in home settings in the neonatal period

Good neonatal care is very essential to salvage 65% of infants after

their births. This will be available to them only as long as the babies are present in health facilities (for the first 48-72 hours). The next 25 days babies have to be cared for and fed in a home setting. Lack of sufficient care may lead to death of a neonate for simple reason as hypothermia, hypoglycaemia; milk aspiration, etc.

5. Nutritional levels in children are not improved

As brought out by NFHS, there is decline in the nutritional parameters over the years. As per NFHS-3, 41% of children (under 3 years) are underweight, 38% are stunted, and 17.9% are wasted. Severe Acute Malnutrition (SAM) contributes to 53% of the deaths in 0-5 years children. This is especially so when malnutrition is coupled with infections.

6. Inadequate immunisation

Infant deaths are occurring as a result of attacks of measles leading to post-measles complications such as bronchopneumonia, encephalitis etc., especially in northern districts where measles coverage of children is low compared to southern districts.

7. Diarrhoea

This continues to contribute to high infant deaths. This is compounded by the fact that zinc is not administered to children during treatment of diarrhoea along with ORS.

8. ARI (Acute Respiratory Infection)

ARI, especially pneumonia, causes sizeable number of deaths. Early diagnosis and proper and adequate treatment in a home setting or a facility setting needs to be instituted.

9. Lack of quality ANC services

This is leading to non-diagnosis of complications such as pre eclampsia, placenta – previa, etc., leading to infant deaths. Lack of iron and folic acid tablets (coupled with low acceptance by community) and insufficient treatment of anemia contribute to infant mortality.

10. Non-recognition of congenital malformations of the foetus

This during ANC period and lack of proper management is leading to sizeable number of infant deaths.

MEASURES TAKEN BY THE STATE TO PREVENT INFANT MORTALITY

The state has already implemented enough measures to address the problem of neonatal deaths beginning in 2009-10.

1. SNCU (Sick Newborn Care Unit)

Health department has been set up in all the district hospitals and major maternity hospitals under the control of Health and Family Welfare department. Three MBBS doctors and 12 staff nurses hired on contract under NRHM have been trained in neonatology for 3 months period and placed in SNCUs and adequate equipment have been provided. Presently there are 33 SNCUs operating.

2. NBSU (Newborn Stabilization Units)

This was started in all the FRUs of the state. Two contractual staff nurses have been provided in these facilities. Doctors and staff nurses are being trained in FBNCC. There are 200 NBSUs functioning presently.

3. NBCC (New Baby Care Corner)

Every 24x7 PHC conducting deliveries is equipped with new baby care comers to render basic primary level neonatal care in a PHC setting.

4. Upgrading NICUs in government medical colleges

This has been taken up to help impart treatment to sick neonates belonging to poor families. Indira Gandhi Institute of Child Health which is the apex institution for childcare under the government has been strengthened to take care of Tertiary care facilities.

5. HBNCC (Home Based Neonatal Care)

Training in neonatal care is being imparted to ASHAs and ANMs to help them care for the neonates in home setting. Both Gadchiroli model and Government of India model of neonatal care are adopted.

6. FBNCC

Facility based neonatal care training is being imparted to doctors and staff nurses of the state.

7. NSSK (Navajata Shisu Suraksha Karyakram)

Under this pediatricians of the department are being trained to treat and take care of sick neonates.

8. IMNCI (Integrated Management of Neonatal and Child Illness)

IMNCI has been scaled up in all districts of the state. ANMs, AWWs and medical officers have been trained under this.

9. Focusing on Universal immunisations

The state's performance in universal immunisation needs to be improved further. Coverage Evaluation Survey-2009 puts the percentage of FII (Fully Immunised Infant) at 78.4% which is not encouraging. Considering the year 2011 which was officially proclaimed by the state as "Year of immunisation" several measures as doing precise micro-planning to bring migrants under routine immunisation, taking help of medical colleges to improve monitoring and supportive supervision for routine-immunisation, etc. have been taken up. Also second dose of measles has been introduced in RI from 1-1-2011 to improve nutrition.

10. To improve Nutrition

- a. Nutritional Rehabilitation Centres have been started in all district hospitals.
- b. MNRCS (Modified Nutritional Rehabilitation Centres) have been started from 2011-12 in all the backward taluks of the state.

11. Infant death review

This was started in the state in 2010. This aims at finding out preventable causes for infant deaths so that preventive measures can be taken to arrest such infant deaths in future.

12. Infant and Young Child Feeding (IYCF)

Under this promotion of early breast feeding, exclusive breast feeding for six months and complimentary feeding to the infants are being focused.

MEASURES TO REDUCE IMR IN KARNATAKA

1. Strengthening SNCUs, NBSUs, NBCCs, NRCs, MNRCs and IYCF programme

Presently all the above are not operating to their optimum levels. Infrastructure must be strengthened, through human resources supplementation and adequate training. Monthly reports from all the above centres must be obtained and reviewed periodically.

2. Strengthening all infant health related trainings

Training has been a one-time phenomenon in the state. Hence periodic refresher training for all concerned should be taken up. There is a tendency among the officers and staff to take training as a non serious activity. To prevent this, pre-tests and post-tests are compulsorily to be held and the performance of the trainees in the training should become a part and parcel of his annual performance report and considered for his promotions, increment, etc. Also all training should be evaluated and feedback from evaluation incorporated in the training to improve the quality of training.

3. Birth spacing

Spacing of births and temporary method of Family Planning is not happening adequately in the state. Family planning is a major part limited to permanent methods of sterilisations.

4. Strengthening universal immunisation and increasing coverage for measles

Universal immunization proposed to attain at least 95% of FII (Fully Immunized Infant) coverage.

5. Emphasis on administration of Zinc along with ORS in cases of Diarrhoea needs to be focused

6. IEC activities to prevent consanguineous marriages

Such marriages lead to congenital deformities in the infants. Also adequate ultra sound scanning facilities should be provided so that congenital malformations can be diagnosed early and such foetus can be aborted through MTP (Medical Termination of Pregnancy).

7. Health Insurance (assurance) for infants

This is a new area which can be explored further. Presently RSBY imparts neonatal care to infants. Ways and means of including neonatal

surgeries under Vajpayee Arogyashri may be considered.

CONCLUSION

Karnataka is one of the developed states in India as per the HDI ranking is concerned. But in terms of IMR Karnataka ranks 12th in the country which requires accelerated improvement in pre and post-natal services. The NRHM has been effectively implemented in Karnataka, as a result of it the death of infants have been reduced considerably. Apart from this Rural Health programmes like Integrated Child Development Programme, *Thayi Bhagya*, *Madilu*, *Prasoothi Araike*, etc., also are contributing for better child health in Karnataka. If the existing health schemes are further strengthened the rate of Infant mortality will come down in future.

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Rural to Urban Labour Migration for Social and Economic Inclusion

MADHU G R
UMA H R

Abstract

Migration and urbanization are direct manifestations of the process of economic development, particularly in the contemporary phase of globalization. In recent years, several changes in India are likely to have impacted the pattern and pace of migration. The pattern of growth in the last two decades has steadily widened the gap between agriculture and non-agriculture and between rural and urban areas. A good number of studies have been done on the different dimensions of internal labour migration; some of the studies concentrate on dynamics of migratory flows and growth in a developing economy. This study aims to examine the socio economic status of the migrants from rural to urban areas during post migration period and to study the impact of urban migration on rural agriculture.

Keywords: Migration, Social Inclusion, Economic Inclusion, Rural and Urban Labour, Agriculture

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INTRODUCTION

Migration of persons within national borders is far greater in magnitude than migration across international borders and has enormous potential to contribute to economic prosperity, social cohesion and urban diversity. Internal migration is an essential and inevitable component of the economic and social life of the country. Given regional imbalances and labour shortages, safe migration should be promoted to maximize its benefits.

Migration and urbanisation are direct manifestations of the process of economic development, particularly in the contemporary phase of globalisation. Understanding the causes and consequences of the former in terms of the changes in the distribution of population and economic activities, along with the success and failures of the interventions by state and other organisations would be extremely important for evaluating the available policy options and exploring areas of possible strategic intervention. Internal migration not only involves much poorer segments, its impact on the economy as a whole, on sending and receiving regions, and on the migrants and their families are also arguably much more than international migrants.

Structurally, in the last two decades or so, capital has become hugely more mobile than earlier. The verdict on whether labour too has become more mobile is still not out, although many would argue that population and workers have also become somewhat more mobile than before, both nationally and internationally.

The constitution of India (Article 19) gives the Right to all citizens, “to move freely throughout the territory of India”. Internal migrants in India constitute a large population, “309 million internal migrants or 30 percent of the population (Census of India 2011), and by more recent estimates 326 million or 28.5 percent of the population (NSSO 2007-2008).

In recent years, several changes in India have impacted the pattern and pace of migration. The pattern of growth in the last two decades has steadily widened the gap between agriculture and non-agriculture and between rural and urban areas, and it has steadily concentrated in few areas and a few states. The growing spatial inequalities in economic opportunities must have necessarily also impacted the pace and pattern of migration. Uneven growth and a growing differential between agriculture and industry is a necessary concomitant of the pattern of development. Migration has historically played a role in reducing the gap in living standards between sectors and areas and in fuelling growth in the more dynamic sectors.

LITERATURE REVIEW

After reviewing the literature of internal labour migration, it is clear that a good number of studies have been done on the different dimensions of internal labour migration; some of the studies concentrate on dynamics

of migratory flows and growth in a developing economy.(Manon Domingues, Dos Santo Thiser), the push and pull factors which influence workers' inter-state migration (Kumar and Sidhu 2005), Internal Migration and Development: A Global Perspective (Deshingkar and Grimm 2005), Internal Migration and Youth in India: Main Features, Trends and Emerging Challenges(Rajan 2013), International Migration and the Integration of Labor Markets (Chiswick 2002) and Migration and Exclusionary Urbanization in India (Amitabh Kundu, Lopamudra Ray Saraswati ,2012) many studies are done on intra district, inter district and interstate but hardly any study is done on rural to urban migration with respect to the villages in Hassan district, Karnataka. This study concentrates on rural to urban labour migration for socio-economic inclusion and is one of the original studies to bridge the research gap in this area of study.

OBJECTIVES

- * To examine the socio economic status of the migrants from rural to urban areas during post migration period;
- * To study the impact of urban migration on rural agriculture;

METHOD OF STUDY

This paper is based on both secondary and primary data. Primary data is collected from 200 households using survey method with scheduled questionnaire in one village closely located to urban area in Hassan district. SPSS package was used for data analysis. Paired T test method was used to analyse wage differences before and after labourers shift to urban area. Excel is used for tabulation and construction of Chart. Garret’s ranking technique is used to rank the reasons for urbanisation effect on farmers and changing cropping pattern.

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

It has been observed that the most productive manual labour of the rural population that is youth is getting attracted towards urban life. This has made a big negative impact on agricultural productivity. But on the other hand, urban migration enhances the social and economic status of the migrants says this study.

Table -1 Education

Education	f	Percentage
Illiterate	30	15
High school	83	41.5
P.U.C	35	17.5
Technical education	31	15.5
Under graduation	21	11.5
Total	200	100

Table 1 illustrates the educational level of the respondents. Education plays a crucial role in determining the formal and nonfarm sector employment of the job seekers. Compared to other groups, technically educated are getting good jobs in formal sector. Among the migrants, highest position has been taken by those with high school education (41.5%) followed by secondary education with 17.5%. Both these levels are the turning points for these people because, initially they discontinue their education and work in agriculture but later, due to many push and pull factors, shift to non-farm urban sector to earn higher wages for their work.

Table -2 Gender

Sex	f	Percent
Female	35	17.5
Male	165	82.5
Total	200	100.0

Table 2 shows the gender wise distribution of migrant labourers in this study area. It clearly shows that men are more mobile than women. When men shift their work to urban areas, automatically women take care of the agricultural activity. It shows the gender discriminatory trend in urban migration and it is predominantly male dominated. More males than females migrate for better jobs from rural to urban areas.

Table - 3 Age

Age	f	Percentage
21-30	110	55
31-40	62	31
41-50	27	13.5
51-60	1	0.5
Total	200	100

Table -3 shows age wise distribution profile of the migrant labourers. It clearly shows that younger population of 21-30 and 31-40 age groups are more mobile than 41-50 and 51-60 age groups. Young people in the family seek jobs in the urban areas for stable and higher income, in which time parents and other members of the family take care of agricultural activities. Mobility from rural to urban areas for jobs in nonfarm sector is more among males who are young between the age of 21-40 years than middle aged and old people.

Table - 4 Caste

Caste	f	Percentage
2A	7	3.5
3A	153	76.5
CAT - 1	3	1.5
SC	37	18.5
Total	200	100

Table- 4 shows the caste wise (categories as defined by state government) job seekers in the study area. Of all the caste categories, 3A has the highest density of population and the same trend follows in the job seeking also. Category- I has lower density of population in this study area which is reflected in job seeking behaviors also. Compared to other three categories, SC has lower socio economic status and they are more mobile than others mainly because they have no permanent settlement of property to stick on to.

Table - 5 Marital Status

Marital status	f	Percentage
Married	114	57
Unmarried	86	43
Total	200	100

Table 5 shows the marital status of migrant job seekers. Data reveals that married are more mobile than unmarried ones. Married migrants seek jobs in highly paid urban areas for supporting and improving the living standard of the family.

Table - 6 Paired Sample T Test

Before and After migration	Paired Differences					
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error mean	T	df	Sig. (2tailed)
	-4724.000	3848.517	272.131	-17.359	199	.000

Table - 6 shows the paired sample test for income difference of the before and after migration of the farmers and agriculture labourers to the urban non-farm sector for higher wages and regular employment. Here the test clearly shows significant difference in the income after changing their work. Here the t value (17.359 > 2.626) is greater than the table value and it clearly shows the significant difference in income. This positively has an impact on economic status of the migrant labourers. Improvement of economic status directly or indirectly has an impact on socio- economic inclusion of the migrants.

Table -7 Garrett Ranking Table for Reason to Leave Agriculture

Reasons	Score	Rank
Unstable income	12879	I
Environmental reasons	11069	II
Loss in agriculture	10498	III
Higher input cost	8547	IV
Over dependency	7925	V
Labour problem	6348	VII

Above Garrett ranking table-7 shows the reasons for small and medium farmers partially leaving the agriculture activity and depending on the non-farm sector for higher income in urban area. Here unstable income in agriculture activity takes first place for leaving the agriculture. Environmental reasons follow the unstable income. Environmental reasons include heavy rain, crop diseases, drought etc. Poor transport, marketing system and lower prices for agricultural produce in harvesting season form the third reason justifying migration for jobs. Higher input costs like higher cost for hybrid seeds, fertilizers, insecticides and technology are placed in forth position in the hierarchy of reasons for migration from agriculture to nonfarm sector. Over dependency on agriculture land and labour problems in agriculture activities are the two other reasons that induce the small and medium farmers to prefer urban jobs over agriculture.

Table - 8 Garrett Ranking
Reason for Migrating to Urban Area

Reasons	Score	Rank
Stable income	12282	I
Improvement of infrastructure	11945	II
Irregular work in village	9252	III
Weekly/monthly income availability	8827	IV
Higher income	7111	V

Table-8, Garret ranking table, shows the reasons cited by migrants for preferring to work in urban areas instead of agriculture. Stable income stands first in the Garret ranking table and obviously it is the unstable income in the agriculture sector that induces them to work in urban area. The second reason for seeking jobs in non-farm sector is attributed to improvement in roads, communication, and transportation. Seasonal employment in agriculture is the third reason while continuous and timely payment in the nonfarm sector jobs is the other reason for migration. Interestingly higher income when compared to agriculture sector is the next reason for seeking employment in urban non-farm sector.

FINDINGS AND CONCLUSION

Changes in recent decades have impacted migrant labour markets and migration, but many of these have not yet been studied in detail. There has been a significant improvement in road infrastructure and telecommunications, reducing the real costs of transport and communication. This has led to improved information flow, potentially reducing information asymmetries and isolation for the migrants, and a reduction both in the cost of migration and in the speed at which migrants can move from their native place to urban destination. Improved infrastructure and reduced transport costs have also made daily commutation to work (sometimes over several hundred kilometers) a viable option to migration.

The migration of agriculture labourers and small farmers in the village seeking jobs in the urban area is having positive impact on their socio economic status. They are shifting to urban areas without leaving the agriculture sector completely as improved cropping methods have made agriculture more flexible than ever before. It has helped them indirectly solve the problem of disguised employment which is highly prevalent in agriculture sector. These male workers assign the agriculture activity to the wife, parents and other members of the family and continue to retain urban-rural connectivity. This trend on one hand helps migrants to not only work in urban areas but also helps them to avoid the risk and problems of agriculture. Thus rural to urban labour migration positively influences the economic status of the migrant workers in urban area. Income from agriculture and urban nonfarm sources has positive impact on socio economic status of the migrants.

Migration to urban area for work has positive effect on small farmers and agricultural labourers. Without leaving the agriculture activity completely, rural labourers are working in the urban area for some of above stated reasons leading to a hike in agriculture productivity and improvement in the socio-economic status of the migrant workers. This has led to the inclusion of migrant labourers who are excluded from the socio-economic mainstream.

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Tibetans in Karnataka: An Empirical Study

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Abstract

Tibetans have been living in India for more than five decades after the Chinese occupation of their homeland in the year 1959. Since then, they have taken refuge in all parts of the world with most of them resettled here in India. The socio-economic study of such refugee community has its own importance. Societal factors like, total number of students in school, provision of Primary Healthcare Services and welfare oriented facilities like provision of Old Age Home facilities for needy elderly people has been dealt in this present study. This study has relied on secondary data collected from Bylakuppe and Mundgod Tibetan Settlements in Karnataka. Hypothesis have been tested using Independent Samples 't' test and ANOVA test.

Keywords: Exiled Communities, Rehabilitation, Resettlement, Primary Healthcare Services, Tibetan Refugees

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INTRODUCTION

Soon after the forceful crackdown of the peaceful uprising of Tibet began in March 1959, Dalai Lama, spiritual guru of Tibetans and thousands of his followers fled Tibet- their homeland – to seek refuge in India. There are over a thousand Tibetan exiles scattered throughout the world, but most are concentrated in Tibetan refugee settlements located in India, Nepal and Bhutan. The influx of refugees to India continues even today. With the exile

of the Dalai Lama, the Government of Tibet was established on 29 April 1959 in the north India hill station of Musoorie and presently headquartered at Dharamshala. At the behest of Dalai Lama, the Tibetan Government was reformed into a democratic system, on September 2nd 1960 and renamed as the Central Tibetan Administration (CTA). CTA is the legitimate representative body of the Tibetans and is governed by a legal framework called the Charter of the Tibetans in Exile, which is guided by the principles of the universal declaration of Human Rights. The Charter provides clear institutional and procedural frameworks of the three vital organs of the CTA viz Tibetan Supreme Justice Commission, Assembly of Tibetans Deputies and the *Kashag*. Right from its inception, CTA has set itself the twin task of rehabilitation and development of Tibetans in exile and restoration of freedom in Tibet.

Profile of the study area, *Lugsum Samdupling Tibetan Settlement, Bylakuppe and Doeduling Tibetan Settlement, Mundgod Lugsum Samdupling Tibetan Settlement, Bylakuppe*

Resettlement and rehabilitation programs of the exiled communities in India are an outcome of the discussions held between Dalai Lama and the first Prime Minister of independent India, Jawaharlal Nehru. The Government of India promised to provide all assistance to Tibetan refugees to settle down in India. The Central government sent letters to all the Chief Ministers of State to provide available land to establish refugee camps for Tibetans. Then Mysore Government was the first to support government's venture and offered to provide huge areas of land for Tibetans refugees for agriculture to make the refugees self reliant. The first refugee's settlement was setup in Bylakuppe in early 1960s and the area known as *Lugsum Samdupling* (Bylakuppe Settlement) became the role model for the establishment of other refuge settlements in different states of India.

Lugsum Samdupling Tibetan Settlement is the first Tibetan settlement in India situated in Bylakuppe village in Periyapatna Taluk, Karnataka state. It was established in 1960 with the help of Indian Government for initial refugee population of 3000 settlers. Later, the assistance from foreign funding agencies helped the development of settlement by establishing basic amenities and facilities. This settlement is also one of the biggest Tibetan refugee

settlements in India and the total area of the settlement is 1299 hectares of land. The settlement consists of 7 villages or camps scattered at different locations with average of 30 families in each camp. The distance between each settlement is about 4 to 6 Km. The settlement that had initial population of 3000 has increased to 10921 refugees.

Mundgod Tibetan Settlement

Mundgod Tibetan Settlement is one of the settlements that was proposed by Central Tibetan Administration in early 1960's to the Government of India. Government of India in consultation with the state Government of Karnataka agreed to provide 1618.7 hectares of land of mostly forestland near *Mundgod* Taluk in North Karnataka. *Mundgod Doeguling* Tibetan settlement was established in 1966. Gradually the refugees have been provided with resources and financial assistance by the government and international organizations to lead life with peace and dignity.

Socio Demographic and Economic Profile of Tibetans in Karnataka

Social Conditions

After forceful occupation of Tibet by Chinese in 1959, Tibetans have fled Tibet and are living in exile in different parts of India. Despite being refugees living away from their motherland, Tibetans have successfully retained their cultural identity and have made enormous efforts in preserving their unique Tibetan culture, religion, heritage and national identity. The rehabilitation of refugees assumed importance resulting in the establishment of different cultural and educational institutions. Although the Tibetan culture faces a threat in Tibet, it survives in exile. In India, the Tibetan refugees are able to voice their grief to the world at the international level on different platforms. The hard work, dedication and struggle in preserving their identity and culture along with the respect for the local Indian culture has made the Tibetan refugees one of the most peaceful settlers in the world.

The camps or settlements in Karnataka have schools, community primary healthcare unit, Old Age Homes for needy and Buddhist monasteries. In schools children are taught in Tibetan medium till elementary level and thereafter in both Tibetan and English besides children are also taught Hindi

at High School level facilitating children to learn language of the adopted land. Student's enrollment into higher education in colleges and universities is still low owing to economic conditions. High cost of education along with uncertainty in getting jobs on par with Indian youth are their main concerns.

Economic Conditions

Economically, Tibetans in Karnataka largely depend on agriculture as the primary source of livelihood. Along with this, they are engaged in seasonal woolen garment marketing selling sweaters in different parts of India. Some are engaged in different vocations like restaurants, carpet weaving, tailoring, teaching and *thangka* painting. Tibetans in Karnataka have made optimum use of their refugee status through sheer hard work, entrepreneurship but are restrained in expanding their business owing to refugee status and lack of Indian citizenship. Though there is provision to get Indian citizenship, CTA is not in favour of Tibetans obtaining citizenship and want its refugees to retain its identity despite the fact that Tibetan refugees in the west have taken citizenship of host countries including Tibetans in Bhutan. However, in India Tibetans do not want to exercise their citizenship rights.

The overall economic conditions of Tibetan refugees in Karnataka have improved greatly in the recent period due to the support from Indian government along with special generosity from Government of Karnataka as well as the Central Tibetan Administration. It is also an outcome of the hard work and the effort of Tibetans themselves in improving their standard of living specially the first Tibetan generation who laid the firm foundation of the community setup under the leadership of Dalai Lama.

LITERATURE REVIEW

In the review of related studies one of the studies on the adaptation process of refugee communities namely, *Panjabis*, *Tibetans* and *Bengalis* in India it is opined that the process of sociological processes of adaptation are responsible for the success or failure of refugee communities in India (Awasthi 1988). The study on "the legal conditions of the refugees in India" (Chimni 1994) reveals that there were over 400,000 refugees in India in 1992 from eight countries. Tibetan Refugees are the second largest refugee group after Sri Lankan Tamils with over 100,000 Tibetans settled in India.

This group of refugees also comes under the International law of Non-refoulement principle. Even though Tibetans advocate for genuine autonomy under Chinese rule, the very presence of Dalai Lama and his followers have become the political issues between Indo-China relationships. It is also observed that Tibetans are given special treatment than other refugee communities in India due to China factor. Tibetans are provided with agricultural land on lease for their resettlement besides the privileges like free education up to higher secondary by the government of India. The study shows that Tibetans are legally registered refugees with freedom to move freely throughout India and free to engage in various economic activities for their livelihood. The study opines that all refugees in India should be given equal treatment under the International law.

The study on the 'Educational Issues Facing Tibetans Today' has found that the education policy framed by the Department of Education for the education of refugees born in exile has successfully produced more number of graduates in refugee communities in India (Mather Adriana 2004). It has also helped those who have fled Tibet in search of better life and education. Nevertheless, educational issues and problems do persist for Tibetan students in exile. The major one being youth unemployment which could be the result of proper guidance and lack of skill orientation programmes.

The exploratory study, "Analyzing Educational Attainments and Occupational outcomes of Tibetans Refugees living in India" (Palkyi Tenzin 2011) has examined the correlation between the educational attainments and nature of jobs among the fifth generation of Tibetans in exile. It simultaneously focuses on the role of gender in education. This study is based on secondary data collected from Tibetan children's village school located in Dharamsala, the headquarters of Tibetans in India. The study has taken a sample of 323 school children, which were the alumni of the same school. The findings of the study reveals that gender plays an important role in determining the higher educational attainment and nature of job one may undertake. Boys have higher and better job prospects than girls in exiled communities. Nevertheless now the scenario of exiled education has changed, with increase in female refugees.

One of the significant studies, "Tibetans in Karnataka" (Pulman 1981) throws insight into the history of Tibetan resettlements and rehabilitation

using observation method. *Doeguling* settlement in *Mundgod* and *Lugsung Samdubling* settlement in Bylakuppe are the focus of this study. The key findings of the study was that there are minor differences in terms of livelihood and economic activities undertaken by settlers. Tibetans have proved to be a successful resettled community and will hold the same scenario in future considering the suitable indicators in settlements, says the study. The study points out that unlike other Tibetan settlements in India, settlements in Karnataka are officially under "Protected area" where in special entry and stay permit is required to be obtained from the Home Minister, Government of India specially for foreigners to visit the refugee camps for a short stay.

The study, "the Problem with Rich Refugees' Sponsorship, Capital, and the Informal Economy of Tibetan Refugees" (Prost Audrey 2006) endeavors to identify the relationship between refugee and the donors from the west. The sponsorship has extended the relationship between donors and recipients consequently influencing the refugees to become more conscious of Buddhist religion and the inevitability of retaining Tibetan culture. The relationship between the receiver and donors are not just on the economic front, but can be seen in cementing interpersonal relationship. The liberal economic funding by the west has also influenced the monasteries. Findings indicate that, majority of the population of Dharamsala, the headquarters of spiritual leader Dalai Lama, are the beneficiaries of foreign funding. Tibetan exile community largely depends on informal influx of financial support from the west for the administration, community welfare and expansion of academic and professional activities.

The study, "Socio-Economic life of the Tibetan Refugees: A study in Darjeeling and Sikkim region" (Roy Amal) examines the socio economic factors influencing the people in exile. Refugees from Tibet in Darjeeling and Sikkim whose profession is garment enterprise, carpet weaving and hospitality business are very well settled says the study as many of second and third generation Tibetans have availed assistance from Indian government and many have taken Indian citizenship. According to this study by Roy, these communities are successful in producing well-educated young people who are placed in various government and private sectors. Their social relation with the local people is mostly peaceful and harmonious. However, there is discontentment among locals on the account of economic prosperity of

Tibetans who are hard working, skilful and enjoy agricultural land and other privileges on account of refugee status. The study poses a question whether these well settled Tibetans in India will ever be willing to go back to Tibet if they are granted independence or autonomy by China illustrating the dilemma the refugees have despite their wellbeing.

Many studies have endorsed the fact that Tibetans have maintained their unique identity by establishing their own educational and religious institutions to preserve Tibetan culture (Shariful 2013). It was found that Tibetans have preserved and maintained their unique identity by setting up their own schools and temples. Economically most of the refugees are self employed and have demonstrated their entrepreneurship says the study "Socio-Political and Economic conditions of Tibetan Refugees in India: A case study of Maznu Ka Tila" on Tibetan settlements in Delhi (Ibid).

The study on poverty of Tibetans in India (Sherap 2011) focused on how the poverty is identified under the Central Tibetan Administration's (CTA) policy and program. The study points out that poverty identification by CTA are erroneous. Such errors are classified into Type - I or F-mistake and Type-II or E-mistake poverty identification errors. Type -I error means false identification of real poor people. Type-II means excessive coverage where non-poor has been included under poverty coverage. The study underlines the need for thorough poverty identification among Tibetans in exile to make welfare programmes more meaningful.

A perceptual study about the feelings of "Home" by three generations of Tibetans in two Tibetan settlements viz. *Lugsum Samdupling* (LS) and Tibetan *Dickyi Larsoe* (TDL) in Bylakuppa makes interesting revelations. The study reveals that there is perceptual difference of "home" among refugees (Tarodi 2011). Old home always meant Tibet for older generation whereas middle generation settlers have mixed perceptions about the feelings of "home". Some say "home" is Bylakuppa- the refugee camp, while others view it as "second home". Younger generation also feels that India is their home land as they are born in exile and have never visited Tibet and therefore perceive Tibet as "home away from home". All the refugees feel that India has been a great host for Tibetans and they will always remember their "second home" with the view of returning to Tibet in future.

OBJECTIVES

- To evaluate the student enrolment into Central Schools for Tibetans in Bylakuppe and *Mundgod* refugee settlements;
- To assess Primary Healthcare Services provided to Tibetan settlements in Bylakuppe and *Mundgod* refugee settlements;
- To study welfare support provided for needy Tibetans under Old Age Home in refugee camps;

HYPOTHESIS

- H₁ There is significant difference in total number of students in three different CST Schools in Karnataka.
- H₂ There is significant difference when it comes to availing Primary Healthcare Services in Bylakuppe and *Mundgod*.
- H₃ There is significant difference in number of Old Age inmates at Old Age Home in Bylakuppe and *Mundgod*.

METHODOLOGY

The study is an exploratory research of secondary data analysis which is considered as a systematic research method. Secondary data is a type of quantitative data collected by government and private organizations. Secondary data analysis method was found appropriate to conduct a study of this nature. This study required secondary data from schools, health departments, hospitals and community centres which have statistics about enrollment of students and socio economic factors, healthcare services and welfare programmes pertaining to Tibetan refugees. Hypothesis was formed in this exploratory method of research. Secondary data analysis is a flexible approach and can be utilized in several ways, it is also an empirical exercise with procedural and evaluative steps, just as there are in collecting and evaluating primary data (Doolan & Froelicher, 2009).

The Secondary data for this study has been collected from three different sources. Data was collected for the period of six years from 2009-2014:

- Student's enrolment related data was collected from their respective Central Schools for Tibetans at Bylakuppe and *Mundgod*.
- Data related to Primary Healthcare Services has been collected from

Tso-Jhe Khangsar Hospital, Bylakuppe and DRT Hospital at *Mundgod*.

- Data related to Old Age people was collected from Old Age Home offices at Bylakuppe and *Mundgod*.

ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

Data was analyzed using ANOVA test and Independent sample t test.

Table 1- Result of ANOVA Test for differences in the total number of students in three selected schools

Total Number of Students	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig
Between Groups	1036884.111	2	518442.056	244.045	.000
Within Groups	31865.500	15	2124.367		
Total	1068749.611	17			

Source: Secondary data and SPSS output of ANOVA

Table 2- Post Hoc Analysis: Scheffe Test of Significant- Multiple Comparisons

Different School	(J)Different School	Mean Difference(I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95%Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
CST Bylakuppe(Main)	CST CVP	254.00000*	26.61057	.000	181.7846	326.2154
	CST <i>Mundgod</i>	-332.16667*	26.61057	.000	-404.3821	-259.9513
CST CVP, Bylakuppe	CST Bylakuppe	-254.00000*	26.61057	.000	-326.2154	-181.7846
	CST <i>Mundgod</i>	-586.16667*	26.61057	.000	-658.3821	-513.9513
CST <i>Mundgod</i>	CST Bylakuppe	332.16667*	26.61057	.000	259.9513	404.3821
	CST CVP	586.16667*	26.61057	.000	513.9513	658.3821

Source: Secondary data and SPSS output for Post hoc test

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

The result of ANOVA test for differences in the total number of students in three selected Central Schools for Tibetan children in Karnataka is found to be significant at 5% which implies that there is significant difference in the total number of students in each respective school. The estimated f ratio is 244.045 which is significant at 0.05 level. The df (degree of freedom) between the group is 2 with the mean square of 518442.056 and with df 15

the mean square is 2124.367 for within the group. The value of sum of squares is much higher between the groups with 1036884.111 and within the group it is 31865.500.

Post Hoc test is used to measure the difference in the mean value of each group with the mean value of other group. For example, between CST Bylakuppe (Main) and CST CVP there is significant difference in the total number of students with 254.00000* implying that CST Bylakuppe (Main) has more number of students in comparison with CST CVP. When compared between CST Bylakuppe (Main) with CST *Mundgod*, it has lesser number of students by -332.16667.

Next in comparison CST CVP, Bylakuppe and CST Bylakuppe (Main), CST CVP has lesser number of students with -254.00000. And between CST CVP, Bylakuppe and CST *Mundgod*, it has lesser number of students with the mean difference of -586.16667 implying CST CVP has lesser number of students in total.

In comparison of CST *Mundgod* with CST Bylakuppe, CST *Mundgod* has more number of students in schools with the mean difference of 332.16667 and in comparison with CST CVP, again it has a more number of students with the mean difference of 586.16667. From the above three comparisons in terms of total number of students, CST *Mundgod* has the maximum number of students followed by CST Bylakuppe (Main) with lowest number of total students in CST CVP. All the mean difference revealed that the test is found to be significant at 0.05 level thereby rejecting the null hypothesis of no difference in total number of students in three selected schools.

Table 3 Independent Sample ‘t’ test result for the number of Immunizations recorded in Primary Healthcare Centre at Bylakuppe and *Mundgod*

Group Statistics

	Hospital	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Immunization	<i>Tso-Jhe Khangsar</i> Hospital Bylakuppe	6	258.0000	66.52819	27.16002
	DTR Hospital <i>Mundgod</i>	6	464.8333	98.69431	40.29178

Source: Secondary data and SPSS output of Independent Sample t test

Table 4 - Independent Sample t test for Immunization recorded at Tso-Jhe Khangsar Hospital, Bylakuppe & DTR Hospital, Mundgod

Levene's Test for Equality of Variances

Immunization	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	T	df	Sig (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper
Equal variance assumed	.256	.624	-4.257	10	.002	-206.83333	48.59109	-315.10104	-98.56563
Equal variance not assumed			-4.257	8.766	.002	-206.83333	48.59109	-317.20241	-96.46426

Source: Secondary data and SPSS output of Levene's test for equality of variances

Independent sample t test was applied to test the difference in Immunization recorded at Tso-Jhe Khangsar Hospital, Bylakuppe and DTR Hospital, Mundgod. The mean difference of Immunization recorded at Tso-Jhe Khangsar Hospital, Bylakuppe is 258.0000 with Standard Deviation of 66.52819. Whereas the mean number of Immunization recorded at DTR Hospital at Mundgod is 464.333 and standard deviation of 98.69431. From the above result, it can be noted that mean number of Immunization recorded is higher at DTR Hospital Mundgod in comparison with Tso-Jhe Khangsar Hospital at Bylakuppe.

The result of the test shows that there is significant difference in number of Immunization recorded between the two hospitals. The df is 10 with the mean difference of -206.83333 thus implying that DTR Hospital has higher number of Immunization recorded when compared with Tso-Jhe Khangsar Hospital at Bylakuppe. Since, the mean difference is high between the hospitals and 't' statistic is significant Null hypothesis of no difference can be rejected.

Table 5- Independent Sample 't' test for Number of Old Age people at Bylakupee and Mundgod

Group Statistics

	Old Age Home	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Old Age People	Mundgod	6	115.67	8.524	3.480
	Bylakuppe	6	46.00	4.980	2.033

Source: Secondary data and SPSS output of Independent Sample t test

Table 6- Independent Sample t test for Old Age people at Old Age Home Bylakuppe & Mundgod

Levene's test for Equality of Variances

Old Age People	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	T	df	Sig (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper
Equal variance assumed	1.711	.220	17.285	10	.000	69.667	4.030	60.686	78.647
Equal variance not assumed			17.285	8.057	.000	69.667	4.030	60.384	78.949

Source: Secondary data and SPSS output of Levene's Test for Equality of Variances

Independent samples 't' test has been employed to find out the difference in number of Old Age people at Old Age Home, Bylakuppe and Old Age Home, Mundgod. The mean number of Old Age people recorded at Bylakuppe is 46.00 with Standard Deviation of 4.980. Whereas the mean number of Old Age people at Mundgod is 115.67 and standard deviation of 8.524. From the above result, it can be noted that mean number of Old Age people is higher at Old Age Home, Mundgod in comparison with Old Age Home at Bylakuppe.

The result of the test shows that there is significant difference in number of Old Age people between the two Old Age Homes. The df is 10 with 't' value 0.220 which is significance level of 1% level. Thereby, null hypothesis of no difference can be rejected.

CONCLUSION

This study dealt with the total number of students in three respective Central Schools for Tibetans at Bylakuppe and *Mundgod* in Karnataka; Healthcare Services provided at *Tso-Jhe Khangsar* Hospital at Bylakuppe and DTR Hospital at *Mundgod* in terms of Immunization recorded and the welfare provided to needy elderly people at Bylakuppe and *Mundgod* Old Age Home. It was found out that there exists significant difference in terms of all three parameters of the study, depicting differences among the selected Tibetan Settlements in Karnataka.

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Point of View

Longing to Belong: Social Inclusion of Youth on the Margins of Society

NANJUNDA

Abstract

It is reported that in India, the youth population of 18 to 30 years represents 48.1% of the total population of the country. Also it is found that among all the youth, 51.3% are economically active while the remaining 49.4% are economically inactive i.e. are outside the labor market, and almost a quarter (24.2%) of the youth population is neither studying nor working. In addition, opportunities for young people to access suitable work are inadequate because of their education, lack of skill, divergent career and by the disparity between the training offered and the experience required by the current labour market of the country. Youth from marginalized sections are facing numerous issues and problems for social inclusion. It is high time researchers, stakeholders and policy-makers discuss the possibility of inclusive policies and avenues for youth.

Keywords: Social inclusion, Marginalised, Empower, Human Rights

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BACKGROUND

In the 1995 Programme of Action of the World Summit for Social Development approaches, an inclusive society was defined as a "society for all in which every individual, each with rights and responsibilities, has an active role to play". Social inclusion, 'is the process of improving the terms for individuals and groups to take part in society (UN chapter). Social inclusion aims to empower poor and marginalised people to take advantage of burgeoning global opportunities. It ensures that people have a voice in decisions which influence their lives and that they enjoy equal access to

markets, services and political, social and physical spaces' (World Bank). On other hand youths may also be constituted as a vital segment in case of poor and marginalised sections. Experts felt science and technology with novelty and creativity normally contributes to social inclusion by creating knowledge that links various societies and further strengthens the existing social structure. Also it is a useful way of making sure that social inclusiveness and appealing groups, particularly the youth, can contribute in various ways.

Youth from the marginalized sections are fatalities of plentiful and diverse human rights contravention. This is the time to go beyond anti-discrimination designed to prevent unequal treatment of young people and to get prospect of minority young people for prospect and better and speedy inclusion in the society. Effectual human rights education gives knowledge about human rights and the mechanisms that defend them; however it also procures the skills wanted to endorse, protect and apply human rights in daily life. Human rights education also creates the attitudes and behaviors desirable to support individual rights for all sections of the society. The aim of any new policy must be to augment youth knowledge. This creates consciousness about social exclusion, its causes and remedies and cross cultural interactions in youth of minority by initiating tangible behavior bringing optimistic community modification into the local circumstance. Geographical and cultural specific policy may serve the purpose.

Recently Indian Prime Minister Narendra Modi, in his Independence Day speech(2015) emphasized the 'Make in India' concept. The Finance Minister Arun Jaitley in his budget speech (2014) had announced a Rs.12,000(INR) crore startup fund for entrepreneurship development. India has definitely seen a lot of progress since the LPG era, creating a lot of job opportunities and benefits to its citizens and youth are benefiting from this. Improvement and development in several areas have helped in economic growth helping youth to get more employment. There are still many belonging to the general populace, community or group who are yet to feel and experience the benefits of growth and development happening around them.

SOCIAL INCLUSION INITIATIVES

a. Societal Engagement and Involvement

Youth can effectively contribute to civic engagement and involvement

by providing mass leadership, decision-making, community entrepreneurship, morality, commitment, volunteerism, sports, media etc. This will help in containing aggression, hostility, conflict and individual differences affecting youth in the society.

b. Skills Improvement

Developing required skills, experiences and competencies among youth is a main factor in empowering young people to turn out to be independent, to create safe transitions to adulthood stage and to slot in as appreciated social actors. It requires suitable learning environment that prepares youth with necessary competencies to go through various major life transitions. It also reduces unemployment issues, in the society. This can be very important in order to eradicate discrimination and poverty, and to endorse inclusive growth. Prime Minister Modi's idea about skilled Indians would be a very good move in this direction. To deal with unemployment or lack of social inclusion at all levels - international, national and regional and include all relevant stakeholders, requires a high level of skill training programme at the earliest.

c. Cross Cultural Understanding

The major aim of intercultural or cross cultural understanding is to build an appropriate perspective of various approaches and practices, to augment contribution and the liberty and capability to make choices, to promote parity and to improve original and novel approaches among young people in the country. It is also a good platform for rapid social inclusion of the youth from marginalized and minority sectors.

d. Management of Human differences and Peace

It is necessary to have more appropriate approaches to endorse a culture of peace, tolerance amongst young people to keep them away from anti social activities like terrorism, drugs and alcoholism, crime, religious and caste issue, son of soil theory, violence, gender discrimination, human trafficking etc. They can also play vital role in the community management for maintaining peace and harmony in the society. Besides, they can make significant contribution to the field of human rights as well.

e. Social Networking and Social Media

Today new media technology such as social media (facebook, twitter

etc) has become part and parcel of life for a lot of young people. It has provided platform for the youth to express their opinion and connect with the community. Networking is the mantra of youth in the era of information and youth have accepted and recognized the new channels of communication.

F. Youth and Inclusive Development

It is time to have some deliberate policies to reduce inequalities, discrimination and promote inclusive growth focusing youth. This includes among others, addressing disparities in gender, youth, and quality and relevant education, improving the investment climate; and encouraging the private sector for providing public and private partnerships.

This calls for finding out and analysing the issues which endorse or dishearten social inclusion of young people in a multi cultural society like India. The discriminatory attitudes towards young people, needs to be critically examined and focused on the 'problem' of adults rather than the 'problem' of young people themselves

It is generally believed that NGOs and civil society play a mediating role between government and young people as the latter's potential has been pushed to the periphery and relegated their aspirations to the background. It is generally believed that civil society can support the inclusion of unemployed youth by speeding up their various engagements in public or political movements and public consciousness and by speedy delivery of youth welfare programmes.

Finally it is learnt that high rate of youth unemployment and unrest across the country continues to be gradually increasing. The planned discourse process has given youth the opportunity to stress key issues of social inclusion, such as age, prejudice based issue, skilled occupation, and inclusive education, as essential approaches for youth to take their equitable space in society.

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Democracy and Indexing Press Freedom

N.USHA RANI

Abstract

World media are either liberal or conservative struggling to model themselves on western philosophy of liberalism. Under the circumstances, the world events and media are judged from the perspective of 'free press' and accordingly dimensions and indicators have been evolved to judge the degree of freedom exercised by the press of any nation and rank them globally. Press is ranked on the basis of political rights and civil liberties enjoyed by the citizens in democracies and totalitarian countries. The two prominent agencies internationally involved in indexing media to measure its performance on a annual basis are Freedom House and Reporters Without Borders. The 2015 Report that provides numeral ratings to the global press reveals that press freedom around the world has declined. This paper endeavours to study the ratings Indian press received in post liberalization in terms of political, legal and economic dimensions.

Keywords: Democracy, Press Freedom, Net Freedom, Freedom House, Reporters without Borders

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Political philosophy has influenced the functioning of media. Different political ideologies recognized all over the world like Democracy, Totalitarianism, Authoritarianism, Monarchy and Theocracy have influenced media to evolve its own philosophy consisting of social and political thoughts. Media cannot function in a vacuum as it has to define its functioning on a set of beliefs about social, economic, political and cultural dimensions. Democratic philosophy has been categorized into liberal democracy and social democracy professing different shades of democratic beliefs. Liberal democracy

propounds individualism, freedom, equality and justice whereas social democracy which is born out of socio democratic movement advocates democracy based on socialism and communism instead of capitalism. The press in US has been built on the political ideology of liberal democracy which is both a political and an economic philosophy as well. Indian press has accepted social democratic norms on the lines of country's belief in democratic socialism. India's political philosophy reflects social democracy and India is a Sovereign, Socialist, Secular and Democratic Republic with the inclusion of 'secular' and 'socialist' concepts under 42nd amendment to the Indian constitution in 1976.

The press in India is social democratic professing justice, liberty, equality and fraternity as opposed to individualism of the liberal press of the west. Liberalism promotes competitive market whereas social democracy believes in providing level playing field through subsidies and incentives to socially and economically marginalized sections of the society. Marxism that influenced social change in Europe has been disowned by the press owing to its utopian ideas and theory of media control and regulated press. Media that opposed western liberalism has found shelter under Neo marxism for its flexibility and its tradition of critical theoris on culture, gender and politics. Neo marxism has widened the scope of intellectual debates on politics and media and has paved way for the emergence of new schools of thought raising fundamental issues about propaganda model in the garb of western liberal press or capitalist model in the garb of socialist press in democracies.

Throughout the history of human civilization, fight for liberty has been paramount in the political conflicts in all cultures right from the days of Magna Carta which in 13th century advocated rule by the people, rights and basic liberties of the people. History has witnessed the fight of John Locke who propounded life, liberty and property as natural rights of citizens in 17th century through his liberal philosophy. Freedom to express dissent is the hall mark of democratic principles.

In the modern days the fight to establish democratic norms has seen the decline of other political philosophies to the extent that Francis Fukuyama says, '...democracy has come to suggest the triumph of west, western values and western liberal democracy.....universalization of western liberal democracy as the final form of human government' (Fukuyama, 1992).

Noam Chomsky calls modern American liberal media as propagandist to the core with his '5 classes of Filters in society' theory that resulted in global debate on , 'anti-communism' as the 'national religion' (Chomsky 1988) espoused by western governments and media. New schools of thought has intellectuals like Fukuyama who speculates that the 'enormously productive and dynamic economic world created by advancing technology has a tremendous homogenising power', illustrating the creation of homogenous media all in the guise of liberalism. Media and politics has been central to the philosophy of media 'as media are agents of political communication' (Habermas 1991). Media as 'Public sphere' as against 'bourgeois public sphere' (Ibid) is a vital concept in understanding the role of media practising liberal philosophy. The critical theory of public sphere argues, 'world of mass media is cheap and powerful....it attempts to manipulate and create a public where none exists, and to manufacture consensus' (Ibid) throwing insight into private people modelling media on capitalist economy and espousing pseudo social democratic traditions.

World media are either liberal or conservative struggling to model themselves on western philosophy of liberalism. Under the circumstances, the world events and media are judged from the perspective of 'free press' and accordingly dimensions and indicators have been evolved to judge the degree of freedom exercised by the press of any nation and rank them globally. Press is ranked on the basis of political rights and civil liberties enjoyed by the citizens in democracies and totalitarian regimes.

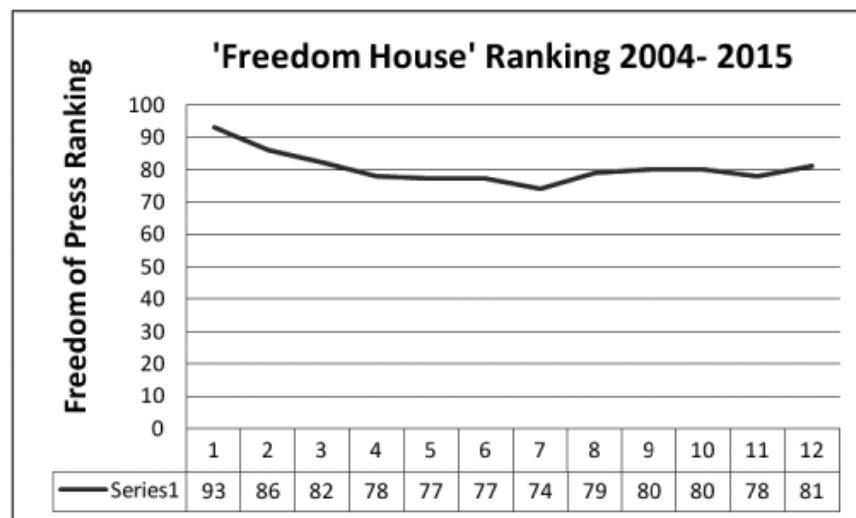
The two prominent agencies internationally involved in indexing media to measure its performance on a annual basis are Freedom House and Reporters Without Borders.

ANALYSIS OF PRESS FREEDOM BY ‘FREEDOM HOUSE’

Table 1 - Global Ranking of Press Freedom in India by Freedom House and Reporters Without Borders – 2004 to 2015

Year	Press Freedom Ranking			
	Freedom House		Reporters Without Borders	
	Press Freedom Index	No. of Countries	World Press Freedom Index	No. of Countries
2004	93	193	120	167
2005	86	194	106	167
2006	82	194	105	168
2007	78	195	120	169
2008	77	195	118	173
2009	77	195	105	175
2010	74	196	122	178
2011	79	196	131	179
2012	80	197	140	179
2013	80	197	140	180
2014	78	197	136	180
2015	81	195	133	180
Average	80	195	123	174

Graph 1 Freedom House Press Rankings of India



The 2015 Report of Freedom House that provides numeral ratings to the global press reveals that press freedom around the world has declined. The deterioration is attributed to the market driven press dominated by private media enjoying the support of political party, government or business interests. Further, harsh laws, violence against journalists and rise in terrorism have aggravated the status of press freedom. Ironically, the threat to press freedom is increasing in a world where there is more access and reach to information through advanced communication technology. Interestingly, the threat to independent journalism is more seen in countries that practice democracy. An analysis of Freedom of the Press in the world shows that between 1989 to 2016, on an average 36.08 percent of countries have ‘Free Press’, 29.62 percent have ‘Partly Free Press’ including India and ‘No Freedom of the Press’ in 34.24 percent of countries.

Press ranking of Tunisia, the North African country, assumes importance as it is one of those countries where democratic movement in Arab land originated in December 2010 and engulfed the Arab world and the movement came to be called ‘Arab Spring’. Tunisia that brought down dictator regime became the land for Arab revolution and its ranking in press freedom shows that it has improved its position in 2015 and was ranked 96 out of 199 countries. In 2015 Tunisia’s freedom rating was 2.0 on a scale of 1-7 where 1=best and 7=worst illustrating the good rating. Further political rights and civil liberties received a rating of 1 and 3 respectively on a scale of 1-7 showing phenomenal improvement in the freedom profile of the country that just a few years ago ended dictator regimes and established democratically elected government. The top 10 ranks in the world for practising independent journalism in 2015 goes to west European democracies Norway, Sweden, Belgium, Finland, Netherlands, Denmark, Luxembourg, Andorra, Switzerland and Liechtenstein practising Free Press.

The country report about India by Freedom House (Table 1) (Graph 1) done on 3-pronged strategy consisting of legal, political and economic environment shows that the press freedom has declined in the last decade between 2004-2015. Independent journalism has declined to an average of 80th rank among 199 countries showing press in poor light. The Indian press secured least rank in 10 years in 2010 (74th) and consistently hovers around 80th rank on an average among 195 countries. India’s rank in 2008-09 (77th), 2014 (78th), 2011 (79th), 2012-13 (80th), 2015 (81st), 2006 (82nd), 2005 (86th)

and 2004 (93rd) shows downward trend in post liberalization period.

India, the world’s largest democracy is categorized as Partly Free country on the basis of its political philosophy and has scored 2.5 freedom rating, 3 for civil liberties and 2 for political rights on a scale of 1-7 where 1=best and 7=worst (2015). An analysis of India’s ratings between 1972-2015 shows that the ratings pertaining to freedom (Table 2), political rights and civil liberties has not changed except during 1975 - 77 and 1991- 1997. It was in 1970s that India declared internal emergency for 21 months during 1975-77 when political and press freedom stood suspended against internal political threats under the leadership of then Prime Minister Indira Gandhi. India witnessed worst political and economic crisis between 1990-1997 owing to rise in terrorism, violence in Kashmir where over 90,000 Kashmiri Hindus fled owing to worst terrorism India ever witnessed in the valley. During 1990s India witnessed many political scams showing a negative profile in international arena. Obviously, the freedom ratings of the country dropped during 1970s and 1990s reflecting the political and economic crisis correlating the findings of international agencies monitoring press freedom.

Table 2 Freedom Ratings of India between 1972-2015 by the Freedom House

Rating scale 1-7: Best=1 Worst=7

Year	PR	CL	Status	Year	PR	CL	Status	Year	PR	CL	Status
1972	2	3	F	1988	2	3	F	2004	2	3	F
1973	2	3	F	1989	2	3	F	2005	2	3	F
1974	2	3	F	1990	2	3	F	2006	2	3	F
1975	2	5	PF	1991	3	4	PF	2007	2	3	F
1976	3	5	PF	1992	3	4	PF	2008	2	3	F
1977	2	2	F	1993	4	4	PF	2009	2	3	F
1978	2	2	F	1994	4	4	PF	2010	2	3	F
1979	2	2	F	1995	4	4	PF	2011	2	3	F
1980	2	3	F	1996	2	4	PF	2012	2	3	F
1981	2	3	F	1997	2	4	PF	2013	2	3	F
1982	2	3	F	1998	2	3	F	2014	2	3	F
1983	2	3	F	1999	2	3	F	2015	2	3	F
1984	2	3	F	2000	2	3	F				
1985	2	3	F	2001	2	3	F				
1986	2	3	F	2002	2	3	F				
1987	2	3	F	2003	2	3	F				

PR: Political Rights, CL: Civil Liberties, F: Free, PF: Partly Free

Source: Freedom in the World Country Ratings (2015)

Table 3 - Analysis of Freedom of the Press in India between 2002-2015

Year	Press Freedom Score 0=Best 100= worst	Legal Environment 0=Best 30=Worst	Political Environment 0=Best 40= worst	Economic Environment 0=Best 30= worst	Status
2002	42	15	16	11	Partly Free
2003	45	13	20	12	Partly Free
2004	41	11	17	13	Partly Free
2005	38	10	17	11	Partly Free
2006	37	10	16	11	Partly Free
2007	35	9	16	10	Partly Free
2008	35	10	16	9	Partly Free
2009	36	10	17	9	Partly Free
2010	33	9	15	9	Partly Free
2011	35	9	17	9	Partly Free
2012	37	9	19	9	Partly Free
2013	38	10	19	9	Partly Free
2014	39	10	20	9	Partly Free
2015	40	11	20	9	Partly Free
Mean	37.92	10.42	17.5	10	

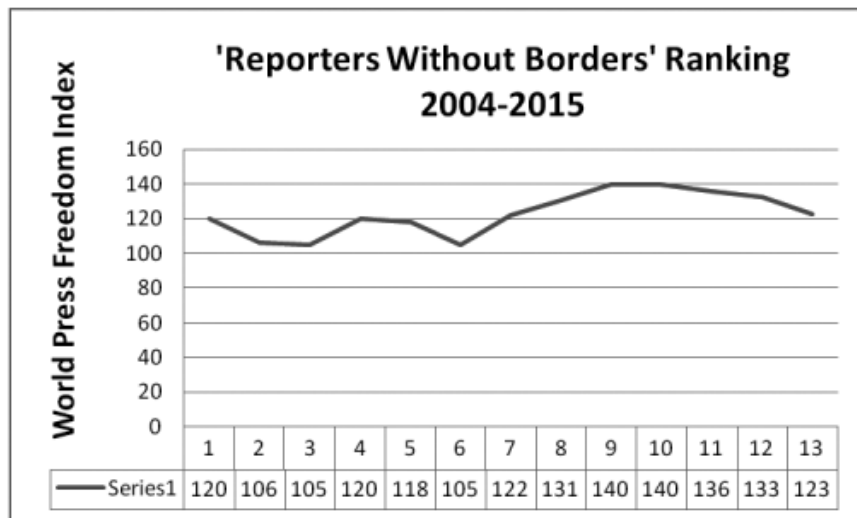
Source : Freedom House

World’s largest democracy has guaranteed Freedom of Speech and Expression under Article 19 (1)(a) of the Indian constitution. Successive judicial pronouncements by the Apex courts of India have interpreted this Article to encompass freedom of the press and accordingly the Indian press has the right to freedom of speech and expression on par with any citizen of India. The Indian press is not a nationalist press but an independent and vibrant press which is critical of government, political leaders and administration. However, according to the global rankings monitored by international agency, Freedom House, freedom profile of Indian press is not impressive. It is classified globally as a ‘Partly Free Press’ and not a ‘Free Press’ unlike the press in Western Europe and USA. The analysis of its Press Freedom Scores between 2002 -2015 (Table 3) shows that India has been consistently scoring between 33-41 points categorized as Partly Free

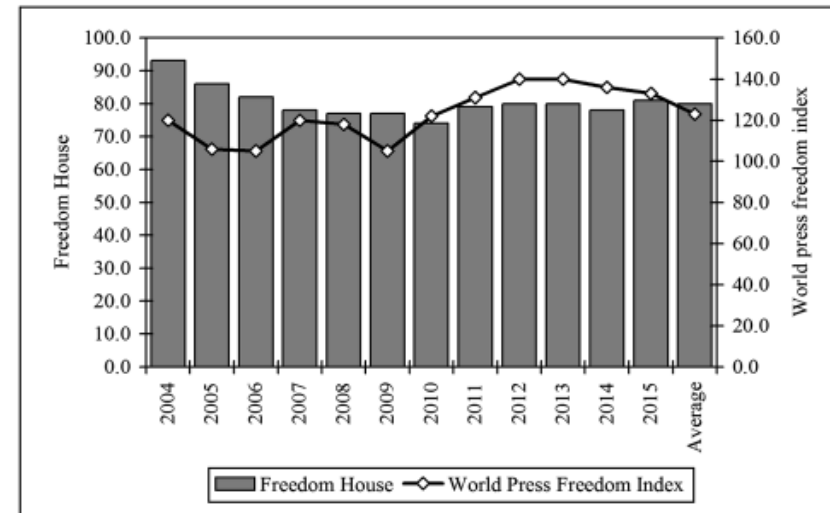
(Partly Free scores 31-60) press with an average of 37.92 score between 2002-2015 and few notches below the Free Press category (scores 0-30). The 3 categories used for Freedom Scores consists of Category –I Free Press (0-30 scores), Category –II Partly Free Press (31-60 scores) and Category III Press Not Free (61-100). Indian press is ‘Partly Free’ owing to the factors like anti press regulations, arrest of journalists, violence against press, political interference and non participation by the public. Freedom House has taken Legal, Political and Economic Environment as the 3 major dimensions in evaluating the degree of freedom exercised by the Indian press. Of the 3 dimensions, India scores good rating both in Economic (Average score 10) and Legal (Average score 10.42) dimensions but scores less in political environment (Average score 17.5).

ANALYSIS OF PRESS FREEDOM BY ‘REPORTERS WITHOUT BORDERS’

Graph 2 Press Rankings of India by ‘Reporters Without Borders’



Graph 3: Global Ranking of Press Freedom in India by Freedom House and Reporters Without Borders – 2004 to 2015 (correlation, $r = -0.1676$, $p = 0.6026$)



Correlative test about the ranking by the two agencies shows that there is no significant correlation ($r = 0.1676$, $p > 0.05$) at 5% level of significance. Therefore, the ranking of press freedom in India by Freedom House and Reporters without Borders has no significant relations and both the rankings are independent of each other. It shows that the press freedom index varies from one agency to another. The international agency that annually prepares the World Press Freedom Index says that ‘it is indicative of a climate of fear and tension combined with increasing control over newsrooms by government and private sector interests’ (2016). Analyzing the media in 180 countries mainly focussing on violation of press freedom and violence against journalists, the 2016 report states that violence against journalists is found highest in North Africa/Middle East (50.8%), followed by Eastern Europe/ Central Asia (48.4%) and Asia (43.8%). Europe continues to have free media with north European countries like Finland, Netherlands and Norway occupying top 3 ranks with free press of highest order. Interestingly Finland has held the No.1 position since 2010. The interesting country is Tunisia, the place where the first revolt against authoritarian regime began culminating in historic ‘Arab Spring’. Tunisia lead the Arab world in press freedom by moving up to 96th rank among 180 countries from its 164th

rank in 2011 and moving up to 133rd and 126th ranks in previous years illustrating the emergence of media inclusiveness.

India's ranking of press freedom has seen decline in the last decade between 2004-2015. The quality of freedom presents a low profile with unimpressive ranking. It also reflects the present crisis of Indian press.

RATINGS OF CHINA AND RUSSIA BY ‘FREEDOM HOUSE’

The one single factor that has influenced global press ratings is the democratic philosophy. Therefore, the dimensions as well as indicators are based on fundamental elements and tenets of liberal and modern philosophy. The rise of democratic forces has gradually influenced the fall of non-democratic philosophies and schools of thought. The global freedom index measures the status of media freedom from the perspective of political philosophy and obviously China despite rated as an economic superpower gets low and worst ranking in independent journalism. The global rating of freedom in China has been consistently negative between 1998 -2016 (Table 4). During this period, China though became a global gaint its freedom ratings fell and was given worst ranking in the world. China’s Freedom Rating of 6.5, Civil Liberties rating of 6 and Political Rights rating of 7 on a scale of 1-7 with 1=Best and 7=Worst with status as ‘Not Free’ and a global rank of 186 out of 199 countries has been dismal.

Comparatively, Russia which emerged as an independent state after the collapse of former Soviet Union in 1991 witnessed war, internal political turmoil and hostile relationship with members of federation. Comparitively, Russia, with an unstable political environment gets better rating than China between 1998-2016. Russia’s Freedom Rating (Table 4) of 6.0, Civil Liberties rating of 6 and Political Rights rating of 6 on a scale of 1-7 with 1=Best and 7=Worst with status as ‘Not Free’ and a global rank of 181 out of 199 countries has been poor. However, Russia’s ratings hovered beteen 5 - 5.5 during 2001-2014 and it was 4.5 in 1999. These ratings denote that politcal rights and civil liberties in Russia were comparatively better in 2000 decade than in 2015-16 where its ratings were low. Despite this Russia surprisingly has never been rated worst (7) like China. Interestingly Russia was rated ‘Partly Free’ as far as its press is concerned during 1999-2004 and was given the status of ‘Not Free’ for the period 2005-2016. Whereas China

was declared ‘Not Free’ in 1999-2016 with no presence of any shade of freedom in general and press freedom in particular.

Table 4 Freedom Ratings of China & Russia between 1999-2016 by the Freedom House

Rating scale 1-7 : Best=1 Worst=7

Year	Civil Liberties		Political Rights		Freedom Rating		Status	
	China	Russia	China	Russia	China	Russia	China	Russia
1999	6	5	7	4	6.5	4.5	Not Free	Partly Free
2001	6	5	7	5	6.5	5.0	Not Free	Partly Free
2002	6	5	7	5	6.5	5.0	Not Free	Partly Free
2003	6	5	7	5	6.5	5.0	Not Free	Partly Free
2004	6	5	7	5	6.5	5.0	Not Free	Partly Free
2005	6	5	7	6	6.5	5.5	Not Free	Not Free
2006	6	5	7	6	6.5	5.5	Not Free	Not Free
2007	6	5	7	6	6.5	5.5	Not Free	Not Free
2008	6	5	7	6	6.5	5.5	Not Free	Not Free
2009	6	5	7	6	6.5	5.5	Not Free	Not Free
2010	6	5	7	6	6.5	5.5	Not Free	Not Free
2011	6	5	7	6	6.5	5.5	Not Free	Not Free
2012	6	5	7	6	6.5	5.5	Not Free	Not Free
2013	6	5	7	6	6.5	5.5	Not Free	Not Free
2014	6	5	7	6	6.5	5.5	Not Free	Not Free
2015	6	6	7	6	6.5	6.0	Not Free	Not Free
2016	6	6	7	6	6.5	6.0	Not Free	Not Free

PR: Political Rights, **CL:** Civil Liberties, **F:** Free, **PF:** Partly Free

Source: Freedom in the World Country Ratings (2015)

Table 5 Comparative Analysis of Freedom of the Press between
China & Russia-2002 to 2016

Year	Press Freedom Score 0=Best 100= worst		Legal Environment 0=Best 30=Worst		Political Environment 0=Best 40= worst		Economic Environment 0=Best 30= worst		Press Freedom Status	
	China	Russia	China	Russia	China	Russia	China	Russia	China	Russia
2002	80	60	26	13	31	30	23	17	Not Free	Partly Free
2003	80	66	26	14	34	30	20	22	Not Free	Not Free
2004	80	67	27	14	32	30	21	23	Not Free	Not Free
2005	82	68	27	14	33	31	22	23	Not Free	Not Free
2006	83	72	27	16	34	32	22	24	Not Free	Not Free
2007	84	75	28	18	34	33	22	24	Not Free	Not Free
2008	84	78	28	21	35	33	21	24	Not Free	Not Free
2009	85	80	28	23	35	33	22	24	Not Free	Not Free
2010	84	81	28	24	34	33	22	24	Not Free	Not Free
2011	85	81	29	24	34	33	22	24	Not Free	Not Free
2012	85	80	29	24	34	32	22	24	Not Free	Not Free
2013	83	81	29	25	32	32	22	24	Not Free	Not Free
2014	84	81	29	25	33	32	22	24	Not Free	Not Free
2015	86	83	30	25	34	34	22	24	Not Free	Not Free
2016	87	83	30	25	35	34	22	24	Not Free	Not Free
	83.46	75.73	28.06	20.33	33.6	32.13	21.8	23.26		

Media in both Russia and China are nationalist to the core and have the history of suppressing the voice of independent press. Obviously, the rating of press freedom shows a negative profile of media. Comparatively, Russian press seems to be less draconian in the early 2000 than China. But by and large there is total absence of independent journalism in both the countries says the ratings report conducted by Freedom House (2016). In Freedom score Russian average (75.73) is better than China's (83.46) and in legal environment, Russia (20.33) is better than China (28.06) denoting collapse of legal support to media in China. The worst ratings of political environment are attributed to the political philosophy of communism in both China (33.6) and Russia (32.13). Press in both the countries have been declared 'Not Free' except in 2002 where Russian press gets the tag of 'Partly Free'.

ANALYSIS OF FREEDOM ON THE NET IN INDIA BY 'FREEDOM HOUSE'

India is the third largest Internet user with 350 million subscribers next only to the United States and China. India's Internet penetration has reached 24 % as on March 2015. Mobile penetration has increased tremendously with India having over 1 billion mobile subscribers (TRAI) and 60 percent on mobile Internet continues which to increase reaching over 200 million. The greatest drawback of Internet in India is its speed which is less than global average consequently affecting the quality of broadband service. However, global reports termed the Internet and mobile tariff as lowest in the world and affordable by the common people. Despite progress made in telecommunications, India still lags behind in providing adequate infrastructure including electricity posing a stumbling block in increasing access to its services. Internet in rural areas is very low and only the state of Kerala has Internet cafes in 97 percent of villages but rest of India have an average of 10-17 percent of Internet cafes in villages. Though computer facility in schools and colleges has improved over the years with over 20 percent access, they lag behind in providing Internet to the students. The campaign of Digital India aims to connect grassroots governance institutions like *Panchayat Raj* to provide better connectivity to rural India. This is an ambitious programme of the government to increase Internet access in rural areas.

Free access to Internet connectivity has raised the issue of privacy, abuse, unrest and others in India. The apex court has scrapped the section 66A of the IT Act in 2015 which had led to public protest against arrest and harassment of innocent citizens for acts in social media by the police. Digital activism in democracy has received an impetus with the participation of large number of net users in the campaign to protect net neutrality.

The Gujarat unrest in August 2015 by the prosperous Patel community led by a young radical leader Hardik Patel demanding reservation in government jobs led to the blocking of mobile messaging and Internet in Gujarat. Mobile Internet messaging was blocked by the government on August 27, 2015 citing breach of peace after riots turned violent as the leaders of community spearheading the agitation resorted to organizing over 300,000 people using the mobile messaging network WhatsApp affecting over 63

million users. Gujarat government again banned mobile Internet services following the arrest of the leader of agitating community, Hardik Patel on September 20, 2015 to curb rumors across the state and control law and order.

Gujarat has a history of banning Internet in the past when in 2014, mobile Internet was banned following heavy rioting following the circulation of morphed images of famous Muslim shrine by the criminal elements to incite violence. There were frequent instances of blocking of Mobile Internet services in Gujarat in the months of February and April 2016 following continued agitation for caste reservation by the Patel community.

Table 6: Comparative Analysis of Freedom on the Net between India & USA in 2011-2015

Year	Total Score 0=Best 100=Worst		Obstacles to Access 0 = Best 25 = Worst		Limits on Content 0 = Best 35=Worst		Violations of User Rights 0 = Best 40=Worst		Status PF= Partly Free F = Free NF = Not Free		Internet Penetration 2015	
	India	USA	India	USA	India	USA	India	USA	India	USA	India	USA
2015	40	19	12	3	10	2	18	14	PF	F	18%	87%
2014	42	19	13	4	10	2	19	13	PF	F	15%	84%
2013	47	17	15	4	12	1	20	12	PF	F	13%	81%
2012	39	12	13	4	9	1	17	7	PF	F	10%	78%
2011	36	13	12	4	8	2	16	7	PF	F	5%	78%

Freedom on the net illustrates that in India there is dramatic increase in the Internet users in the last decade but its performance has remained negative in global ranking. According to reports, India comparatively has created more obstacles to access and has imposed more limits on content than USA whereas both the democracies have violated user rights to some extent with marginal differences. USA scores over India in creating better access without obstacles and freedom in content creation than India. (Report 2015)

CONCLUSION

Freedom, of course, is intangible and difficult to measure (Veenhoven 2000). Measuring Freedom of the press is complex and non-linear. Most of

the agencies involved in evaluating freedom of press have based their assessment on Civil Liberties from Freedom House and Fraser Index that is comprehensive enough to cover important dimensions of press freedom namely, press killings, freedom of speech, laws and regulations that influence media content, political pressures and controls on media content (Fraser). Increased violence and public frustration against press and the emergence of new media as tools of free expression has put the spotlight back on the mass media as one of the crucial indicators in the determination of freedom of a country. Debate continues about the best way to strengthen the performance of the mass media for the public interest (McQuail, 2009). Many agencies including United Nations have developed indicators to measure freedom of the press. However, the lifeline of the measuring scale is the freedom as perceived by the west. In the process are we propounding the cause of USA that claims to be the champion of freedom where paradoxically the press is capitalist to the core? There is need to improvise the perception of press freedom from world perspective combining the political philosophy of the East including Gandhism and the west.

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