BSW-122 Society, Social Institutions and **Social Problems**

Block



SOCIAL PROBLEMS AND SERVICES

UNIT 1

Introduction to Social Problems

UNIT 2

Contemporary Social Problems-I

UNIT 3

Contemporary Social Problems-II

Unit 4

Social Defence



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BLOCK INTRODUCTION

This is the fourth block of the course 'Society, Social Institutions and Social Problems'. This block on, 'Social Problems and Services' has four units. A social worker often works in problem-afflicted areas or with problem-afflicted people. They may try to resolve the problem individually i.e., by helping individuals to overcome the problem by themselves. For example, the social worker may encourage a drug addict to go for rehabilitation. A social worker may also tackle the problem at the community level. Some of the strategies can be influencing government policy, persuading the bureaucracy to take necessary action, conduct awareness campaigns etc. Whatever may be the strategy, the social worker should have greater awareness about the dimensions and the causative factors of social problems.

The first unit 'Introduction to Social Problems' introduces you to the concept of social problems and how different ideologies identify the causative factors which cause social problems and suggest different solutions to solve them. The second unit 'Cotemporary Social Problems-I' explains the dimensions and causative factors of social problems such as HIV/AIDS, migration and displacement, environmental degradation, communalism, youth unrest and corruption. 'Contemporary Social Problems-II 'deals with another set of social problems like suicide, substance abuse, adult crime, juvenile delinquency and problems of disadvantaged sections like minorities, backward classes and women. The last unit 'Social Defence' introduces you to the concept and practice of social defence. The Institute of Social Defence is the apex institution dealing with social defence. Hence, its programmes and activities are discussed in detail in this unit.



UNIT 1

INTRODUCTION TO SOCIAL PROBLEM

*Ashis

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- 1.0 Objectives
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- 1.3 Characteristics of Social Problems
- 1.4 Social Problems in Indian Context
- 1.5 Types of Social Problems
- 1.6 Systemic Factors Leading of Social Problems
- 1.7 Approaches to the Study of Social problems
- 1.8 Societal Response to Social Problems
- 1.9 Let Us Sum Up
- 1.10 Key Words
- 1.11 Suggested Readings
- 1.12 Answers to Check Your Progress

1.0 **OBJECTIVES**

The objectives of this unit are to develop a framework for understanding the social problems by defining the concept and the different causative and systematic factors which lead to social problems. An attempt has also been made to outline the approaches to study the social problems. After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Understand and define the concept of social problems;
- Elucidate characteristics and types of social problems
- Discuss the social and causative factors leading to social problems;
- Describe the different approaches to study social problems; and
- Explain the societal response to social problems.

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Certain adverse situations that may have harmful consequences may affect societies. They may hinder the normal functioning of the society. Such harmful situations are known as social problems. These problems arise because every society has certain norms and values. When these norms and values are violated, they result in social problems. They are problems because such deviation of norms and values are dysfunctional in the society. Some of the

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examples of social problems are drug addiction, terrorism, youth unrest, juvenile delinquency, corruption, offences against women, environmental degradation, etc.

However, not all violations of social norms and values result in social problems. For example, when a person sports an unusual hairstyle it does not become a social problem. Similarly, social problem may vary with time and over space. Smoking was not considered a social problem earlier. At present with the rising health consciousness, smoking is considered a major social problem. Similarly, *sati* was not considered as a problem in the medieval India. However, in modern India it is seen as a social problem.

A society may consider a certain practice as a social problem where as it may not be a problem in another society. This is because the norms and values are not the same in all the societies. Divorce may be seen as serious problem in some societies, but it may not be so in other societies. However, there are certain practices that are considered harmful in all societies viz. murder, terrorism, rape, etc.

1.2 **DEFINITION**

Many scholars have tried to define social problem but it is difficult to arrive at a commonly accepted definition. According to Fuller and Myers, a social problem is "a condition which is defined by a considerable number of persons as a deviation from some social norms which they cherish". Similarly, Merton and Nisbet define social problem as "a way of behaviour that is regarded by a substantial part of society as being in violation of one or more generally accepted or approved norms". However, these two definitions are applicable for certain social problems like corruption, drug addiction and communalism. It is not applicable to problems like population explosion. Further, some problems are caused not by the abnormal and deviant behaviour of the individuals but by the normal and accepted behaviour. For example, the degradation of the soil in certain regions of Punjab and Haryana is being caused by the accepted methods of farming. Therefore, for Carr, "a social problem exists whenever we become conscious of a difficulty, a gap between our preference and the reality".

1.3 CHARACTERISTICS OF SOCIAL PROBLEMS

On the basis of the above discussion and definitions, following characteristics of social problems can be deduced:

- 1) All social problems are situations that have harmful consequences for the society.
- 2) All social problems are deviations from the ideal situation.
- 3) Social problems are caused by many factors.
- 4) All these factors are social in origin.
- 5) Social problems are interrelated.
- 6) Social problems affect every individuals of the society.
- 7) Social problems affect different individuals differently.

1.4 SOCIAL PROBLEMS IN INDIAN CONTEXT

We have discussed that social problems vary with time. Similarly, social problems in India have changed with different historical phases. The major social problems in each of these phases reflect the then existing social norms and values.

The major social problems in the early phase of the Indian civilization were increasing rigidity of social hierarchy, continuous conflicts between the *Aryans* and the *Dasas*, emphasis on the observance of rituals, sacrifice of animals etc. With the advent of the Muslim rule in India, new social problems like *sati*, *purdah*, introduction of caste system among the Muslims, etc. emerged.

In the contemporary phase, India is facing several social problems. We have the problems of terrorism, violence, offences against women, children and minorities, unemployment, poverty, drug addiction, communalism, youth unrest, corruption, migration and displacement, environmental degradation, population explosion, prostitution, HIV/AIDS, etc. These problems are the result of various factors that include economic, political, legal, cultural as well as historical.

Check Your Progress I
Note: a) Use the space provided for your answers.
b) Check your answers with those provided at the end of this unit.
1) What are social problems? How do they arise?
2) Why is it difficult to define social problem?
3) Discuss the characteristics of social problems.

4) Enumerate some of the social problems being faced by India in the	contemporary phase.

1.5 TYPES OF SOCIAL PROBLEMS

Broadly, social problems can be divided into two types. Social problems at the individual level and social problems at the collective level. Social problems at the individual level include juvenile delinquency, drug addiction, suicide etc. Social problems at the collective level emerge when the mechanisms of social control fail to regulate the behaviour of its members or when there is breakdown of effective institutional functioning. For example, poverty, exploitation, population explosion, untouchability, famine, floods etc.

Social problems can also be divided into following types in relation to their causative factors:

- 1) Social problems due to social factors.
- 2) Social problems due to cultural factors.
- 3) Social problems due to economic factors.
- 4) Social problems due to political and legal factors.
- 5) Social problems due to ecological factors.

1) Social Problems Due to Social Factors

The nature of heterogeneous societies has been the cause of a number of social problems. In heterogeneous societies like India, where there are people of several religions, castes, linguistic groups and tribal groups living together, several types of social problems can be seen.

The conflict among the different religious groups has given rise to the problem of communalism. In India, Hindu-Muslim conflict has been a major problem. We have also seen conflict between Hindus and Sikhs and between Hindus and Christians. Similarly, the caste system in India has divided the society into various groups. It has led to the discrimination of one group by the other. The problem of untouchability in India is due to the caste system. Caste system is also responsible for the educational backwardness of the country. Traditionally, the caste determined the eligibility of the people for education. In the

traditional system, education was considered to be the prerogative of the upper castes. As a result, the masses were deprived of education. This explains the high rate of illiteracy in India.

Another social factor that may lead to social problem is language. In a country where several languages are spoken, conflict between different linguistic groups can be seen. In India, we have experienced the conflict between different linguistic groups. For example, in Assam and Tamil Nadu.

2) Social Problems Due to Cultural Factors

Several cultural factors have been responsible for a number of social problems. In a traditional society like India, some of the cultural factors that have led to social problems are:

- a) Male child preference,
- b) Patriarchal system,
- c) Lack of regard for public property.

In India the value system is such that a son in the family is considered necessary. It is desirable to have more sons. As a result, the members in the family go on multiplying. This has led to population explosion. The population in India has grown at a phenomenal rate after independence. At present, the population of the country is well beyond one billion that makes India the second most populated country of the world.

As elsewhere in the world, Indian society, by and large, has been patriarchal where woman is subjected to man. They are not seen beyond the roles of a wife or a mother. The woman is given an inferior social status to that of a man in almost every walk of life. As a result, almost half of the population has remained deprived. This deprivation is compounded when the woman belongs to the Scheduled Caste or the Scheduled Tribe.

Another trait of the Indian society that has implications for corruption is the disregard for public property. This lack of respect for public property is one of the root causes of corruption, black money, tax evasion, misappropriation of public goods and use of substandard materials in public construction.

3) Social Problems Due to Economic Factors

Economic factors are also responsible for some of the major social problems being faced by the contemporary society. It is more conspicuous in societies of developing countries like India. Unequal distribution of wealth has led to disparity in the distribution of benefits occurring due to development. As a result there is the problem of poverty. Poverty in turn aggravates other problems like high morbidity and mortality, crime, slum, illiteracy, etc.

Further, the process of urbanisation and industrialisation in India has been very slow. This has resulted in regional disparity in economic development. There are pockets of development where high level of urban and industrial growth can be seen. However, the other regions are still under-developed. It has attracted large number of people to migrate from the

under-developed region to the developed region. This in turn has affected the population structure of both the regions. In addition to it, the regions receiving the migrants are facing the problems of slum, congestion, unemployment, pollution, etc.

4) Social Problems Due to Political and Legal Factors

Some of the political factors that may cause social problems include electoral politics, political functioning, corruption, etc. In order to win elections and come to power, political parties do not shy away from using communal or parochial modes of mobilisation like caste, religion, and language. Even some of the decisions taken by the ruling party may lead to social problem as they may benefit a particular section of the society at the cost of the entire society. It may result in conflict between different sections of the society. Another problem is the increasing political corruption. Leaders are found indulging in nepotism and red-tapism. They are also seen accepting money in return of some favour.

5) Social Problems Due to Ecological Factors

Earlier, in an attempt to develop rapidly, environment was grossly ignored. The ecological consequence of such an attempt has now emerged as a major social problem. Rapid industrialisation has led to increase in environmental pollution that includes air pollution, water pollution, noise pollution, and degradation and desertification of the land. This in turn has led to increased morbidity and mortality, emergence of new types of diseases, global warming, ozone depletion, floods etc. that has threatened the existence of mankind itself. Further, to feed the increasing population of the world more and more land is being brought under cultivation. This has disturbed the global ecological balance. Application of modern technological inputs in agriculture like the pesticides, weedicides, insecticides, high yielding variety of seeds, genetically modified crops are threatening the biodiversity of the world. It has also increased the probability of the emergence of super weeds and insects that may be beyond the human control.

1.6 SYSTEMIC FACTORS LEADING TO SOCIAL PROBLEMS

According to Merton, social problems may arise because of social disorganisation or because of the deviant behaviour of the individual. For example, in all societies consensus exists on values and interests. Whenever this degree of unanimity is disturbed by conflicting interests, we find trends of disorganisation in that particular society. Similarly, inadequacies in the social system also cause social problems. Society develops formal and informal mechanism of social control to regulate behaviours of its members. Whenever, these mechanisms do not work in an effective manner, the trends of disorganisation become visible in the society.

Social disorganisation is thus manifested in a variety of contexts such as the breakdown in the effective institutional functioning, disorganisation of family, marital breakdown, poverty, violence, crime, population explosion and community disorganisation like youth unrest.

Deviant behaviour is reflected in the violation of norms, values and moral codes. In every society there is a commonly agreed idea of normal behaviour. Whenever someone moves away from the accepted norm and behaves differently, that behaviour may be regarded as abnormal or deviant behaviour. Juvenile delinquency, drug addiction, suicide and prostitution are some of its examples.

Check Your Progress II
Note : a) Use the space provided for your answers.
b) check your answers with those provided at the end of this unit.
1) Discuss some of the social and cultural factors that may lead to social problems.
2) What are the major social problems arising due to ecological factors?
3) Elaborate some of the social problems caused by social disorganization.

1.7 APROACHES TO THE STUDY OF SOCIAL PROBLEMS

The contemporary period has seen a remarkable shift in the way a social problem is perceived by the society. Earlier social problems and their origin were explained with a focus on the individual. The cause of such problems was seen in the genetic make up of the individual and was believed to be beyond redemption. Now the emphasis is on the social, economic, political, and cultural or on the structural factors. Thus, the contemporary approach views the cause of the social problem at the collective level and not at the individual level. Further, earlier emphasis was on the maintenance of social order and preservation of equilibrium that used to make social change a suspect phenomenon. Now, it is accepted that strains and social problems emerge due to contradictions existing in the social system which can be sorted out by removing these contradictions.

At present, there are two important approaches to study the nature and genesis of social problems. They are:

Functional approach

- Marxist approach, and
- Gandhian approach

The Functional Approach

This approach views the society as a system. A system is a set of interconnected parts that together form a whole. The basic unit of analysis is society and its various parts are understood in terms of their relationship to the whole. Thus, social institutions like family, religion and marriage are the parts that constitute the whole, that is, the society. Functionalists see such social institutions only as a part of the society and not as an isolated unit.

The parts of the society are functional if they maintain the system and contribute to its healthy survival. If any part hinders the normal functioning of the society or threatens its existence then it becomes dysfunctional. According to the Functionalists, the concept of dysfunction is of vital importance in the modern study of social problems. Some of the important Functionalists are Auguste Comte, Herbert Spencer, Emile Durkheim, Talcott Parsons and R.K. Merton.

According to Merton, the study of social problems requires a focus on the dysfunctions of patterns of behaviour, belief and organisation in the society. Such social dysfunctions arise because of a specific inadequacy of a part of the system for meeting a functional requirement. For example, the shift from joint family to nuclear family as a result of industrialisation and urbanisation is dysfunctional for the care of the elderly population. As a result, care for the people in the old age has become a social problem.

The same social pattern can be dysfunctional for some and functional for other in a social system. For example, a large dam may be functional for the people who get benefited from it but is dysfunctional for those who get displaced by it. The accumulation of dysfunctions disturbs the social stability and creates new social problems.

Further, the society develops certain codes of norms and values to maintain equilibrium between the different parts. However, at times, certain circumstances are generated which infringe such social codes. This causes social problems like communalism.

Marxist Approach

The Marxists believe that in all societies except the primitive societies and in the Communist societies, the society is divided into two classes---the ruling class and the ruled class. The ruling class is a minority but exploits the ruled class who is in majority. For example, in the feudal society, lords exploit their serfs. In capitalist society, the capitalists exploit their workers. This leads to a fundamental conflict of interest between these two classes since, one gains at the expense of the other. So, all these societies contain some basic contradictions. Therefore, they cannot survive in their existing form. According to the Marxists, the social problems in the society are due to contradictions inherent in the system itself.

According to Marx, some of the social problems in the capitalist society are:

- Exploitation of a man by man,
- Alienation,
- Inequality, and

• Poverty.

In order to maximise their profit, the capitalists tend to pay the minimum possible wages to the workers and try to extract the maximum labour from them. In this way the capitalists exploit the workers, as they do not give them their due. The workers do not have any say in the production process. They are supposed to produce commodities as desired by the capitalists. So they get alienated from their own products. The units of production in the society are unequally distributed. This leads to inequality in the society. This inequality goes on increasing as the capitalists go on becoming richer and the workers go on becoming poorer. With the concentration of wealth in the hands of the capitalists, there is increase in poverty.

Marx believed that the solution of these problems is not possible through reforms within the existing social structure, that is, capitalism. Instead, it requires a radical change in the structure of the society where capitalism should be replaced by communism.

The Marxist approach, however, is criticised as it overemphasises the role of material forces and conflict. It has over-simplified the class structure of the capitalist society, ignoring the importance of new occupations, professions and the middle class.

Gandhian Approach

Gandhi gave an altogether different perspective to the understanding of the social problems. His views on social problems are contained in his ideas of *sarvodaya* and *swaraj*. Gandhi's views are based on the values of truth and non-violence. Gandhi regarded society to be a unified organisation. Thus, he was not in agreement with the Marxists. According to Gandhi, though the interests of different classes may clash, the fact of conflict of interest does not assume primacy over the unity of the community.

Thus, the unity of purpose of the whole community is predominant in Gandhian explanation. Cooperation rather than conflict is the chief characteristic of the society. Different classes forming a community work together or cooperate to achieve the well being of the community as a whole.

Gandhi rejected the view that by reorganising society economically, the social, political and cultural problems would end. Simply economic restructuring of the society cannot ensure solution to social problems. The changes to be brought should be all pervasive. Radical changes have to be brought about in economic, social, political and cultural spheres of the community. The Gandhian approach opposes the theory of violent revolution and coercive change. The revolution has to be a gradual process and should be brought about by awakening of masses. Thus, a programme of social, economic, cultural and political awakening of the masses has to be undertaken to overcome the social problems.

Gandhi was opposed to the introduction of vast economic, social and cultural changes through legislation. The society must change itself gradually by its own initiative and efforts. Legislation may facilitate the changes when society itself is moving in the same direction. Changes should not be imposed on the society.

Gandhian approach offers a critique of the existing order, propounds certain basic elements of a new society and provides a methodology for solving social problems. Critics have argued that Gandhian approach lacks originality and is a combination of the traditional Indian thinking, welfare thinking and liberalism. It is idealistic and divorced from the hard social realities. However, it must be remembered that it was applied successfully by blacks in the USA and in South Africa and even by the people in the Eastern Europe to fight against communalism.

1.8 SOCIETAL RESPONSE TO SOCIAL PROBLEMS

Social problems are threat to the stability of the society. Solutions to the social problems can be found if the causes of social problems are identified. Social problems are usually caused due to multiple factors. However, with proper analysis of the chief factor, the cooperative factors and the minor aggravants in the origin and development of the social problem can be identified. After understanding and judging the social problem, the social response should be constructive so that effective action can be initiated.

Society may introduce positive changes in the existing institution or may establish a new institution to overcome the problem. Thus, the society's response can be at two levels: organised response and individual response. Organised response is at the collective level and is taken by the state or by organisations like Non Governmental Organisations (NGOs) and Self Help Groups (SHGs). At the individual level, it is the effort made by socially concerned persons to combat the problem, for example, efforts of Baba Amte to eradicate the problem of leprosy.

But many problems are such that they are very difficult to control like those problems that are occasioned by natural factors such as flood or earthquake. In such case the society can take efforts to minimise the impact of the problem.

Check Your Progress III
Note: a) Use the space provided for your answers.
b) Check your answers with those provided at the end of this unit.
1) How is the contemporary perception of social problems different from earlier periods?
2) What are the important approaches to study social problems?
3) How is the Gandhian approach to study social problems different from other approaches?

1.9 LET US SUM UP

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

1.10 KEY WORDS

Norms : Rules of conduct that specify what should be done in

the society. These are the established standards of behaviour that are maintained by the society.

Values : Collective conception of what is considered good,

desirable and proper or bad, undesirable and improper

in the society.

Dysfunction : The consequences of an event or action that adversely

affects the functioning, unity and stability of a society.

Industrialisation : The transformation of society from predominantly

agricultural to predominantly industrial forms of

production of goods, which then radically alters other

institutions of the society.

Urbanization : A shift of the population from predominantly rural to

predominantly urban locations.

Population explosion : A rapid growth in population. In the world as a whole

accelerating growth has created anxiety concerning the future supply of food and other resources. It has been suggested that continued rapid unplanned growth will

lead to uncontrollable problems worldwide as

resources become more scarce.

Patriarchy : A society in which men are expected to dominate the

family decision-making.

Ecological balance : Refers to that state where the environment is unable to

adjust with the changes that are introduced either by

man or by natural factors.

Biodiversity : The sum total of all living organisms both the plants and

animals which includes the micro-organisms of the soil

and atmosphere.

Social Disorganisation : When there is a dysfunction in the social order or in its

activities due to external as well as internal factors then

it is known as social disorganization.

Deviant behaviour : Whenever commonly accepted idea of 'normal' is

violated by someone's behaviour then it is termed as deviant behaviour. It includes serious crimes as well

as violation of moral codes.

1.11 SUGGESTED READINGS

Ahuja, Ram (1992), Social Problems in India, Rawat Publications, Jaipur.

Keneth, Henry (1978), *Social Problems: Institutional and Interpersonal Perspectives*, Scott, Fopresman and Company, Illinois, London.

Merton, Robert K, and Robert Nisbet (1971), *Contemporary Social Problems*, Fourth Edition, HarcourtBrace and Co., New York.

1.12 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Check Your Progress I

- 1) Social problems are those situations, which hinder the normal functioning of the society. Social problems arise when the norms and values of the society are violated. For example, drug addiction, terrorism and youth unrest.
- 2) Social problems have multiple dimensions. They may be caused by different factors like social, cultural, economic, political or ecological. Further, perception of social problems varies with time and place. In addition to it, it may affect different people differently. So social problems are difficult to define.
- 3) All social problems have harmful consequences for the society. They are deviations from the ideal situation. They may be caused by many factors. These problems are social in origin. They are interrelated. Social Problems affect every individuals of the society. However, they affect different individuals differently.
- 4) Some of the problems being faced by India in the contemporary phase are the problems of terrorism, violence, crimes against women, children and minorities, unemployment, poverty, drug addiction, communalism, youth unrest, corruption, migration and displacement, environmental degradation, population explosion, prostitution, HIV/AIDS, etc. These problems are the result of various factors that include economic, political, legal, cultural as well as historical factors.

Check Your Progress II

- 1) Social factors which cause social problems, for example; conflict between various religions, castes, linguistic groups and tribal groups. The cultural factors which causes social problems are such as male child preference, patriarchal system and lack of respect for public property.
- 2) Social problems that arise due to ecological factors are environmental pollution (air, water, and noise), global warming and threat to biodiversity.

3) Social problems caused by social disorganization are breakdown in the effective institutional functioning, disorganization of family, marital breakdown, poverty, violence, crime, population explosion and community disorganization like youth unrest.

Check Your Progress III

- 1) The contemporary perspective of social problems is different from the perspective of earlier periods. Earlier, social problems and their origin was explained from point of view of individual pathology. The cause of problems was seen in the genetic make up of the individual and was believed to be beyond redemption. Now the emphasis is on the social, economic, political, cultural or on the structural factors. Thus, the contemporary approach views the cause of the social problem at the collective level and not at the individual level.
- 2) The important approaches to the study of social problems are functionalist, Marxist and Gandhian.
- Gandhian approach to the study of social problems is different from other approaches as it is based on the values of truth and non-violence. It looks at the society as a unified organization, and emphasizes cooperation rather than conflict as the chief characteristics of the society. According to Gandhian approach, society should change through its own initiatives and efforts rather than through violence or legislation.



UNIT 2 CONTEMPORARY SOCIAL PROBLEMS- I

* Vedanshu Tripathy

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- 2.8 Let Us Sum Up
- 2.9 Key Words
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- 2.11 Answers to Check Your Progress

2.0 OBJECTIVES

This unit aims at familiarizing you with the various social problems that the country is facing at present.

After completing this unit, you will be able to:

- Discuss the magnitude, systemic causes and analysis of social problems such as HIV/AIDS, migration and displacement, environmental degradation, communalism, youth unrest and corruption; and
- Discuss various interventions-remedial, statutory, governmental and nongovernmental for tackling these social problems.

2.1 INTRODUCTION

In this unit, we are discussing some of the common problems in India. The remaining problems will be dealt in the next unit. Problems like HIV/AIDS, communalism, youth unrest, corruption and displacement have received a lot of attention in the recent times. One can say that these are problems related to that of developing societies like India. That is why they have to be given special attention to these problems. Some of the solutions to these problems are also discussed especially the government response are discussed.

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2.2 HIV/AIDS

AIDS (Acquired Immuno - Deficiency Syndrome) is a disease which is caused by a virus called human immuno-deficiency virus or HIV. AIDS is the last stage of infection in the virus. It takes about eight to ten years between getting infected with HIV and developing AIDS. No vaccine has been invented till today as a cure for AIDS or for protecting people from HIV.

Magnitude: At the end of 2016, UNAIDS estimated that 36.7 million people around the world were living with HIV. It was estimated that there were 1.8 million new HIV infections and one million deaths due to AIDS. Among the new infections, 2.1 million were children under 15 years and 17.8 million were women. Since the first clinical evidence of AIDS reported in June 1981, some 35 million people have died of AIDS.

The Indian Council of Medical Research (ICMR) initiated surveillance for HIV infection in India in late 1985. Anti HIV antibodies were first detected among sex workers in Chennai, South India in 1986.

In India, the National AIDS Control Programme (NACP) by the National AIDS Control Organisation (NACO) is implemented by Government of India as centrally sponsored scheme through State AIDS Control Societies in the states, for prevention and control of HIV/AIDS in the country. NACO initiated 'Unlinked anonymous Sentinel Surveillance' in 55 sites across the country in 1994, to monitor the trends of the epidemic. By the end of 2015, NACO estimated that approximately 21.17% while females constituted around two fifth (40.5%) of total HIV infections. These estimations of 2015 indicated that at least 0.26% adults in the age group of 15-49 years were infected.

High Risk Groups and Routes of Transmitting the Virus: HIV spreads mainly through four routes:

- 1) Unprotected Sex with an infected partner --- heterosexual as well as homosexual.
- 2) Transfusion of blood and blood products infected with HIV,
- 3) Injecting drugs with infected syringes or needles, and
- 4) Transmission from infected mother to her unborn child.

Implications: AIDS is not just a health problem; it is a problem with important social, cultural and economic implications.

Caring for the Infected: The government recognized the serious impact of HIV/AIDS and has responded to the epidemic.

The government of India is currently implementing the second phase of the National AIDS Control Programme (NACP IV, 2012-2017). NACP IV was developed through a process of consultation and deliberation between Government of India, State governments, people living with HIV/AIDS, UNAIDS and bilateral partners, community members, industry and labour organisations and the civil society.

The key objectives of NACP IV are to:

- 1) reduce the spread of HIV infection in India; and
- 2) provide comprehensive care and support to all persons living with HIV/AIDS and treatment services to all those who require it.

Role of Voluntary Organisations: The voluntary organisations can provide information, services and other social support systems to people in danger of contracting the disease. Before contracting the infection, knowledge about the spread of HIV infection can be imparted by community based social workers. The voluntary organisations can make effort towards this support system. Besides helping the patients, the voluntary organisations can also help the HIV/AIDS affected or infected children, families and other dependents from becoming victims of isolation and discrimination.

Finding funds to fight AIDS is a serious problem in our country because the potential costs are staggering.

2.3 ENVIRONMENTAL DEGRADATION

Environmental degradation can be broadly divided into two categories

Extreme Events and Hazards: The events are caused either by natural processes or manmade, which bring immediate changes in the environment and inflict damage and loss to the environment in which we live.

It is further divided into:

- 1) Natural Hazards (caused by natural factors)
- a) Territorial
- Occurs on the land surface
- Caused by endogenic factors
- E.g. volcanic eruption, earthquake, submergence, etc.
- b) Atmospheric: cyclones, atmospheric lightening
- c) Cumulative Atmospheric: They are caused due to the accumulation of effects of certain atmospheric phenomena for several years in continuation e.g. floods, drought.

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- 2) Man Induced Hazard:
- a) Physical Hazards --- landslides, forest fires

- b) Chemical Hazards --- release of toxic gases, nuclear explosions.
- c) Biological --- increase or decrease in the population of a species, explosion of human population.

3) Biological hazards not caused by man: E.g. Locusts swarms, epidemics

Pollution: Deterioration of environmental quality beyond a critical limit caused by human activities.

- a) Land Pollution --- soil erosion, desertification, and salination.
- b) Water Pollution --- pollution of sea water, pollution of rivers, and pollution of groundwater.
- c) Air pollution --- depletion of ozone layer, concentration of greenhouse gases, suspended particles.

Some of the important factors that cause environmental degradation are:

- 1) **Deforestation:** Accelerates soil erosion; increases sediments in the rivers; siltation of reservoir; Increase in the frequency of drought and floods etc. Changes in the pattern and distribution of precipitation; intensification of greenhouse effects, increase in destructive forces of atmosphere storms etc.
- 2) **Agricultural development:** Increase in agriculture all and large scale deforestation. The need for increase in the productivity of agricultural land and thus intensive cultivation through application of insecticides, pesticides, fertilizers, irrigation etc. has led to problems like eutrophication, contamination of soils, salination (usarisation) of soils, pollution and depletion of groundwater etc.
- 3) Population growth: It leads to industrial expansion, agricultural development and urban growth. Increased demands lead to rapid exploitation of natural resources, which causes lowering of environmental quality and ecological imbalance.
- 4) **Industrial development:** Though it has given rise to economic prosperity it resulted in environmental degradation through undesirable outcomes such as industrial wastes, polluted water, toxic gases, ashes, scarification of land through mining etc.
- 5) **Increased urbanization**: Increased urbanization means phenomenal increase in the concentration of human population in limited space. It results in increasing buildings, roads and streets, sewage and storm drains, factories and industrial wastes, urban wastes etc. which causes environmental degradation.
- 6) **Modern Technology**: Modern technologies are more destructive than the earlier ones. They aim at accelerated rate of exploitation of natural resources and produce outputs to

raise the material standards of human beings. However, such processes run counter to ecological pattern of productive growth. For example, application of fertilizers, pesticides and insecticides in agriculture. Use of nuclear technology, burning of fossil fuels etc.

Conservation Measures

- 1) The most important factor, which causes environmental degradation, is growth of population. So, one of the important steps to check environmental degradation would be to check the population growth.
- 2) Development of pollution free technologies.
- 3) Reduction in the exploitation of natural resources.
- 4) Large scale effort to replenish the depleted forests through afforestation and reforestation.
- 5) To limit the use of chemical fertilizers, pesticides and insecticides and to increase the use of organic fertilizers.
- 6) To limit the use of those items (like refrigerators, air conditioners etc.) which release ozone depleting gases like Chloro-fluro carbons (CFC).
- 7) To limit the use of hydrocarbons to reduce the release of greenhouse gases like (CO₂)
- 8) To heal degraded land caused by erosion.
- 9) To stop the use of nuclear weapons.
- 10) To educate people about environment.

The issue can be tackled by creating greater awareness about the ecological diversity and stability. There is also a need to realize the need for awareness about cooperation at international levels as these problems transcend the national boundaries and the current international efforts (Montreal Protocol, Kyoto Protocol etc.) dealing with climates change, the concept of sustainable development, etc.

Check Your Progress I
Note: a) Use the space provided for your answers.
b) Check Your answers with those provided at the end of this unit.
1) What are the sources of spread of HIV virus?

2) What are the important factors which cause environmental degradation?

2.4 COMMUNALISM

Concept of communalism: Communalism is an ideology which states that society is divided into religious communities whose interest differ and are, at times, even opposed to each other. The antagonism practiced by the people of one community against the people of other community and religion can be termed as 'communalism'. This antagonism goes to the extent of falsely accusing, harming and deliberately insulting a particular community and may extend to looting, burning down the homes and shops of the helpless and the weak, dishonoring women, and even homicide.

The Genesis and Growth of Communalism in India

It is widely realized that communalism in India was born, nurtured and promoted by the British imperialism as a deliberate design to sow dissensions. It served the purpose of the colonial administration to divide and rule. Thus, the prevailing religious differences were first used to project the social and cultural variations and then to promote political divisions by treating Indians not as Indians but as members of different religious communities.

Growth of Communalism: Causes

Jawaharlal Nehru once described communalism as the Indian version of fascism. He said, while all communalism is bad, we must remember that minority communalism is born out of fear, while majority communalism takes the form of political reaction to assert dominance. But he added: 'there could be no compromise on the issue of communalism, Hindu communalism or Muslim communalism, as it is a challenge to Indian nationhood and Indian nationalism.' The main forces, which have encouraged the growth of communalism in contemporary India, are:

- 1) Economic backwardness of Muslims
- 2) Growth of communal parties and organisations
- 3) Electoral compulsions of political parties

- 4) Communal media, literature and text-books
- 5) Separatism and isolation among Muslims

Anatomy of Communal Riots: A probe into the major communal riots in the country during the last five decades reveals that:

- i) Communal riots are more politically motivated than fuelled by religion.
- ii) Besides political interests, economic interests also play a vital role in fermenting communal clashes.
- iii) The probability of recurrence of communal riots in a town where communal riots have already taken place once or twice is stronger than in a town when such riots have never occurred.
- iv) Most communal riots take place on the occasion of religious festivals.
- v) The use of deadly weapons in the riots is on the ascendancy.

Prescriptive measures to deal with Communalism: Measures to meet the challenge of communalism and communal violence can be of two types: *long-term* and *short-term*.

The long-term measures are:

- 1) In initiating the process of de-communalising the people at all levels, say, by bringing home to them that communal assumptions are false, by explaining to them the socioeconomic and political roots of communalism.
- 2) Communalisation of the state and of the political elite has to be checked because it leads to inaction against communal violence and covert or overt political and ideological support to communalism by the state apparatus.
- 3) The communalisation of civil society also needs to be checked because it leads to riots that are more communal. People with communal ideas and ideologies pressurize the government to act in a manner, which is always against the principles of secularism.
- 4) The role of education, particularly emphasizing on value oriented education both in schools and colleges is important in preventing communal feelings.
- 5) The media can also prove to be significant in preventing communal feelings. Communal press can be banned and legal action can be taken against communal writers.

Some immediate measures are imperative for containing communalism and communal riots:

- 1) Peace committees can be set up in which individuals belonging to different religious communities can work together to spread goodwill and fellow feelings and remove feelings of fear and hatred in the riot affected areas.
- 2) The state has to plan and use new strategies in dealing with communal violence. Whenever strong and secular administrators have used or threatened the use of strong steps, riots either did not occur or were of short duration.
- 3) The role of media is immensely highlighted during the course of communal violence. The fear and hatred can be checked if the press, radio and TV report the events in a way conducive to soothing the frayed nerves of people instead of inflaming the temper further.
- 4) Lastly, the government in power has to treat the extremist communal outfits as its immediate targets and cripple their capacity to disrupt law and order. The secessionists in Kashmir, the militants in Punjab, the ISS now banned in Kerala and other extremist organisations of Hindu, Muslim and Sikh communalism have to be dealt with by the state through its law and order machinery.

The small insecure communities always look to government or move towards communal parties for protection. The Pundits in Kashmir, the innocent victims of communal riots in Mumbai, Uttar Pradesh, Gujarat and other states, and the sufferers of violence of extremists in Bihar, Assam, look towards the secular state of India for the security of life and property.

2.5 YOUTH UNREST

Youth unrest may be defined as the "manifestation of collective frustration of the youth in the society." It is manifested when the existing norms in the society are perceived by the youth as ineffective or harmful to the extent that they feel so disillusioned and disgusted about them and recognize the need for changing these norms.

Characteristics of Youth Unrest

On the basis of the above definition, it may be said that youth unrest is characterized by

- i) Collective discontent,
- ii) Dysfunctional conditions,
- iii) Public concerns, and
- iv) The need for change in the existing norms.

Youth Agitations: Youth agitation is the behaviour of the youth whose goal is social protest. Its aim is neither to injure a person nor cause destruction of public property. Various forms of youth agitations are: demonstrations, slogan shouting, strikes, hunger strikes, road blocks, gheraos, and boycott of examinations. The preconditions of youth agitations are:

i) Structural strain,

- ii) Identifying the source of strain,
- iii) Precipitating factor in initiative action, and
- iv) Mobilization of force for action by a leader.

The important functions of youth agitations are:

- a) To create collective consciousness and group solidarity,
- b) To organise the youth to work for new programmes and new plans, and
- c) To provide opportunities to young individuals to express their feelings and make some impact on the course of social change.

Students' agitations form an important dimension of youth agitation – Students' agitations may be classified as:

- i) Student-oriented agitations, and
- ii) Society-oriented agitations.

The former include agitations pertaining to problems at college/university level and at national level while the latter refer to students' interest in state/country's politics and programmes. Student oriented agitations are generally discontinuous and problem-oriented rather than value-oriented.

Process of Growth of Agitation due to Youth Unrest

Many youth agitations follow a life-cycle, which comprises the following stages:

- i) The discontent stage, which is the stage of dissatisfaction and growing confusion with the existing conditions;
- ii) The initiation stage, in which a leader emerges, the causes of discontent are identified, excitement increases and proposals for action are debated;
- iii) The formalization stage, in which programmes are developed, alliances are forged, and support is sought from outside actors;
- iv) The public support stage, in which youth trouble is transferred into public trouble. This not only creates awareness among public but also seeks public support on the concerned issue.

The youth fail to get the public support where:

a) The claim is too vague,

- b) The issue is not powerful enough to gain attention
- c) The issue is incorrectly focused
- d) Ineffective strategies are adopted by the youth for pressing claims, and
- e) Opposition from other interest groups.
- iv) Official action stage in which the agencies in power realize the importance of the issue, officially acknowledge the discontent, and agree to adopt strategies to solve the issue.

Causes of Youth Unrest and Agitation

The UGC Committee of 1960 pointed out the following reasons for student agitations:

- 1) Economic causes, like demands for reducing fees, increasing scholarship;
- 2) Demands for changes in existing norms pertaining to admissions, examinations, and teaching;
- 3) Poor functioning of colleges/universities with non purchase of chemicals and instruments for laboratories, or books and journals for libraries;
- 4) Conflicting relations between students and teachers (teachers being accused of frequently cutting classes and remaining non committed to teaching),
- 5) Inadequate facilities in the campus, like inadequate hostel accommodation, poor food in hostels, lack of canteens and poor drinking water facilities and
- 6) Leaders being instigated by politicians.

Controlling Youth Agitations

The adult world has to accept the fact that youth problems cannot be solved for them but with them. Therefore, cooperation of students/youths needs to be sought by parents, teachers and administrators. Youth/ students, parents, teachers and educational administrators, politicians and political parties should cooperate in understanding problems/grievances of the youth and in giving them logical guidelines.

It is high time that the vast youth power, which hitherto has been neglected and ignored, is harnessed for development, achievement of social justice and national goals.

Check Your Progress II

Note: a) Use the space provided for your answers.

b) Check your answers with those provided at the end of this unit.

1) How can media help in checking spread of communalism?
2) When do youth agitations fail to get public support?

2.6 CORRUPTION

Corruption in simple terms may be described as "an act of bribery". It has also been described as "the use of public power for private gain in a way that constitutes a breach of law or a deviation from the norms of society".

Corruption is present in the society in several forms. Of these the major ones are: bribery (money offered in cash or kind or gift as inducement to procure illegal or dishonest action in favour of the giver), nepotism (undue favour from holder of patronage to relatives), misappropriation (using others money for one's own use), patronage (wrong support/encouragement given by patron and thus misusing the position), and favouritism (unduly preferring one to other).

Causes of Corruption

A number of factors have been pointed out as causing corruption.

- a) The emergence of political elite who believe in interest-oriented rather than nation-oriented programmes and policies.
- b) Recent scandals have been in areas where either purchase policies or prices are controlled by the government.
- c) Corruption is caused by scarcity of goods.
- d) Corruption is caused as well as increased because of the change in the value system and ethics of men who administer.
- e) Corruption can be traced to ineffective administration. Lack of vigilance, enormous powers to the bureaucracy, lack of accountability, defective information system, etc.

These conditions give scope to officials not only to become corrupt but remains unaffected even after following corrupt practices.

Impact of Corruption

It is important to recognize that corruption has affected our society in several ways:

- 1) It has retarded economic development of the country.
- 2) It has created violence and lawlessness in the society since the corrupt have the money power to influence the executor of law to serve him.
- 3) thas resulted in the deterioration of morals and destroyed the individual character.
- 4) It has increased inefficiency, nepotism, and lethargy and has created indiscipline in all fields of administration.
- 5) It has increased black money in the country.
- 6) It has led to adulteration of eatables, spurious drugs and shortage of many consumer items.

The Legislation

The Prevention of Corruption Act came into force in September 1988. It consolidated the provisions of the Prevention of Corruption Act, 1947, some sections of the Indian Penal Code, the Criminal Procedure Code, and the Criminal Law Act, 1952. The sole idea was to bring all relevant provisions under a single Act. Further the 1988 Act enlarged the scope of the term 'public servant' and included a large number of employees within its ambit

Measures Taken to Contain Corruption

The Government of India appointed a committee on Prevention of Corruption in 1960 under the chairmanship of K. Santhanam. The recommendations covered various aspects of corruption. It was on the basis of the recommendations of this committee that the Central Vigilance Commission was set up in 1964 for looking into the cases of corruption against the Central Government and other employees.

The Central Government has set up the following four departments as anti-corruption measures:

- i) Administrative Vigilance Division (AVD) in the Department of Personnel and Training,
- ii) Central Bureau of Investigation (CBI),
- iii) Domestic vigilance units in the Ministries/ departments/public undertakings/nationalized banks, and
- iv) Central Vigilance Commission.

In 2005, the Right to Information (RTI) Act, considerably reduced corruption and opened up awareness to redress grievances. Number of organizations were created to fight against corruption. India against corruption was a popular movement active during 2011-12. Among its prominent faces were Anna Hazare, Arvind Kejriwal and Kiran Bedi.

Yet other effective method of containing corruption could be to introduce a method which will enable political parties to secure electoral funds in a bonafide manner, or the central government to finance elections through an election fund. This system is being followed in Germany, Norway and Sweden and in some advanced countries of Europe.

2.7 MIGRATION AND DISPLACEMENT

According to the Demographic Dictionary, "migration is a form of geographical mobility or spatial mobility between one geographical unit and another, generally involving a change in residence from the place of origin or place of departure to the place of destination or place of arrival." Such migration is called permanent migration, and should be distinguished from other forms of movement, which do not involve a permanent change of residence.

Forms of Migration

Internal Migration refers to migration from one place to another within a country, while external migration or international migration refers to migration from one country to another.

In India, the migrants are classified into four streams, namely,

- a) rural to rural,
- b) rural to urban,
- c) urban to urban, and
- d) urban to rural.

Another typology based on time classifies migration into *long - range* migration and *short or seasonal* migration. Apart from these two important types, migration could be voluntary or involuntary or forced, brain drain (migration of young skilled persons) and migration of refugees and displaced persons.

Characteristics

An important characteristic is the age selectivity of the migrants. Most migration studies, have found that rural-urban migrants are predominantly young adults and relatively better educated than those who remain at their place of origin.

Another important characteristic is that the migrants have a tendency to move to those places where they have contacts and where the previous migrants serve as link for the new migrants. In some cases, the migrants not only tend to have the same destination but also tend to have the same occupation. For example, research reveals that in certain hotels in Jaipur almost all the workers belong to one particular sub-region of Kumaon. The agricultural labourers in Punjab and Haryana are mainly from Eastern Uttar Pradesh.

Reasons for Migration

The important factors, which cause migration, may broadly be classified into four categories: economic factors, demographic factors, socio-cultural factors, and political factors.

Economic

The major reason for voluntary migration is economic. In most of the developing countries low agricultural income, agricultural unemployment and underemployment are the major factors pushing the migrants towards areas with greater job opportunities. Even the pressure of population resulting in a high man-land ratio is widely recognized as one of the important causes of poverty and rural-urban migration. The most important economic factors that motivate migration may be termed as "push factors" and "pull factors".

- a) **Push Factors**: An ILO study reveals that the main push factor causing the worker to leave agriculture is the lower levels of income. The non-availability of alternative sources of income in the rural area is also another factor for migration. Even sub-division of land holdings leads to migration.
- b) Pull Factors: These refer to those factors which attract the migrants to an area, such as, opportunities for better employment, higher wages, better working conditions and better amenities of life, etc. In recent years, the high rate of movement of people from India as well as from other developing countries to the USA, Canada and now to the Middle-East is due to the better employment opportunities, and possibility of attaining higher standards of living.

Push Back Factors: In India, another important factor which plays a crucial role on migration is 'push-back factor'. In India, according to Asish Bose, the urban labour force is sizeable, and the urban unemployment rates are high. There also exist pools of underemployed persons. All these factors act in combination as deterrents to the fresh flow of migration from the rural to urban areas. He calls this as a "push back factor".

Socio-Cultural and Political Factors

In addition to these push and pull factors, social and cultural factors also play an important role in migration. Improved communication facilities, such as, transportation, impact of radio and television, cinema, urban-oriented education and resultant change in attitudes and values promote migration. Sometimes family conflicts also cause migration.

Infact, even political factors also may encourage or discourage migration. For instance, in our country, the adoption of jobs for "sons of the soil policy" by the State government will certainly affect migration from other states.

Consequences of Migration: The consequences of migration are diverse. They are:

1) **Economic**: Migration from a region characterized by labour surplus helps to increase the average productivity of labour in that region, as this encourages labour saving devices and/or greater work participation by the remaining family workers. On the other hand, there is a view that migration negatively affects the emigration region i.e., the region from where people move out, and favours the immigrating region, i.e., the region to where people go. Similarly, it was argued that migration would widen the development disparity between the regions, in view of the drain of the resourceful persons from the relatively underdeveloped

region to the more developed region. However, the labour sending regions may gain economically by the money brought in by the emigrants.

- 2) **Demographic**: Migration has a direct impact on age, sex and occupational composition of the sending and receiving regions. Migration of the unmarried males of young working age results in imbalances in sex ratio. This tends to reduce the birth rate in the rural areas.
- 3) Social and psychological: Urban life usually brings about certain social changes in the migrants. Those migrants who return occasionally or remain in direct contact with the households of their origin are also likely to transmit some new ideas back to the areas of origin.

On the other hand, migration, which results in the absence of the adult males for long periods, may cause dislocation of the family. Under such circumstances, women and children often have to take over more and different types of work and other more important roles in household decision-making. Studies have revealed very disturbing effects of the male migration from Kerala. Neurosis, hysteria and depression are said to be on the increase among the emigrant workers' wives in Kerala.

Check Your Progress III
Note: a) Use the space provided for your answers.
b) Check your answers with those provided at the end of this unit.
1) When was central vigilance commission set up, and on whose recommendations?
2) What are the main socio-cultural factors which cause migration?

2.8 LET US SUM UP

In this unit, we learned about many social problems. Broadly, we saw that social problems are caused due to social, cultural, economic, political, legal and ecological factors. We also

saw that not just government but other civil society institutions are also playing an important part in containing these problems.

2.9 KEY WORDS

Sustainable Development : Economic development without damaging the

environment; economic development maintained within acceptable levels of global resource depletion and environmental pollution.

Secularism : The belief that religion and religious bodies

should have no part in political or civic affairs or in running public institutions, especially

schools.

Generation Gap : Difference between generations. The

difference in attitudes, behaviour and interests between people of different generations, especially between parents and their children.

Governance : It is defined as the process in which power is

exercised in the management of a country's economic and social resources. There are three distinct aspects of governance: firstly, the form of political regime; secondly, the management of a country's economic and social resources for development; and thirdly the capacity of

governments to design, formulate, and implement policies and discharge functions.

Marginal Man :A marginal man is one, who has not been able

to give up the traits of his cultural past, nor has been able to assimilate with the new culture. Thus, he is a man in transition, placed between

two cultures.

2.10 SUGGESTED READINGS

Ahuja, Ram (2001), Social Problems in India, Rawat Publications, New Delhi.

Memoria, Dr. C.B. (1960), Social Problems and Social Disorganisation in India, Kitab Mahal, Allahabad.

2.11 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Check Your Progress I

- 1) The main sources of spread of HIV virus are, unprotected sex with an infected partner, transfusion of blood products, injecting drugs with infected syringes or needles and transmission from an infected mother to her unborn child.
- 2) Important factors which cause environmental degradation are deforestation, agricultural development, population growth, industrial development, increased urbanization and destructive modern technologies.

Check Your Progress II

- 1) Media can help in checking communal violence by reporting the events in a way which is conducive to soothing the frayed emotions of people instead of inflaming the tempers further.
- 2) Youth agitations fail to get public support when the claim is too vague, the issue is not powerful enough to gain attention, the issue is incorrectly focused, adoption of ineffective strategies by youth to press claims, and when there is opposition from other groups.

Check Your Progress III

- 1) Central vigilance commission was set up in 1964 on the recommendations of Santhanam committee.
- 2) Socio-cultural factors which cause migration are family conflicts, improved communication facilities, such as, transportation, impact of radio and television, cinema, urban-oriented education and resultant change in attitudes and values.



UNIT 3 CONTEMPORARY SOCIAL PROBLEMS -II

³ Sundrara Babu

Contents

- 3.0 Objectives
- 3.1 Introduction
- 3.2 Suicide
- 3.3 Substance abuse
- 3.4 Adult Crime
- 3.5 Juvenile Delinquency
- 3.6 Issues Faced by Minorities
- 3.7 Issues faced by Backward Classes
- 3.8 Issues Faced by Women
- 3.9 Let Us Sum Up
- 3.10 Key Words
- 3.11 Suggested Readings
- 3.12 Answer to Check Your Progress

3.0 OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit you will be able to:

- State the main features of social problems;
- Discuss the different kinds of social problems; and
- Describe the remedial measures by the government

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Social problem is any undesirable condition or situation that is judged by a majority of the people within a community to be intolerable and to require group action towards constructive reform. Examples are juvenile delinquency, drug addiction, crime, prostitution, divorce, chronic unemployment, poverty, and mental illness.

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These social problems vary with social class. A social class is a large category of people within a system of social stratification who have a similar socio-economic status in relation to other segments of their community or society. A social class is not organised, but the individuals and families who compose it are relatively similar in educational, economic, and social status. Those who are classified as part of the same social class have similar life chances. Some sociologists regard social classes as being primarily economic in nature, whereas others tend to stress factors such as prestige, style of life, attitudes, identification, etc.

To refer to any condition in the society such as crime, or alcoholism; the term used was social pathology. However, it has become obsolete today. Pathology implies a biological analogy in which society is conceived as an organism that can become either sick or healthy. It has been largely replaced by such terms as social disorganisation and social problems, which are not associated with the organic model of society.

When the social control in society weakens, the social class faces the social problems. Social control is any social or cultural means by which systematic and relatively consistent restraints are imposed upon individual behaviour, to which people are motivated to adhere.

This is a direct fall out of failure of conformistic behaviour in a society. Conformity is behaviour that is in accord with the expectations of a social group. It reflects acquiescence to the roles or social norms and is expressed in responses that are either similar to those of others or prescribed by group customs or norms. "Conformity may be defined as the endeavour to conform to a standard set by a group.

It is a voluntary imitation of the prevalent modes of actions, distinguished from rivalry and other aggressive phases of emulation by being comparatively passive, aiming to keep up rather than to excel, and concerning itself for the most part with what is outward and formal", (Cooley, 1904). The term, "usually denotes conformity to the norms and expectations current in the individual's own membership group..... Conformity to norms of an outgroup is thus equivalent to what is ordinarily called non-conformity, that is, non-conformity to the norms of the ingroup", (Merton, 1957).

3.2 SUICIDE

One of the major social problems is suicide. The long hot summer of the millennium year 2000 saw an unusual spurt in suicides in different parts of India. It was scarcely even noticed that, since the near mass suicide of farmers in 1997-98, there has been a marked increase in suicides and suicide attempts. National Crime Records Bureau data, despite the under-reporting of numbers and causes, shows nearly one-lakh suicides a year.

According to WHO Report, youngsters in the 15-29 years of age group accounted for highest rate of suicide per 100,000 population in Indira during 2012.

Besides the overall number of victims, their geographical spread, class background, income group, economic status, occupational antecedents, age group, family situation, etc, all indicate that suicides are no longer mere episodic occurrences, but have assumed a near-systemic character. The near exclusive concentration of suicides amongst the poorest strata of society underlines the deep socio-economic roots of suicide. Meanwhile, the judiciary is slowly shifting its stand on treating suicide as an offence.

Ever since the famous study on suicides by the renowned sociologist E.Durkheim, social science has evolved ways of understanding and tackling the set of circumstances, processes, and structures, which lead people to take their own lives. However, what is sadly lacking is a comparable response in the form of social policy by the state and social action by civil society.

Suicide is death resulting either from a deliberate act of self-destruction or from inaction when it is known that inaction will have fatal consequences. There are many types of suicides.

Even without a comprehensive profile on suicides, both at the micro and macro levels, the known facts about the last few years appear to be significant pointers to a heightened multi-dimensional social crisis in India. Most of the causes listed in the official statistics --- poverty, unemployment, a sudden and unacceptable downturn in economic fortune, an unbearable, debt burden and the consequent socio-economic and psychological pressures, dowry disputes, illness and failure in examinations, etc. relate to social conditions.

At least, some of these maladies rarely afflict the well to do. In this sense of the various categories of suicide identified by Durkheim, the most relevant for present-day India is anomic suicide (as against egotistic and altruistic suicide).

Altruistic suicide: is one of the three types of suicide described by Emile Durkheim. Altruistic suicide is a type of suicide in which an individual who is very closely integrated into a group or society kills himself for the welfare of the group. Altruistic suicide is motivated by a desire to serve the needs of the group. It is suicide based on self-sacrifice and tends to occur in social systems that de-emphasise the importance of the individual. The Japanese hara-kiri is a way to destroy oneself rather than disgrace one's family or group.

Anomic suicide: This type of suicide results from normlessness or social and personal disorganisation. The value system of the group no longer has meaning for the individual, and he/she feels isolated, lonely, and confused. Any disruption of a way of life may lead to this type of suicide. For a rich person suddenly to become poor ----- or a poor person suddenly to become rich ----- might lead to a catastrophic breakdown in the established normative integration of the individual's personality. Anomic suicide then, is a result of not being properly integrated into a system of cultural values, and thus feeling isolated and regarding the social norms as meaningless. The incidence of anomic suicide would presumably be greater in societies that experience a high rate of social change, with a rapid disintegration of traditional social expectations. It would also tend to be higher among certain categories of individuals, such as the divorced or unmarried.

Egoistic suicide: Suicide that is due to the existence of strong social norms for which the individual is made to feel personally responsible thus resulting in an overwhelming burden on the individual. The group itself is not strong enough to provide the individual with a sufficient source of support and strength outside himself. Neither is he sufficiently integrated to be able to mitigate his individual feeling of responsibility and guilt for moral weaknesses and failure. Egoistic suicide is due to a strong value system, weak group integration, and an overpowering sense of personal responsibility.

Check Your Progress I
Note: a) Use the space provided for your answer.
b) Check your answer with those provided at the end of this unit.
1) Who is the famous Sociologist who did a pioneering study on suicides?

3.3 SUBSTANCE ABUSE

Drug addiction can be defined as: a "state of periodic or chronic intoxication, detrimental to the individual and the society, produced by repeated consumption of drugs (natural or synthetic).

Its characteristics include:

- 1) An overpowering desire or need (compulsion) to continue taking the drug and to obtain it by any means;
- 2) A tendency to increase the dose;
- 3) A psychic (psychological) and sometimes, a physical dependence on the effects of the drug." (United Nations Expert Committee on Drugs Liable to Produce Addiction, World Health Organisation report 21, Geneva, 1950.)

India has about 3 million (about 0.3 per cent of total population) estimated victims of different kinds of drug usage, excluding alcohol dependents. Such population comes from diverse socio-economic, cultural, religious and linguistic backgrounds.

India is the biggest supplier of illicit demand for opium required primarily for medicinal purposes. Besides this, India is located close to the major poppy growing areas of the world, with "Golden Crescent" on the Northwest and "Golden Triangle" on the North-East. These two regions make India vulnerable to drug abuse particularly in poppy growing areas and along the transit routes.

Over the years, drug addiction is becoming an area of concern as traditional moorings, social taboos, emphasis on self-restraint and control of the joint family and community are eroding.

The processes of industrialization and urbanization have led to the loosening of the traditional modes of social control thus rendering an individual vulnerable to the stresses and strains of modern life. The fast changing social milieu, among other factors, is mainly contributing to the spread of drug abuse, both of traditional and of new psychoactive substances.

The introduction of synthetic drugs and intravenous drug use leading to HIV/AIDS has added a new dimension to the problem, especially in the North-East states of the country.

Various surveys indicate a high concentration of drug addiction in certain social strata and high-risk groups, such as, commercial sex workers, transport workers, and street children and in the north-eastern states/ border areas and opium growing regions of the country.

The situation in north-east states has been a matter of concern due to high incidence of Intravenous Drug Use (IDU), especially in the state of Manipur, leading to HIV/ AIDS.

Constitutional and Legal Framework

Article 47 of the Constitution of India directs the State to regard the raising of the level of nutrition and the standard of living of its people and the improvement of public health as among its primary duties, and, in particular, to endeavour to bring about prohibition of consumption, except for medicinal purposes, of intoxicating drinks and drugs which are injurious to health.

Section 71 of the Narcotic Drugs and Psychotropic Substances Act, 1985 (as amended) provides as under:

"The Government to establish centres for identification, treatment, etc., of addicts and for supply of narcotic drugs and psychotropic substances:

- 1) The Government may, in its discretion, establish as many centres as it thinks fit for identification, treatment, education, after-care, rehabilitation, social re-integration of addicts"
- 2) The Government may make rules consistent with this Act providing for the establishment, appointment, maintenance, management and superintendence of the centres referred to in sub-section (1) and for the appointment, training, powers, duties and persons employed in such centres."

The issues relating to drugs are tackled by the Government of India through its two-pronged strategy viz. supply reduction and demand reduction. Whereas the supply reduction is under the purview of the enforcement agencies with the Department of Revenue as the nodal agency, the demand reduction strategy comes under the domain of social sector and the Ministry of Social Justice & Empowerment, Government of India.

With this there arose the need for implementing strategies for prevention of drug abuse, educating the people about its ill effects and rehabilitation of the addicts. The recent UN documents have also stated Demand Reduction as the pillar of drug control strategies and have urged upon all the Member States to take immediate steps so as to make significant achievement by the end of year 2003 in controlling the demand for consumption of illicit drugs.

The findings of studies also indicate to the relationship between drug abuse and the socio-economic conditions or the social dynamics of the population. Therefore, there is a need to recognize drug abuse as a psycho-socio medical problem, which can be best, addressed through community based interventions.

Keeping this in view, the Govt. of India has a three-pronged strategy for demand reduction consisting of:

- i) Building awareness and educating people about the ill effects of drug abuse.
- ii) Dealing with the addicts through programme of motivational counselling, treatment, follow-up and social-reintegration.
- iii) To impart drug abuse prevention/rehabilitation training to volunteers with a view to develop an educated cadre of service providers.

Thus, the overall objective of the strategy is to empower the society and the community to deal with the problem of drug abuse.

The Government has established a National Centre for Drug Abuse Prevention (NC-DAP) under the aegis of the National Institute of Social Defence, New Delhi, to serve as the apex body in the country in the field of training, research and documentation relating to drug abuse prevention.

While all round efforts are being made for prevention and containment of drug abuse in our society, much needs to be done to achieve a satisfactory impact. The causes of problem are transnational and drug abuse prevention shall require Herculean efforts on the part of all the institutions. The empowerment of society through sensitization and awareness appears to be the only solution to strengthen the efforts of enforcement agencies in containing the proliferation of drug trafficking and drug abuse.

3.4 ADULT CRIME

Crime is:

- 1) any behaviour that violates the criminal law.
- 2) any behaviour that violate legal sections (criminal, civil, military) which prescribe punitive action against offenders.
- 3) any behaviour contrary to the group's moral codes for which there are formalised group sanctions whether or not there are laws.
- 4) any antisocial behaviour that is harmful to individuals or groups.

Organised crime: Crime committed by members of an organisation devoted to activities that are in violation of the law. Criminal organisations such as mafia, criminal syndicates, have a division of labour with certain roles filled by skilled specialists, hierarchy of status and authority, their own system of norms, and strict organisational loyalty and discipline. These organisations also often develop informal arrangements with members of the local police and sometimes with certain influential community leaders.

White-collar crime: Edwin, M. Sutherland first introduced the term White-collar crime which is defined as a "crime committed by a person of respectability and high social status in the course of the discharge of his/her official responsibilities. Consequently, it excludes many crimes of the upper class, such as cases of murder, adultery, and intoxication, since these are not customarily a part of their occupational responsibilities. Also, it excludes the confidence games of the wealthy, and the members of the underworld, since they are not persons of respectability and high social status." Examples of white-collar crime include embezzlement, fraud, graft, legal combination in restraint of trade, misrepresentation in advertising, infringement of patents, adulteration of food and drugs, feesplitting by doctors, and bribery.

Though the social and economical damage of the white-collar crime is greater, these crimes usually are less severely punished than the more conventional crimes, which are more likely to be committed by members of the lower classes. There is less public resentment against white-collar crime as compared to other types of crime.

A criminal is:

- 1) a person who is convicted of violating a criminal law, one who is convicted of a felony.
- 2) a person who commits an antisocial act whether or not he/she is convicted of committing a crime. This definition would include any person who violates the mores or behaves in anyway that is injurious to the society or to other individuals. It would include persons whose violations of the law are not discovered, as well as those whose antisocial acts are not illegal.
- 3) Because of the varied meanings associated with the term 'criminal' instead of attempting at a general definition, scholars focused on types of criminals, such as professional criminals, white-collar criminals, those in organised crime, and so forth. It was felt that by emphasising on the study of careers would give types of criminal more sociological and less legal orientation to the study of crime.

Legalistic criminal: An individual who violates the law unintentionally either because of ignorance, as in the case of a feeble minded person, or because the law is so confusing that it is virtually impossible to obey.

Professional criminal: A career criminal who is highly trained for work. He/she often has a philosophy of crime and takes pride in his/her work. Forgery, burglary, counterfeiting, and confidence games are some of the careers pursued by professional criminals. For example professional thief.

Psychopathic criminal: A person who commits a crime because he/she is psychologically unable to control his/ her behaviour. Psychopathic criminals are psychotics whose psychoses result in illegal acts. They include the kleptomaniacs, pyromaniacs and sexual psychopaths.

Situational criminal: The person who commits a crime because of the overwhelming pressures of an unusual situation in which he finds himself. Criminal behaviour is contrary to his normal life pattern, and it is unlikely that he would commit a crime again.

3.5 JUVENILE DELINQUENCY

A violation of law or ordinance by individual below the legal age of the community is termed Juvenile

delinquency. It is essentially a legal concept. It does not include all acts of misbehaviour or even serious misbehaviour by children or youth, but only those acts that violate the law. Adults are considered more responsible for their actions than are children or adolescents, and such juvenile delinquent behaviour when performed by an adult is considered a criminal behaviour.

However, there are situations in which juveniles are legally restricted whereas adults are free (for example, buying liquor). The legal age dividing juvenile delinquency from adult crime is 18 years. Generally, the punishment for delinquent behaviour is influenced by the attitudes of the local community and the degree of general tolerance for adolescent misbehaviour.

Juvenile Justice

The Juvenile Justice Act 2000, (JJA) is the primary law for children in need of care and protection. The JJA is designed for the care, protection, development, and rehabilitation of neglected and delinquent juveniles, as well as for the adjudication of and disposition of certain matters related to them.

The programme for Juvenile Justice include:

- To provide for full coverage of services envisaged under the Juvenile Justice Act, 1986 so as to ensure that no child under any circumstances is lodged in prison;
- •To bring about qualitative improvement in the juvenile justice services;
- •To promote voluntary action for the prevention of juvenile social maladjustment and rehabilitation of socially maladjusted juveniles;
- To develop infrastructure for an optimum use of community based welfare agencies.
- To streamline adoption procedures for orphan, abandoned and surrendered children through the existing Central Adoption Resources Authority (CARA)

Amendment of Juvenile Justice Act

The first central legislation on juvenile justice was passed in 1986. JJ Act 1986 was amended for bringing the same in conformity with UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) and other International Conventions/ Agreements.

Juvenile Justice (Care and Protection of Children) Act 2000 attempted to clearly define the differential approach provided to children in conflict with law and to those in need of care and protection under the existing Act. Effective provisions for various alternatives for rehabilitation and social reintegration such as adoption, foster care, sponsorship and aftercare of abandoned, destitute, neglected and delinquent juveniles/children were proposed.

The Juvenile Justice (Care and Protection of Children) Act 2000 was amended in 2006 and 2011. The Juvenile Justice (Care and Protection of Children) Act 2015 replaces the Juvenile Justice (Care and Protection of Children) Act 2000. This Act clearly defines and classifies offences as petty, serious and heinous.

Check Your Progress II					
Note: a) Use the space provided for your answer.					
b) Check your answer with those provided at the end of this unit.1) What are the characteristics of drug addiction?					

3.6 ISSUES FACED BY MINORITIES

Minorities are any recognisable racial, religious, or ethnic group in a community that suffers some disadvantage due to prejudice or discrimination. This term, as commonly used, is not a technical term, and indeed it is often used to refer to categories of people rather than groups, and sometimes to majorities rather than minorities. For example, though women are neither a group nor a minority, some writers call them a minority group, because in a male oriented society, women are discriminated against which in many ways bears similarity to the discrimination suffered by minorities.

On the other hand, a group that is in a privileged status or is not discriminated against, even if it is a numerical minority, would rarely be called a minority group. Thus, as the term is often used, so long as it refers to a category of people who can be identified by a sizeable segment of the population as objects for prejudice or discrimination.

Five religious minorities namely Muslims, Christians, Sikhs, Jains, Buddhists and Zoroastrians (Parsis) have been notified as minorities as per the provisions of the National Commission of Minorities Act of 1992. These six communities constitute about 18 percent of the country's population.

Constitutional Safeguards for Minorities

Under the Constitution of India, certain safeguards have been provided to the religious and linguistic minorities. Some of the important provisions are:

- 1) The right to conserve language, script and culture under article 29;
- 2) The right to establish and administer educational institutions under article 30;

- 3) Article 347 provides for presidential direction for recognition of language;
- 4) The right to submit representations for redressal of grievances to any authority in the government in any of the languages used in the States/Union Territories under article 350;
- 5) Article 350 A provides for facilities for instruction through the mother tongue at the primary education level, and
- 6) Article 350 B provides for a special officer to investigate all matters relating to the safeguards provided for linguistic minorities under the Constitution.

Welfare of Minorities

The 15-Point Programme for welfare of minorities was launched in May 1983. The Programme is in the nature of guidelines to the States/UTs and aims at giving a sense of security and for ensuring rapid socio-economic development of minority communities.

The 15-Point Programme is based on a 3-pronged approach, namely, (i) to tackle the situation arising out of communal riots, (ii) ensuring adequate representation of the minority communities in employment under the Central and State Governments as well as Public Sector Undertakings and (iii) other measures, such as, ensuring flow of benefits to the minority communities under various development programmes, maintenance and development of religious places, Wakf properties and redressal of grievances of the minorities.

The earlier programme was revised as the Prime Minister's New 15 Point Programme for the Welfare of the Minorities on February 2005 to incorporate programme specific interventions in the fields of education, employment, improving living conditions of minorities and prevention of communal riots. The Ministry of Minority Affairs is the nodal Ministry for this programme. The State Governments/UTs and the concerned Ministries/Departments of Govt. of India implement the programme. At the State level, the progress under the programme is monitored at the level of Chief Minister/Chief Secretary. At the District level, Deputy Commissioner/District Magistrate monitors the programme.

National Commission for Minorities

The National Commission for Minorities was set up by the Union Government under the has been reconstituted in February 2003 for a period of three years. The Commission has been set up to perform a number of functions for the effective implementation of safeguards provided under the Constitution for the protection of the interests of the minorities and to make recommendations in this regard to the Central Government or State Government, as the case may be.

The Commission receives approximately 3000 complaints/representations a year. The police, service matters, disputes relating to religious places and complaints relating to Minority Educational Institutions broadly come under the complaints received. After taking cognizance of the complaints, reports are called for from the concerned authorities. On receipt of the reports, the Commission makes appropriate recommendations to the concerned authorities. The Chairman, Vice Chairman, and Members of the Commission undertake visits to States/UTs during the period to review the problems relating to Minorities.

The Commission has also constituted a Minority Education Cell to exclusively look after the problems faced by the minority educational institutions concerning recognition, affiliation, grant-in-aid, etc.

Commissioner for Linguistic Minorities

The Office of the Special Officer for Linguistic Minorities (commonly known as the Commissioner for Linguistic Minorities) was created in July 1957, in pursuance of the provision of Article 350-B of the Constitution.

The Commissioner for Linguistic Minorities (CLM) in India has his/her Headquarters at Allahabad with three Regional Offices at Kolkata, Belguam, and Chennai. The CLM takes up all the matters pertaining to the grievances arising out of the non-implementation of the Constitutional and Nationally Agreed Scheme of Safeguards provided to linguistic minorities. These grievances may be brought to its notice by the linguistic minority individuals, groups, association or organisations, at the highest political and administrative levels of the State Governments and UT Administrations. On receipt of the reports, the CLM recommends remedial actions to be taken.

The Commissioner for Linguistic Minorities in India submits Annual Reports, which are sent to the concerned Ministries/Departments of the Central Government and the Governments of various States/UTs for follow-up action after placing them in Parliament.

3.7 BACKWARD CLASSES

The Constitution of India prescribes protection and safeguards for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes and Other Backward Classes with the object of removing their social disabilities and promoting their varied interests. The main safeguards are: abolition of untouchability, protection from social injustice and various other forms of exploitation, throwing open religious institutions of public character to all sections of the population, removal of restrictions on access to shops, restaurants, wells, tanks, and roads, giving them the right to move freely and acquire property, giving them the right of admission to educational institutions and receiving grants out of state funds, permitting the State to make reservations for them in services, giving them special representation in the Lok Sabha and the State Vidhan Sabhas, setting up separate departments and advisory councils to promote their welfare and safeguard their interests, prohibition of forced labour, and making special provision for the administration and control of the scheduled areas. The machinery for safeguarding the interests of OBCs, SCs and STs was created in the form of setting up separate commissions for them.

Other Backward Classes

The Backward Classes are those castes/communities that are notified as socially and educationally Backward Classes by the State Governments or those that may be notified as such by the Central Government from time to time.

Till 1985, the Backward Classes Cell (BCC) in the Ministry of Home Affairs used to look after the affairs of Backward Classes. With the creation of a separate Ministry of Welfare in 1985, (later renamed as Ministry of Social Justice and Empowerment w.e.f. 25.5.1998), the matters relating to Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes, Other Backward Classes (OBCs) and Minorities were transferred to the new Ministry.

The Backward Classes Division in the Ministry looks after the policy, planning, and implementation of programmes relating to social and economic empowerment of OBCs. It also looks after matters relating to two institutions set up for the welfare of OBCs: National Backward Classes Finance and Development Corporation (NBCFDC) and the National Commission for Backward Classes (NCBC).

National Commission for Backward Classes (NCBC)

The National Commission for Backward Classes (NCBC) Act, 1993 was enacted on the direction of the Supreme Court to set up a permanent body for entertaining, examining and recommending requests for inclusion and complaints of over-inclusion and under-inclusion in the central lists of Other Backward Classes (OBCs) of citizens for the purpose of making reservation in civil posts and services under Government of India.

Composition of the Commission

The Commission consists of a Chairperson who is or has been a Judge of the Supreme Court or of a High Court, a social scientist, two persons who have special knowledge in matters relating to backward classes, and a Member-Secretary who is or has been an officer of the Central Government in the rank of a Secretary to the Government of India. Every Member holds office for a term of 3 years from the date he assumes office.

Advices of the Commission

The Commission is mandated to 'examine requests for inclusion of any class of citizens as a backward class in the list and hear complaints of over-inclusion and under-inclusion of any backward class in such lists and to tender such advice to the Central Government as deemed appropriate' under Section 9(1) of the NCBC Act, 1993. The advice of the Commission is ordinarily binding upon the Central Government under Section 9(2) of the Act.

Since the inception of the Commission, the Central Government has received 811 advices from the Commission for inclusion or amendment of castes/communities in the Central lists of OBCs as well as for rejection of claims of certain castes/communities for inclusion in these lists. The Government has accepted 338 advices for inclusion of castes/communities in the Central lists and notified them. Fifty one advices for inclusion have recently been approved by the Cabinet and were notified on 21 September 2000. The Government has also agreed to 415 advices pertaining to rejection of claims for inclusion in the lists. Seven advices are under process.

Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes

The SCs comprised 16.2 percent (as per 2011 Census) of the country's total population. The highest numbers of SCs are found in Uttar Pradesh. About 84 percent of the SCs live in rural areas and are working as agricultural labourers, sharecroppers, tenants and marginal farmers. Most of them are engaged in jobs like sweeping, scavenging and tanning. About two-thirds of the bonded labourers are scheduled castes. Literacy among scheduled caste people is extremely low. Most of them live below the poverty line and are the victims of social and economic exploitation.

In practice, Scheduled Caste people continue to be subjected to discrimination, harassment, and humiliation. Various reports every year reflect an increase in the number of crimes committed against the scheduled castes. Many SC women are the victims of rape by the upper caste men. The SC men on the other hand are exploited by upper caste by usurping their lands, giving them low wages, using them as bonded labourers, and so on.

The STs comprised 8.2 percent (as per 2011 Census) of the country's total population. At present, India has the second largest tribal population in the world, next only to Africa. The tribes in India are spread over the length and breadth of the country. They vary in strength from a few hundreds to several lakhs. The highest number of tribal population is found in Madhya Pradesh and Chattisgarh. Some of the main problems of the tribals are poverty, indebtedness, illiteracy, bondage, exploitation, malnutrition, and unemployment.

National Commission for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes

The need for providing adequate safeguards for the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes was recognized by the framers of the Indian Constitution. For this purpose, special provisions were made in the Constitution of India to promote social, educational, economic, and service interests of these two weaker sections of the society.

The Constitution of India also provided for appointment of a Special Officer under Article 338 for investigation of all matters relating to the safeguards provided for the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes and to submit reports to the President, annually and at such other times, as the Commission may deem fit, about working of these safeguards.

In order to oversee the implementation of various safeguards provided for SCs & STs, a Multi-Member Commission, known as the Commission for SCs & STs, came into being w.e.f. 21.7.78. This Commission was renamed as the National Commission for SCs & STs w.e.f. 1.9.87, to act as a National level Advisory Body in matters, relating to SCs and STs. In 1990, the provisions of Article 338 were amended as per the Constitution (Sixty fifth) Amendment Act, 1990. Subsequently, the National Commission for SCs & STs with its headquarters at New Delhi replaced the Office of the Commissioner for SCs & STs in 12.3.92.

The National Commission for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes is, thus, a statutory body having its Headquarters at New Delhi and with 18 State Offices located at Agartala, Ahmedabad, Bangalore, Bhubaneswar, Bhopal, Calcutta, Chennai, Chandigarh, Guwahati, Hyderabad, Jaipur, Lucknow, Patna, Pune, Ranchi, Raipur, Shillong and Thiruvananthapuram. A Chairman who is assisted by a Vice-Chairman and five other Members heads it. The Commission, fourth in the series, was constituted in March 2002.

Consequent upon the Constitution (89th Amendment) Act, 2003, the erstwhile National Commission for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes was replaced by National Commission for Scheduled Castes and National Commission for Scheduled Tribes.

Function and Duties of the Commission

The functions, duties and powers of the Commission have been laid down in clauses (5), (8) and (9) of the amended Article 338 of the Constitution. The following are the clauses.

Clause (5) --- It shall be the duty of the Commission:

a) To investigate and monitor all matters relating to the safeguards provided for the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes under this Constitution or under any other law for the time being in force or under any order of the Government and to evaluate the working of such safeguards;

- b) To inquire into specific complaints with respect to the deprivation of rights and safeguards of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes;
- c) To participate and advise on the planning process of socio-economic development of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes and to evaluate the progress of their development under the Union and any State;
- d) To present to the President, annually and at such other times as the Commission may deem fit, reports upon the working of those safeguards;
- e) To make in such reports, recommendations as to the measures that should be taken by the Union or any State for the effective implementation of those safeguards and other measures for the protection, welfare and socio-economic development of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes; and
- f) To discharge such other functions in relation to the protection, welfare and development and advancement of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes as the President may, subject to the provisions of any law made by Parliament, by rule specify.
- Clause (8) --- The Commission shall, while investigating any matter referred to in sub-clause (a) or inquiring into any complaint referred to in sub-clause (b) of clause (5), have all the powers of a civil court trying a suit and in particular in respect of the following matters, namely:
- a) Summoning and enforcing the attendance of any person from any part of India and examining him on oath;
- b) Requiring the discovery and production of any documents;
- c) Receiving evidence on affidavits;
- d) Requisitioning any public record or copy thereof from any court or office;
- e) Issuing commissions for the examination of witnesses and documents;
- h) Any other matter, which the President may by rule, determines;
- Clause (9) --- The Union and every State Government shall consult the Commission on all major policy matters affecting Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes.

3.8 ISSUES FACED BY WOMEN

Women in the Indian society have been victims of humiliation, torture, and exploitation in both social and family spheres. Today, women are being recognized as important, powerful, and meaningful contributors to the society.

Ideologies, institutional practices, and the existing norms in the society have discriminated against women. Some of these discriminating practices thrive even today. Inspite of the legislative measures adopted in favour of women in our society after independence, the spread of education and women's gradual economic independence, countless women still continue to be the victims of violence. They are beaten, kidnapped, raped, burnt, and murdered.

The constitution of independent India provided for equality of status and opportunity for women. The Constitution enunciated positive discrimination policies in their favour to enable them to overcome their handicaps arising out of centuries of oppression and unequal treatment. While the formal picture in respect of women's status thus appears quite bright, the reality of women's everyday life is found to be very different.

Women continue to be the victims of violence, (e.g. rape); traditional social evils continue to flourish (e.g. dowry); discrimination in the economic sphere is rampant (e.g. unequal wages) and newer challenges in the context of technological changes and global forces emerge to violate their rights and dignity (like female foeticide and immoral traffic).

National Commission for Women

The National Commission for Women (NCW) which was set up in 1992, pursuant to an Act of Parliament, was itself a recognition of this reality. It was established to monitor the legal, social and economic situation of women.

The National Commission for Women was set up as statutory body in January 1992 under the National Commission for Women Act, 1990 to:

- Review the Constitutional and Legal safeguards for women;
- Recommend remedial legislative measures; Facilitate redressal of grievances; and
- Advise the Government on all policy matters affecting women.

Important Developments Pertaining to NCW

The Committee on the Status of Women in India (CSWI) recommended, nearly two decades ago, the setting up of a National Commission for Women to fulfill the surveillance functions, to facilitate redressal of grievances, and to accelerate the socio-economic development of women.

- Successive Committees/Commissions/Plans including the National Perspective Plan for Women (1988-2000) recommended the constitution of an apex body for women.
- During 1990, the central government held consultations with NGOs, social workers and experts, regarding the structure, functions, powers etc.of the Commission proposed to be set up.
- In May 1990, the Bill was introduced in the Lok Sabha.
- In July 1990, the HRD Ministry organised a National Level Conference to elicit suggestions regarding the Bill. In August 1990 the government moved several amendments and introduced new provisions to vest the commission with the power of a civil court.
- The Bill was passed and received assent of the President on 30th August 1990.
- The First Commission was constituted on 31st January 1992.

The composition of the Commission is as follows:

- a) A Chairperson, committed to the cause of women, to be nominated by the Central Government.
- b) Five Members to be nominated by the Central Government from amongst persons of ability, integrity and standing who have had experience in law, trade unionism, management of an industry,

women's voluntary organisations (including women activist), administration, economic development, health, education or social welfare.

- c) Provided that at least one Member each shall be from amongst persons belonging to the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes respectively.
- d) A Member-Secretary to be nominated by the Central Government who shall be:
- i) An expert in the field of management, organisational structure or social movement, or
- ii) An officer who is a member of a civil service of the Union or of an all-India service or holds a civil post under the Union with appropriate experience.

The Mandate of the Commission

The commission shall perform all or any of the following functions, namely:

- a) Investigate and examine all matters relating to the safeguards provided for women under the Constitution and other laws.
- b) Present to the Central Government, annually and at such other times as the Commission may deem fit, reports upon the working of those safeguards.
- c) Make in such reports, recommendations for the effective implementation of those safeguards for improving the conditions of women by the Union or any state.
- d) Review, from time to time, the existing provisions of the Constitution and other laws affecting women and recommend amendments so as to suggest remedial legislative measures to meet any lacunae, inadequacies or shortcomings in such legislations.
- e) Take up cases of violation of the provisions of the Constitution and of other laws relating to women with the appropriate authorities.
- f) Look into complaints and take suo moto notice of matters relating to:
 - i) Deprivation of women's rights.
 - ii) Non-implementation of laws enacted to provide protection to women and also to achieve the objective of equality and development.
 - iii) Non-compliance of policy decisions, guidelines or instructions aimed at mitigating hardships, ensuring welfare, providing relief to women, and taking up the issues arising out of such matters with appropriate authorities.

- g) Call for special studies or investigations into specific problems or situations arising out of discrimination and atrocities against women and identify the constraints so as to recommend strategies for their removal.
- h) Undertake promotional and educational research so as to suggest ways of ensuring due representation of women in all spheres and identify factors responsible for impeding their advancement, such as, lack of access to housing and basic services, inadequate support services and technologies for reducing drudgery and occupational health hazards and for increasing their productivity.
- i) Participate and advice on the planning process of socio-economic development of women.
- j) Evaluate the progress of the development of women under the Union and any State.
- k) Inspect or cause to inspect a jail, remand home, women's institution or other place of custody where women are kept as prisoners or otherwise, and take up with the concerned authorities for remedial action, if found necessary.
- 1) Fund litigation involving issues affecting a large body of women.
- m) Make periodical reports to the Government on any matter pertaining to women and in particular various difficulties under which women toil.
- n) Any other matter, which may be referred to it by Central Government.

Check Your Progress III
Note: a) Use the space provided for your answer.
b) Check your answer with those provided at the end of this unit.
1) What are the Constitutional safeguards for the OBC and SC/ST?

3.9 LET US SUM UP

In this unit we learned about many social problems. Broadly we saw that social problems are caused due to social, cultural, economic, political, legal and ecological factors. We also saw that not just government but other civil society institutions are also playing an important part in containing these problems.

3.10 KEY WORDS

Crime : An offence punishable by law

Abuse : Use to bad effect or for bad purpose, misuse

The authority to perform a task or certain duties, a person or group entrusted especially by government with such authority. Commission

Delinquent An offender, guilty or a minor crime or a misdeed.

Caste Any of the Hindu hereditary classes whose members have no social

contact with other classes, but are socially equal with one another and often follow the same occupations.

3.11 SUGGESTED READINGS

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3.12 **ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS**

Check Your Progress I

1) Emile Durkheim is the renowned Sociologist who wrote the famous work 'Suicide'.

Check your Progress II

- 1) The characteristics of drug addiction include:
 - i) An overpowering desire or need (compulsion) to continue taking the drug and to obtain it by any means;
 - ii) A tendency to increase the dose;
 - iii) A psychic (psychological) and sometimes, a physical dependence on the effects of the drug.

Check your Progress III

1) The main safeguards in the Constitution are: abolition of untouchability, protection from social injustice and various other forms of exploitation, opening religious institutions of public character to all sections, removal of restrictions on access to shops, restaurants, wells, tanks and roads, giving them the right to move freely and acquire property, giving them the right of admission to educational institutions and receiving grants out of state funds, permitting the State to make reservations for them in services, giving them special representation in the Lok Sabha and the State Vidhan Sabhas, setting up separate departments and advisory councils to promote their welfare and safeguard their interests, prohibition of forced labour, and making special provision for the administration and control of the scheduled areas.

UNIT 4 SOCIAL DEFENCE

* S.P. Srivastava

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- 4.0 Objectives
- 4.1 Introduction
- 4.2 Rationale
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- 4.4 Characteristics
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- 4.9 Social Defence Programmes
- 4.10 Problems Concerning Social Defence Programmes
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- 4.12 Key Words
- 4.13 Suggested Readings
- 4.14 Answers to Check Your Progress

4.0 OBJECTIVES

The aim of this unit is to acquaint you with the importance of Social Defence progremmes in providing preventive, protective, corrective and rehabilitative services to individuals and groups who because of their vulnerability to exploitation and abuse, may turn to deviance, delinquency and crime. After studying this unit, you will be able to:

- Understand the rationale behind social defence measures;
- Know the conceptual framework of 'Social Defence' ideology and practice;
- Trace out the genesis and growth of social defence policies and programmes;
- Critically appreciate the impact of programmes and services on the target groups;
- Understand implementation problems and limitations of programme outreach; and
- Formulate your own views to make the programmes more effective.

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4.1 INTRODUCTION

The prevalence and persistence of problems of crime and deviance has been a matter of serious social concern in all societies. When these problems have crossed a threshold – the limit of social tolerance, and have assumed the proportions of a social problem, they require – interventionist mechanisms comprising prevention, control, reformation, rehabilitation and reintegration, taken up by governmental and non-governmental organisations, agencies and institutions. The measures undertaken to combat these problems represent the society's "response", to defend itself from the threat these problems pose to the balance between organisation and disorganisation. This indeed is the rationale of social defence. Therefore, an adequate understanding of the concept of social defence and programmes and policies is necessary to appreciate how the governmental and non-governmental organisations and agencies are responding to the problems of deviance, delinquency and crime.

4.2 THE RATIONALE

Society's concern for the protection of its social order lies at the root of all mechanisms of social control. This concern, in turn, leads to social action and, to find out solutions for problems, which disturb the orderly functioning of social institutions. Manifestations of crime and delinquency call for such control measures that require the application of threat, coercion, repression and other forms of punishment. The methods employed have had one central purpose to accomplish, namely, the preservation of safety and security of members and institutions of society against the dangerous consequences of law breaking behaviour. Though these methods of crime control have varied in terms of time and space, the purpose still remains the same: to hold the individual within the bounds of the accepted norms and expectations, including customs, rules and laws.

Viewed in this context, social defence appears to be a part of deviant behaviour management system, of crisis containment, and of rule-making and enforcing rule-conformity. Simply stated, Social Defence could well be taken as an art and science of defending Society against all odds, crises and problems which threaten to undermine, the very structure of societal institutions and agencies. The efforts to prevent, control or correct simple or bizarre forms of deviant behaviour are important aspects of social defence operations everywhere. The question in regard to the legitimacy or relevance of means and modalities of social defence have been discussed ever since the history of human civilization, often without expressly using the term. One significant indicator of this situation is the proliferation of literature on social defence and the steady growth of the movement throughout the world. It seems almost certain that the modern connotation of social defence has come to stay in the main body of criminological and correctional theory and practice.

4.3 CONCEPT OF SOCIAL DEFENCE

The term social defence is of Italian origin. It has been frequently used in the penal theory of Continental Europe and of Latin America. It gained popularity when it was adopted by the United Nations in 1948. Nevertheless, the term, as Marc Ancel (1965:1) said, "often appears strange and is frequently misunderstood, especially by lawyers brought up in the common law

tradition or by the Criminologists of English speaking world". It has also not been completely absorbed into the terminology of Anglo-American criminological studies. The frequency and the variety of contexts in which the term has been used is often accompanied by a certain amount of misuse and distortion. Even those who use the term regularly do not always give it the same meaning. Many people in criminology, criminal law and penal policy do not know what the term exactly means. In such a situation, it is no wonder that the meanings attributed to the expression vary. For example, it was once fashionable to interpret the term 'social defence' as the protection of society against crime, to the extent that such protection justifies the ruthless repression of crimes and criminals irrespective of the means employed. Such an interpretation of the term was accepted when repressive criminal law was considered to be the best possible instrument of social defence. Then the term social defence was synonymous repression. These were the days when the purpose of criminal law and penal policy was to ensure absolute protection of society irrespective of the methods used.

History bears witness to the fact that till the end of the nineteenth century every repressive method to control crime was justified in the name of social defence. Jerome Hall wrote that any measure needed to protect society is justified if it achieves the desired purpose. Hall's view brings the notion of social defence nearer to an authoritarian approach of criminal law. Thus viewed, the concept of social defence approves of an arbitrary system or punishment in which the judge or the magistrate becomes an agent of social defence through his manifest interest in public order and security.

Later, the ideas of Bentham and Beccarea brought out radical changes in the original meaning of the term. The positivists of the Italian School of Criminology called for the preservation of the moral basis of criminal law as part of the policy of social defence. Positivists gave a new philosophy of punishment as contrasted with the older notion of the protection of society by way of repressive punishment alone. Positivists emphasized a close relationship between criminal law and morality and asserted that the concept of social defence endeavour to establish the necessity and the relevance of a large number of preventive, curative and rehabilitative measures so as to reduce the relapse of offenders to criminal behaviour. In this sense, the concept of social defence involves the systematization of penal or correctional measures that is the measures of social protection against dangerous offenders.

The modern connotation of social defence clearly rejects the primitive measures for the protection of society, decries retributive system of punishment, introduces the element of humanity into the administration of criminal justice system and, establishes the need to treat crime as a social fact and a human act. In the light of this, social defence emerges as a new approach to the problem of crime and as a new trend in the decision-making, which organises the means of controlling crime. Marc Ancel reiterates that the modern concept of social defence often came to be a synonym for action of a non-penal nature, or at any rate, for the treatment of the offender that is less punitive and repressive.

In his elaboration of the concept, Ancel wrote that the concept of social defence covers proactive and preventive social policy which aims at the protection of society by protecting the offender as well. Thus, social defence is designated to ensure that the offender should receive the treatment which is appropriate to his individual case within a legal framework and by legal methods. Thus

conceived, social defence is largely based on the substitution of treatment for retributive punishment.

4.4 CHARACTERISTICS OF SOCIAL DEFENCE

Without attempting to provide a universally agreed definition, Marc Ancel enumerated the following characteristics of social defence approach:

- 1) Social defence presupposes that the means of dealing with crime should be generally conceived as a system which aims not at punishing a fault but at protecting society against criminal acts.
- 2) The intention of social defence is to achieve social protection by means of a body of measures that are outside the ambit of the criminal law and are designed to 'neutralize' the offender, either by his removal or segregation from the group, or by applying remedial or educational methods.
- 3) Social defence thus leads to the promotion of a penal policy which naturally favours the individual rather than the collective approach towards prevention of crime and the treatment of offenders.
- 4) Such a process of resocialization can take place only by way of an ever-increasing humanization of the new criminal law which will have to call upon all the resources of the person concerned, seeking to restore not only his self-confidence but also his sense of personal responsibility and the sense of human values. This perspective will safeguard the offender's inherent right as a human being whether he is charged with an offence or has been convicted.
- 5) Such a humanization of criminal law and the criminal will not be merely the result of a humanitarian movement. On the contrary, the process will be based on scientific understanding of the phenomenon of crime and the offender's personality.

4.5 SOCIAL DEFENCE MOVEMENT

Social defence is not a new dogma or establishes a single doctrine in place of all other theories of criminal law and criminology. It is a movement which seeks to bring together all those who are aware that the modern world and modern thought shatters the framework of preconceived ideas and it seeks to guide such persons in their search for a human renewal which goes beyond all technical considerations. It is an endeavour to breathe into criminal law a social spirit in harmony with the present trends. Social defence movement does not only opens up the fresh horizons in the control of crime by non-repressive methods, but also succeeds in getting rid of a certain number of obsolete elements that still encumber penal theory or are assigned importance disproportionate to their intrinsic value or usefulness. The aim of social defence movement is precisely to incorporate those methods of individual treatment into a comprehensive penal policy which will render it effective in achieving the protection of society through the protection of the individual. The movement does not hide the fact that there is a long way to go, nor does it seek to dissimulate that much remains to be done to educate not only the legislator, the criminal lawyer, the judge, and the prison administrator, who has to apply the sanctions imposed, but also, to educate public opinion itself. All this must be accomplished, not through a violent break with the past, but through a continuous process of evolution and reform.

4.6 GROWTH OF SOCIAL DEFENCE MOVEMENT

Though the idea of social defence is an old one, it could, however, be assimilated into the body of criminal law and criminology only in the beginning of the twentieth century. It is, therefore, treated as a modern phenomenon having its direct roots in the radical changes that characterized the penal policy at the end of the nineteenth century. It highlights the dominant role of prevention in the society's struggle against crime, puts forward the utility of penal policy based on the reformation of the offender, and enunciates the principle of re-education of offenders. The "Age of Enlightenment" in Europe provided impetus to the evolution of the concept of social defence in the eighteenth century. It helped in spreading the consciousness of the notion of social protection and the need for preventive measures.

The modern connotation of social defence could become popular only in the beginning of the twentieth century when the ideas of the positivists like Lambroso, Ferri and Garofalo received wider acceptance. The criminologists' endorsement of the view that prevention of crime by means of preventive measures designed to reform the offenders helped the social defence movement accelerate its pace.

The new social defence movement developed in the years after the Second World War. The movement assumed significance between 1945 and 1949 when the Study Centre on Social Defence was founded at Geneva in 1948 with the institution of the social defence section of the United Nations which defined the purpose of the movement as the prevention of crime and the treatment of offenders.

The Second International Social Defence Congress held at Liegein, France in 1949 demonstrated extensive interest in the movement and resulted in the creation of the International Society of Social Defence. The subsequent congresses of the International Society of Social Defence in the past two decades provided sufficient evidence of the growing popularity of the concept and ensured the spreading of the message of movement to all parts of the world. It is now emerging as a social movement to combining the philosophy of law enforcement and corrections into an integrated concept. Accordingly, the United Nations defined socialdefence as prevention of crime and treatment of offenders. Today the term has a wider meaningreferring not to an elaborate school of thought but to a vigorous movement sustained by a variety of organisations sharing certain values and method in dealing with the phenomenon of crime. In the present context, social defence as a unified approach, not only endeavours to perfect the system that protects society against criminal acts but also goes much beyond the ambit of criminal law in extending measures to forestall criminogenic situations and to treat offenders through appropriate remedial, educational and rehabilitative services. It aims to protect society from crime-generating factors and forces, not merely by treating and rehabilitating the offender but also by creating such conditions in the community which are conducive for a healthy and wholesome growth of human life.

Check Your Progress I
Note: a) Use the space provided for your answer.
b) Check your answer with those provided at the end of this unit.
1) What do you understand by Social Defence?

4.7 SOCIAL DEFENCE: THE INDIAN CONTEXT

Though no systematic account of the history of social defence movement in India exists at the moment, the idea of social defence could manage to reach India soon after it became popular in the West. The criminal justice system that Britishers introduced in India in the later half of the nineteenth century did not accept repression as an important measure of crime prevention and crime control. While drafting the relevant legislations like the Indian Police Act (1861), the Indian Prisons Act (1894), the Indian Prisoners Act (1900), the Reformatory Schools Act (1876), the Indian Penal Code (1860), and the Code of Criminal Procedure (1884), the Britishers were aware of new ideas in the field of criminal justice administration. They did make efforts to reject some of those obsolete, inhuman and uncivilized methods and techniques of crime prevention and crime control which at that time had received wider criticism in their own country. The functioning of the police, judiciary and prison in Great Britain was so structured as to permit little scope for repression and sadism. The British criminal law and the penal policy decried vengeance and retribution as a general rule.

In the early years of the twentieth century, Britishers made a thorough of the texture of criminal justice administration in India and certain reforms. The Report of the Indian Jail Committee (1919-20) furnishes a strong testimony to this fact. Some of the important recommendations of this report go on to show that social defence era in matters of penal policy seems to have emerged in India in the first half of the twentieth century. The chronicles of correctional administration, particularly after 1970, are replete with a number of changes which were ushered in to emphasize that crime problem demands solution which must be in keeping with the ethos of the time. The recommendations of subsequent Commissions and Committees that went into details of new correctional policies and practices repeatedly emphasized that the new methods and techniques of prevention of crime and treatment of offenders offer the best hope for dealing effectively with the crime problem. These recommendations called for negating the old ideas, practices and traditions of dealing with juvenile and adult offenders. They sought to establish new measures to prevent crime and reform criminals.

While any new ideas of crime prevention and treatment of offenders gained currency, the term social defence did not become that popular in the official lexicon of criminal justice administration in India. Neither did the creation of a section of Social Defence by the United Nations in 1948 did alter the situation. Very few persons could meaningfully use the term in their lectures, speeches and writings. A noticeable change in the situation was witnessed with the setting up of the Central Bureau of Correctional Services by the Government of India in 1963. Many people connected with the police, judiciary and correctional institutions could then come to understand the term Social defence in its proper perspective. The use of the term gained more usage with the reorganisation of the Bureau into the National Institute of Social Defence in the year 1973.

4.8 NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL DEFENCE

The National Institute of Social Defence started functioning as a subordinate office under the administrative control of the Ministry of Social Welfare (now the Ministry of Social Justice and

Empowerment). It currently serves as the central advisory body in the field of prevention of crime and the treatment of offenders. The main areas covered by the Institute are: Juvenile Justice Administration; Welfare of Prisoners; Probation and Allied Measures; Suppression of Immoral Traffic; Beggary Control and Drug Abuse Prevention.

The main functions of the Institute relate to technical advice to the Central and State Governments; formulation of laws, rules and regulations; training of governmental and non-governmental functionaries; collection of statistics and promotion of research; dissemination of scientific knowledge; exchange of technical know-how; liaison with academic research and training institutions; awareness building towards social defence issues, and publication of scientific and popular material on social defence. Further, the Institute assists the Ministry of Social Justice and Empowerment in the exchange of technical information with the United Nations and other International and foreign agencies in the field of social defence and drug abuse prevention.

The Institute has played a pioneering role in propagating and popularizing the idea of social defence in the country. In the initial years, under its new dispensation, the Institute had undertaken several programmes and activities which raised the hope of nurturing a strong social defence movement in the country. But, it did not happen on account of several reasons. It is true that social defence movement which began in the early eighties had lost much of its momentum, during recent times. Those engaged in the social defence sector are now disillusioned with the existing realities in the critical sectors of social defence. All this has happened because the lofty ideals of social defence have not percolated down to the formulation and implementation of existing social defence programmes

Check Your Progress II
Note: a) Use the space provided for your answer.
 b) Check your answer with those provided at the end of this unit. 1) Describe the functions and activities of the National Institute of Social Defence (NISD).

4.9 SOCIAL DEFENCE PROGRAMMES

The Social Defence Division of the Ministry of Social Justice and Empowerment, Government of India is implementing a variety of programmes for the neglected and marginalized people; abandoned, destitute, neglected and delinquent juveniles who need care and protection, children who are in conflict with the law, the street children; the drug addicts; the offenders, the aged and host of others who need special care and support. The programmes and policies aim at equipping them to sustain a life of respect and to become useful citizens. In this process, the government plays the role of a catalyst. The State Governments, autonoumous bodies, NGOs and even the corporate world are involved in the implementation of these programmes. In brief the social defence programmes are meant to aid; prevent neglect, abuse and exploitation; and provide assistance to the deprived with an aim to bring them into the mainstream.

The following are some of the important programmes of the Social Defence Division.

Care and Protection of Children

In order to provide care and protection to children who for various reasons require it, the Juvenile Justice (Care and Protection of Children) Act, 1986 (as amended in 2000,2006,2011) has come into force. The Act provides services for the care, protection, treatment, development and rehabilitation of juveniles who have not completed eighteen year of age, by adopting a child - friendly approach in the adjudication and disposition of matters in their best interest and for their ultimate rehabilitation through various institutions established under the Act. It deals with two categories of children:

Children in need of care and protection – children without any home or settled place or abode and without any ostensible means of subsistence; mentally or physically challenged children or children suffering from terminal diseases or incurable diseases having no one to support or look after; children whose parents and guardians are unfit or incapacitated to exercise control; abandoned, missing, destitute and run away children; children who are being or are likely to be exploited for the purpose of sexual abuse or illegal acts and children who are found vulnerable or are likely to be inducted into drug abuse or trafficking.

Children (juveniles) in conflict with law – those who are alleged to have committed an offence.

The institutional measures for the above categories of children include observation homes, special homes, children homes and shelter homes. Observation homes provide temporary reception of juveniles in conflict with law during the pendency of inquiry regarding them. Special homes provide for reception and rehabilitation of juveniles in conflict with law. Children homes provide residential care, treatment and rehabilitation services for children who are destitute, abandoned, abused and exploited. Shelter homes (run by voluntary organisations) function as drop-in-centres for the children in need of urgent support.

Under the Act, special adjudication machinery has been established such as Juvenile Justice Board for juveniles in conflict with law and Child Welfare Committee for children in need of care and protection.

The process of rehabilitation and reintegration of children is carried out alternatively by (i) adoption, (ii) foster care, (iiii) sponsorship and sending the child to an aftercare organisation.

Integrated Programme for Street Children

The objective of this programme is to prevent destitution of children and facilitate their withdrawal from life on the street. The programme provides for shelter, nutrition, health care, education, recreation facilities to street children and seeks to protect them against abuse and exploitation. The target group of this programme is children without homes and family ties i.e. street children and children especially vulnerable to abuse and exploitation, such as children of sex workers and children of pavement dwellers. In addition to voluntary organisations, State Governments, UT administration, local bodies and educational institutions are also eligible for the financial assistance from the Government to run these programmes.

Inter-country Adoption of Children

Considering the fact that there are about 30 million orphans in the country, of which 12 million are destitutes, and also keeping in view the malpractices indulged in by the voluntary organisations while offering Indian children in adoption to foreign parents, the Supreme Court of India in the year 1984 and also subsequently, delivered a series of judgements pertaining to child adoption. As per the directions of

the Supreme Court regarding legal principles, norms and procedures to be followed in the inter-country adoptions, the Central Adoption Resource Agency (CARA) was set up in 1990. As an agency registered under the Societies Registration Act, CARA functions as an autonomous body funded by the Social Defence Division of the Ministry of Social Justice and Empowerment. It facilitates the adoption of orphaned, homeless, abandoned, exploited, abused and institutionalized children.

Besides, the Ministry has also granted recognition to both Indian and foreign agencies which are engaged in sponsoring Indian children for adoption abroad. 77 agencies in the country have been given recognition for doing inter-country adoption. In addition, 293 foreign agencies have been enlisted in more than 25 countries to sponsor inter-country adoption of Indian children. The Ministry has also issued guidelines for 'Foster Family Care' as an alternative to institutional care of children awaiting adoption.

Care for Older Persons

The population of older persons in India is increasing at a fast pace. The index of Ageing indicates that while in 1971, there were nearly 14.2 older persons for every 100 children, this figure rose to 24.7 per 100 children by 2001. Indian society has been witnessing a definite withering away of joint family system as a result of which the elders in the family are exposed to emotional neglect and lack of physical and financial support. The Social Defence Division of the Ministry of Social Justice and Empowerment, Government of India provides for the needs of older persons through its various programmes and activities.

In the year 1999 the Government has come out with a National Policy for Older Persons (NPOP) during the United Nations International Year of Older Persons. In keeping with the provisions contained in the NPOP, a National Council for Older Persons (NCOP) was constituted in 1999 to operationalize the action strategies as envisaged under the identified areas of intervention. The NCOP is the designated office for receiving suggestions, complaints and grievances from individual older persons. The Ministry has also commissioned AADHAR, as a secretariat for NCOP. This is being coordinated by 'Age well Foundation'. Aadhar

is an initiative in the direction of empowering the elderly population to find satisfactory solutions to the problems as per their felt needs through the coordination of voluntary efforts and administrative initiatives. Since its constitution in December 1999, Aadhar is attending to requests for intervention received from all over the country by the Ministry and various other government agencies and functionaries. Aadhar is also identifying committed individuals and organisations across the country to undertake grassroots action programmes.

The Integrated programme for the Older Persons is about people above 60 years of age, particularly the infirm, destitutes and widows. Under this Scheme, grant is given for running old age homes, day-care centers, mobile medicare units and also non-institutional services for older persons. The aim is to improve the quality of life for older persons.

Prevention of Alcoholism and Substance Abuse

The use of dependence-producing substances in some form or the other has been going on since time immemorial. In India too, the abuse of alcohol, opium and cannabis has been known for long. However, the consumption of drugs like heroin, hashish, LSD etc., is altogether a new trend. Within the last decade or so, the extent of usage of such drugs in various segments of Indian society has assumed alarming dimensions. Today, India is not only a transit country for illicit trafficking of drugs from the 'golden triangle' or 'golden crescent', but it is also becoming a significant consumer in the global scenario. As

long as addiction was a problem of certain individuals or socially alienated groups and as long as it was kept under control by informal social control mechanisms, it did not evoke much attention. However, with its spread amongst all socio-cultural and economic strata and an increasing perception of its disruptive influence on the individual, the family and society, drug abuse has emerged as a vital issue for planners.

In order to tackle the problem of drug abuse, a two-pronged strategy of supply control and demand reduction has been adopted. While the control of supply is taken care of by the Narcotics Control Bureau and the Police, the Ministry of Social Justice and Empowerment took the responsibility of looking after the educational and rehabilitation aspects of drug abusers. The Ministry of Social Justice and Empowerment is working towards:

- i) Building awareness and educating people about the ill effects of drug abuse.
- ii) Dealing with the addicts through a well rounded programme of motivation, counselling, treatment, follow-up and social reintegration of cured drug addicts.
- iii) Imparting drug abuse prevention and rehabilitation training to volunteers.

As the implementation of programmes of drug demand reduction required community-based efforts, the Ministry had been implementing the Scheme of Prohibition and Drug Abuse Prevention in collaboration with NGOs since 1985-86. Recently a comprehensive review of the Scheme has been undertaken. The Scheme has been modified to widen its coverage and

was made more flexible to respond to the local needs and ground realities. The Scheme has now been renamed as the Scheme for Prevention of Alcoholism and Substance (Drugs) Abuse for running the following activities with the collaboration of NGOs:

- Counselling and Awareness Centres
- Treatment-cum-Rehabilitation Centres
- De-addiction Camps
- Awareness Creation Programmes
- Workplace Prevention Programmes
- Organising programmes in schools
- Community holding exhibitions.
- Publishing newsletters and journals.

The scheme for Prevention of Alcoholism and substance (Drugs) abuse was revised thrice in 1994, 1999 and 2008.

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Drug Awareness, Counselling and Assistance Centres

These centers provide community based services for awareness building, screening of addicts, counselling to addicts and their families, referral of hardcore addicts to Treatment-cum-Rehabilitation centers and follow-up assistance to former addicts.

Treatment-cum-rehabilitation Centres

These centers provide community based services for awareness building for the identification, motivation, counselling, de-addiction, after care and reintegration of addicts into the mainstream society.

De-addiction Camps

To give wider coverage, provision of de-addiction camps has been made in the urban and rural areas where there are no Treatment-cum-Rehabilitation Centres. These camps are organised only by the organisations which are running Treatment-cum-Rehabilitation Centres.

Work Place Prevention Programme

In order to encourage work place prevention Programme, financial assistance upto 25% of the expenditure for the setting up of a 15 bedded or 30 bedded Treatment-cum-Rehabilitation Centre is provided to the industrial units/enterprises having at least 500 workers on their rolls.

Awareness Generation Programmes

Awareness generation programmes which include holding of seminars, conferences, workshops, essay/debate competitions, publicity through mass media etc. have been promoted. Several radio and TV Programmes have been launched and films were produced to create awareness about the role of parents, teachers and opinion leaders in the prevention and control of alcohol and drug abuse. Voluntary organisations are being financially assisted to undertake educational work amongst the community and target groups. The ministry is also supporting NGO's working in the field of drug abuse prevention to function as Registered Research and Training Centres, for imparting training in local cultural setting to the service providers working in various areas and for undertaking advocacy, research and monitoring of drug abuse programme.

The Ministry has identified two major thrust areas for priority intervention as follows:

Rehabilitation: To achieve Whole Person Recovery (WPR)which emphasizes physical, emotional and mental rehabilitation, culminating in physically, socially and economically self-reliant life for drug addicts.

Socially and Economically Vulnerable Target Groups: Special attention is given to drug abuse problem among socially and economically vulnerable groups i.e. street children, commercial sex workers, destitute women etc.

The Ministry is also seeking the collaboration of Department of Education, Department of Youth Affairs and Sports, Ministry of Information and Broadcasting, Ministry of Health and Family Welfare and their subordinate agencies for imparting education on drugs through formal and non-formal education processes and for networking of services related to drug abuse.

In order to obtain international cooperation in the area of drug abuse prevention and treatment, the Ministry has launched the following three major projects in collaboration with the United Nations', International Drug Control Programme (UNDCP) and the International Labour Organisation (ILO). They are:

- Community Drug Rehabilitation and Workplace Prevention Programme all over the country.
- Comprehensive Programme on Community Drug Rehabilitation for North-East States in the country.
- National Survey on the extent, pattern and trends of drug abuse in the country.

4.10 PROBLEMS CONCERNING SOCIAL DEFENCE PROGRAMMES

The growth of social defence in India on sound-scientific lines has been hampered by the existence of certain problems in relation to the policy and its implementation. Some of those which deserve special mention are:

- Programmes and services in some of the key-sectors of social defence suffer from lack of
 uniformity of institutional structure, policy declarations, administrative rules and practices and
 also in terms of quality of services and scope of action.
- Compared with the complexity and magnitude of the problem under focus, the machinery of Social defence operations seems to be inadequate.
- Despite wider theoretical acceptance of new methods and techniques of social defence, old and counter-productive measures are often applied. It is a known fact that a good number of social defence institutions continue to function on traditional lines with little provision for individualized correction and rehabilitation of offenders.
- A great deal of social defence institutions suffer from the chronic lack of material and non-material resources essential, for the fulfillment of the avowed objectives of social defence.
- Social defence Schemes have a marked tendency to depend largely on institutional measures of crime prevention and treatment of offenders. As a result, non-institutional measures seem to suffer from lack of attention.
- Social defence being a State subject, States tend to ignore the directions of the central government. As a consequence, the progress made with regard to various social defence programmes is not symmetrical.
- Personnel engaged in social defence institutions and agencies have not been given proper recognition in terms of salary, conditions of service and opportunities for professional growth and development. As a result, it was difficult to attract suitable persons with requisite qualifications and aptitude for social defence work.
- Research in social defence theory and practice is scarce. As a result, there exists little data to provide empirical base about the success or failure of many social defence programmes and policies (Srivastava, 1981:224-239).

Check Your Progress I

Note; a) Use the space provided for your answer.

- b) Check your answer with those provided at the end of this unit.
- 1) Briefly describe the nature and limitations of Social Defence Programme in India.

4.11 LET US SUM UP

In conclusion, it appears that social defence movement in India has thus far made only a modest beginning. It is beset with problems such as piecemeal programming, scarcity of funds, lack of public support and understanding and so on. Seldom has the growth of social defence been based on systematic planning. It is felt that the tardy growth of social defence is because of its inability to cope up with the magnitude of problems it has to deal with. In reality there also exists a hiatus between the theoretical expositions of social defence and the field realities. The challenges faced by social defence movement in India do not have easy solutions. It needs resources which are hard to come by; it deserves a sort of planning of programmes and services which is easy as an intellectual exercise but difficult as a feasible proposition, and finally, it warrants realistic organisational structure which seems uncertain in the prevailing bureaucratic culture. Within these constraints, the social defence movement is struggling to achieve good results in its current thrust areas.

4.12 KEY WORDS

Social Defence: Protection of society through measures of prevention, control

and correction, against such social problems which cause social disorganisation, create deviance and disorder, which

disturb the orderly functioning of social institutions.

Prevention: Forestalling such factors and forces which cause various

forms of individual and social pathology, i.e. problems of

deviance delinquency, crime, exploitation and abuse

Control : Use of social and legal measures to keep social problems

within the manageable limits.

Correction : Interventionist measures comprising treatment, rehabilitation

and social mainstreaming of persons with a background of crime and delinquency and are exposed to moral and social

danger.

Care and Protection of

Children

Institutional and non-institutional programmes and services

envisaged (and provided for) under the Juvenile Justice

(care and Protection of Children) Act, 2015

4.13 SUGGESTED READINGS

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4.14 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Check Your Progress I

The term 'social defence' is of Italian origin. It has been frequently used in the peno-correctional theory of the European countries. It gained popularity when it was adopted by the United Nations in 1948. The United Nations gave a very broad definition of the term, describing it as measures undertaken for the prevention of crime and treatment of offenders. However, in recent years, the concept of social defence has been enlarged to include a wide range of preventive, curative and rehabilitative measures of social protection for weaker and vulnerable sections of the society, frequently subjected to exploitation and abuse. Social defence has now emerged as a new approach to tackle the problems of such men, women and children falling prey to various forms of social deviance, delinquency and crime needing institutional and non-institutional measures of care, protection treatment, rehabilitation and social reintegration. In the Indian context, social defence not only endeavours to defend society against criminal acts but also goes much beyond to include a variety of remedial, correctional and rehabilitative measures to forestall criminogenic conditions in society.

Check Your Progress II

The National Institute of Social Defence (NISD) at New Delhi is a subordinate office under the administrative control of the Ministry of Social Justice and Empowerment, Government of India. The main areas covered by the Institute are juvenile, justice administration, welfare of prisoners, probation and allied measures, suppression of immoral traffic, beggary control and drug abuse prevention. In the recent years, the mandate of the Institute has been enlarged to cover areas relating to older persons; intercountry-adoption of children and mainstreaming of street children.

The objective of the Institute is to strengthen and provide technical inputs to Government of India's Social defence programmes. The main areas of activities covered by the Institute are collection of statistics, documentation, research and conducting training programmes pertaining to juvenile justice administration, welfare of prisoners, beggary control, drug abuse prevention and programmes for the elderly.

Through its varied activities, NSID caters to the requirements of neglected and marginalized people, abandoned and destitute children, neglected and delinquent juveniles (who need care and protection for want of support, or, are in conflict with the society or the law), children of sex

workers, the street children, the drug addicts and offenders, the aged and host of others who need special care, protection and support. The programmes and policies of NISD aim at equipping them with capabilities that may ensure them a life of respect and dignity.

Check Your Progress III

The major programmes of social defence in India until recently included programmes for the care and protection of neglected and delinquent children; welfare of prisoners, reformation and social reintegration of persons released on probation, suppression of immoral traffic, beggary prevention and control and drug abuse prevention and deaddiction/detoxification of drug dependent persons. Now the scope of social defence programmes has been extended to mainstreaming of street children; providing rescue and support services to children in emergency situations through child help line; inter-country adoption of children and providing self-respect and dignity to dependent elderly persons. All these programmes have been initiated/sponsored by the Government of India through the Ministry of Social Justice and Empowerment and are being run by the central as well as State Government, non-governmental organizations and local bodies. The services provided under different programmes included community-based services, family-based services, specialized services and emergency outreach services.

