

BIHAR - DISTRICT-WISE DATA

DISTRICT PRIMARY CENSUS ABSTRACT

Name of State/District/ Taluka/UA/City/Town	Total/ Rural/ Urban	Area of Village in Hectares & of Town/ ward in Sq. Kms.	No. of Occupied Residen- tial Houses	No. of House- holds	Total Population (Includ- ing Institutional and Houseless Population)	in the age group (0-6)			in the age group (7-14)			Schedule Population
						P	M	F	P	M	F	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
BIHAR	T	168907.60	12817298	13995980	86272187	45146742	41125445	17744453	9035936	8688517	656	656
	R	162560.47	10865386	11913355	73614371	38310536	35303835	13463978	7889355	7574623	583	583
	U	5598.23	1867755	2010532	12234841	6640635	5624206	2177717	1115044	1062673	63	63
BOHOTA	T	3202.81	474943	527321	3618211	1938340	1679871	693964	358100	333664	29	29
	R	3005.90	292232	321952	2241510	1189832	1051678	461121	237405	223716	22	22
	U	196.91	182711	208369	1376701	748508	628193	232843	120595	111948	7	7
NALANDA	T	2361.75	262322	290842	1997995	1052731	945264	397993	202896	195097	20	20
	R	2260.40	227228	251099	1701777	895013	806764	340187	173389	166798	18	18
	U	101.35	35094	39743	296218	157718	138500	57806	29307	28299	1	1
BHOJPUR	T	3961.16	339879	390853	2860447	1518950	1361497	592382	309029	283353	21	21
	R	3856.90	305074	347089	2554142	1343688	1210454	530218	277033	253185	20	20
	U	104.26	34805	43764	326305	175262	151043	62164	31996	30168	1	1
ROHTAS	T	7201.19	360988	406362	2900685	1534035	1366650	617326	316793	300533	28	28
	R	7118.20	326738	364561	2606489	1377046	1229443	559758	287436	272322	27	27
	U	82.99	34250	41801	294196	156989	137207	57568	29357	28211	1	1
AURANGABAD	T	3302.70	200946	214261	1539988	804038	735950	316347	160606	155741	18	18
	R	3239.70	186214	198417	1421936	741423	680513	292792	148766	144026	17	17
	U	63.00	14732	15844	118052	62615	55437	23555	11840	11715	1	1
JEHANABAD	T	1569.30	159491	165393	1174700	612089	562811	229342	116600	112742	11	11
	R	1525.60	149536	154987	1100430	572097	528333	215768	109558	106210	10	10
	U	43.70	9955	10406	74470	39992	34478	13574	7042	6532	1	1
SAYA	T	4941.07	359327	383209	2664803	1386528	1278275	556804	280847	275957	40	40
	R	4876.30	317070	334024	2308908	1195881	1113027	492281	248031	244250	38	38
	U	64.77	42257	49185	355895	190647	165248	64523	32816	31707	2	2
NAWADA	T	2486.62	178565	190678	1359694	702249	657445	279410	141579	137831	17	17
	R	2461.50	167410	178179	1265138	652317	612821	261187	132385	128802	16	16
	U	25.12	11155	12499	94556	49932	44624	18223	9194	9029	1	1
SARAN	T	2629.30	283296	360470	2572980	1310635	1262345	551055	281103	269952	15	15
	R	2565.70	255446	328056	2338624	1184828	1153796	506506	258421	248085	14	14
	U	63.60	27850	32414	234356	125807	108549	44549	22682	21867	1	1

DISTRICT PRIMARY CENSUS ABSTRACT

Name of State/District/ Taluka/UA/City/Town	Total/ Rural/ Urban	Area of Village in Hectares & of Town/ ward in Sq.Kms.	No. of Occupied Residen- tial Houses	No. of House- holds	Total Population (Includ- ing Institutional and Houseless Population)	Total Population (Includ- ing Institutional and Houseless Population)			Total Population in the age group (0-6)			Schedule
						P	M	F	P	M	F	M
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	
SIWAN	T	2223.02	243724	296235	2170971	1076503	1094468	469691	239323	230368	1208	
	R	2197.00	230529	281051	2055466	1015365	1040101	447462	228083	219379	1170	
	U	26.02	13195	15184	115505	61138	54367	22229	11240	10989	38	
PAHALGANJ	T	2019.23	211637	240460	1704310	866210	838100	358987	182592	176395	1063	
	R	1969.30	199716	226779	1607444	815311	792133	339365	172535	166830	1012	
	U	49.93	11921	13681	96866	50899	45967	19622	10057	9565	51	
PASHCHIM CHAMPARAN	T	4443.87	364091	378124	2333666	1243018	1090648	480961	245023	235938	1776	
	R	4354.30	329730	341556	2098298	1116478	981820	436528	222024	214504	1680	
	U	89.57	34351	36168	235368	126540	108828	44433	22999	21434	95	
PURBA CHAMPARAN	T	3958.84	449794	481599	3043061	1616436	1426625	635488	326948	308540	2111	
	R	3899.50	424980	454639	2869702	1522148	1347554	603084	310128	292958	2046	
	U	59.34	24814	26760	173359	94288	79071	32404	16822	15582	65	
SITAMARHI	T	2626.39	343367	413463	2391495	1270512	1120983	481451	250154	231297	1544	
	R	2581.50	324140	392117	2257987	1198134	1059853	456804	237637	219167	1477	
	U	46.89	19227	21346	133508	72378	61130	24647	12517	12130	67	
MUZAFFARPUR	T	3122.56	427110	483406	2953903	1551637	1402266	594651	306070	288581	2428	
	R	3067.20	391215	442367	2678938	1402057	1276861	549826	282560	266966	2296	
	U	55.36	35895	41039	274965	149580	125385	44825	23210	21615	132	
VAISHALI	T	1995.12	265543	317383	2146065	1117437	1028628	454680	235681	220999	2213	
	R	1957.60	248687	298035	2002708	1041325	961383	426871	219371	207500	2084	
	U	37.52	16856	19348	143357	76112	67245	27809	14310	13499	128	
BEGUSARAI	T	1891.32	250058	302250	1814773	956310	858463	375726	191573	184153	1378	
	R	1853.20	228080	275262	1637071	860791	776280	342309	174546	167763	1298	
	U	38.12	21978	26988	177702	95519	82183	33417	17027	16390	80	
SAMASTIPUR	T	2612.92	369199	455029	2716929	1410489	1306440	571341	294263	277078	2516	
	R	2572.40	350139	433477	2582052	1336327	1243725	546875	281629	265246	2414	
	U	40.52	19060	21552	134877	72162	62715	24466	12634	11832	101	
BARBHANGA	T	2504.28	388108	426865	2510959	1313974	1196985	514099	263112	250987	1907	
	R	2485.10	360190	396265	2292568	1197039	1095509	476526	243918	232608	1786	
	U	19.18	27918	30600	218391	116915	101476	37573	19194	18379	121	

DISTRICT PRIMARY CENSUS ABSTRACT

Name of State/District/ Taluka/UA/City/Town	Total/ Rural/ Urban	Area of Village in Hectares & of Town/ ward in Sq.Kms.	No. of Occupied Reside- ntial Houses	No. of Hous- holds	Total Population (Includ- ing Institutional and Houseless Population)			Total Population in the age group (0-6)			Schedu
					P	M	F	P	M	F	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
MADHUBANI	T	3485.44	446831	500589	2832024	1465997	1366027	564701	289076	275625	188
	R	3460.20	431347	484552	2729260	1411529	1317731	545526	279548	263960	183
	U	25.24	15534	16007	102764	54468	48296	19173	9528	9645	5
KATIHAR	T	4071.82	427706	429529	2475254	1306217	1169037	512897	265570	247327	199
	R	3966.80	398526	400203	2303573	1212035	1091538	481691	249451	232240	190
	U	105.02	29180	29326	171681	94182	77499	31206	16119	15087	9
MADHEPURA	T	1788.46	196894	203026	1177706	624689	553017	246268	126790	119498	100
	R	1731.10	185051	190669	1100669	582055	518614	231771	119473	112298	96
	U	57.36	11843	12357	76037	42634	34203	14517	7317	7200	4
FURNIA	T	3202.31	337407	346442	1876885	987241	891644	404360	205818	198542	121
	R	3121.90	312678	320481	1720743	901816	818927	375368	191038	184330	113
	U	80.41	24729	25961	156142	85425	72717	28972	14760	14192	7
KATIHAR	T	3009.85	313858	330071	1825380	956056	869324	401960	203499	198461	82
	R	2974.00	286100	301896	1653761	862962	790799	371315	188046	183269	73
	U	35.85	27758	28175	171619	93094	78525	30645	15453	15192	9
KHAGARIA	T	1485.76	170065	176114	987227	528632	458595	208468	107293	101195	75
	R	1473.30	161337	167107	928423	496937	431486	197426	101623	95803	73
	U	12.46	8728	9007	58804	31695	27109	11062	5670	5392	2
MUNGER	T	6398.63	452548	483332	3060027	1625534	1434493	623132	318846	304286	264
	R	6223.50	380814	406554	2852378	1352587	1199791	529738	270742	258996	233
	U	175.13	71734	76778	507649	272947	234702	93394	48104	45290	307
BHAGALPUR	T	5632.15	489493	526471	3202471	1707506	1494965	664378	340028	324350	176
	R	5547.10	435653	467999	2814387	1498569	1315818	594101	304284	289817	161
	U	85.05	53840	58472	388084	208937	179147	70277	35744	34533	151
BODDA	T	2110.39	148419	154699	861182	448072	413110	172502	86933	85869	379
	R	2101.80	144541	150746	837545	435224	402321	168409	84890	83519	372
	U	8.59	3878	3953	23637	12848	10789	4093	2043	2050	6
SAHIBGANJ	T	3511.45	222848	233823	1301088	671731	629357	274587	139140	135447	366
	R	3493.40	209663	219351	1206087	620894	585193	257335	130332	127003	319
	U	18.05	13185	14472	95001	50837	44164	17252	8808	8444	46

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					P	M	F	P	M	F	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
DUMKA	T	5518.32	256322	269076	1495709	765002	730707	298698	130528	145170	535
	R	5470.20	242469	254063	1404794	715993	688501	282820	140469	140351	481
	U	48.12	13853	15013	90915	49009	41906	15878	8059	7819	53
DOBHAR	T	2478.51	137377	152945	933113	458229	444584	201570	101607	100263	602
	R	2435.60	120377	127822	807954	419914	388040	180593	90419	90174	546
	U	42.91	17000	25123	125159	68315	56844	21277	11188	10089	55
DHANBAD	T	3018.92	483681	496819	2674651	1465076	1209575	498002	253232	244770	2277
	R	2565.60	217686	224102	1305899	693197	610502	270366	136185	134181	1177
	U	452.32	265995	272717	1370952	771879	599073	227636	117047	110589	1100
BIRIDIH	T	6803.77	316551	352770	2225480	1147701	1077779	481204	241422	239782	1509
	R	6520.00	259104	292263	1881567	959951	921608	417943	209196	208747	1272
	U	183.77	57447	60507	343911	187740	156171	63261	32226	31035	235
HAZARIBAG	T	11010.47	415690	461257	2843544	1471966	1371578	615041	309587	305154	2763
	R	10685.90	326908	369820	2330096	1187042	1143054	521632	261939	259693	2405
	U	324.57	88782	91437	513448	284924	228524	93409	47948	45461	357
FALAMU	T	12017.90	364964	390572	2451191	1269807	1181384	563830	285151	278679	3176
	R	11945.90	345950	370292	2320023	1198666	1121357	540166	273000	267168	3095
	U	74.00	19014	20280	131168	71141	60027	23662	12151	11511	90
LOHARDAGA	T	1490.93	48128	50374	288886	146552	142334	61111	30796	30315	53
	R	1477.00	44204	46023	257125	130357	126768	55965	28187	27778	47
	U	13.93	3924	4351	31761	16195	15566	5146	2609	2537	7
GUNLA	T	9077.14	203352	212818	1153976	580729	573247	224637	112977	111660	310
	R	9025.70	195650	204130	1101687	553104	548583	215895	108563	107332	295
	U	51.44	7702	8688	52289	27625	24664	8742	4414	4328	15
RANCHI	T	7574.17	379807	393299	2214048	1152736	1061312	413171	209959	203212	642
	R	7249.30	260208	269340	1483393	759740	723653	294831	149208	145623	438
	U	324.87	119599	123959	730655	392996	337659	118340	60751	57589	206
PURBI SINGHBHUM	T	3473.60	282325	294813	1613088	846456	766632	254408	129908	124500	398
	R	3371.60	141114	144682	763172	389521	373651	133996	68140	65856	189
	U	102.00	141211	150131	849916	456935	392981	120412	61768	58644	229

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					P	M	F	P	M	F	M
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
PASHCHIMI SINGBHM	T	8013.51	336906	345096	1787955	909796	878159	346919	174578	172341	454
	R	7852.60	285937	292267	1505840	758219	747321	301890	151783	150107	345
	U	160.91	50969	52829	282415	151577	130838	45029	22795	22234	108
ARARIA	T	2789.37	282665	294104	1611638	845257	766381	351264	176571	174393	114
	R	2738.30	266840	278013	1509360	789908	719452	331531	166938	164593	109
	U	51.07	15825	16091	102278	55349	46929	19733	9933	9800	52
KISHANGANGI	T	1938.35	186858	189829	984107	508988	475119	209040	103468	103572	33
	R	1868.60	169890	172360	884827	455745	429082	189976	95753	94223	27
	U	69.75	16968	17469	99280	53243	46037	19064	9715	9349	57

Growth Rate : 2.11.

% of Urban
Population to
Total Population: 13.14.

Density : 497 Per
Sq. Km.

Sex Ratio : 911
(Females/1000
Males)

Literacy rate: P M F
38.48 52.49 22.89

Work Participation
Rate 32.16 47.92 14.86.
(Total Workers as
Percentage of total
Population)

Crude Birth Rate : 30.5
Crude Death Rate : 9.8.

Natural Increase : 20.7

Infant Mortality Rate

Male life Expectancy at Birth
Female life Expectancy at Birth

DISTRICT PRIMARY CENSUS ABSTRACT

Agricultural Labourers		Livestock, Forestry, Fishing, Hunting and Plantation Orchards & allied activities		Mining and Quarrying		Manufacturing, Processing, Servicing and Repairs in Household Industry		Manufacturing, Processing, Servicing and Repairs in other than Household Industry		Construction		Trade and Commerce		Transport and Communication	
II		III		IV		V (a)		V (b)		VI		VII		VIII	
M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
72	73	74	75	76	77	78	79	80	81	82	83	84	85	86	87
7073997	2433027	91463	7803	300469	22248	359978	86666	538297	38150	153164	8491	983541	35830	323800	
4607728	2297137	63704	8785	148145	10852	281920	72750	239509	26103	87433	5226	462094	21819	163614	
408158	73693	77023	1007	152356	11385	77266	13072	301716	12220	66388	3241	529534	13977	161738	
243782	87976	5077	255	512	21	16221	2299	27006	1391	10067	405	76642	2660	22859	
212855	81773	2344	118	311	19	7647	1101	6953	745	2943	146	14834	785	7064	
30927	6203	2733	137	201	2	8574	1158	20055	646	7122	259	61808	1895	13795	
180874	92610	710	115	128	14	11460	2682	8666	1237	2532	147	22859	961	3839	
171523	59903	359	109	102	14	5852	1572	2295	226	1325	127	8869	562	1532	
9351	2707	351	7	26	0	5608	1110	6371	1011	1207	20	13970	399	2287	
233074	57836	2655	142	657	13	10474	1471	8251	464	3918	124	38219	1266	7116	
221893	56746	1884	114	432	10	8009	1110	4654	342	2579	91	20191	919	4022	
11181	1090	971	25	225	3	2465	361	3597	122	1339	33	18029	347	3094	
248528	77041	2985	193	2413	194	9446	1386	10210	543	4364	215	34040	1081	4591	
240299	75960	2227	184	2274	186	8084	1265	5591	479	2730	184	17428	666	2307	
8729	1081	758	9	139	8	1362	121	4619	64	1634	31	16612	415	2284	
120043	45150	814	51	365	16	6299	1045	4459	308	1164	84	10387	331	2299	
116176	44015	723	47	356	16	5671	942	3295	218	938	81	5882	221	1460	
3867	1135	91	4	9	0	628	103	1164	90	226	3	4505	110	839	
103714	46396	365	20	343	14	6003	838	1858	69	1150	101	8490	280	1669	
99992	45320	321	20	314	11	5288	784	1275	67	925	90	5582	223	1176	
3722	1076	44	0	29	3	715	54	583	2	225	11	2908	57	493	
213477	123370	819	95	747	21	13803	2807	10638	639	4251	193	31321	993	8633	
207956	120720	488	74	707	20	9451	1741	4758	471	1954	106	10942	585	3053	
5521	2650	331	21	40	1	4352	1066	5850	168	2297	87	20379	408	5780	
96470	53341	811	79	768	80	4237	936	4502	339	1747	76	19162	498	3175	
93819	52424	861	75	718	79	3703	882	3392	294	1320	71	11795	406	2327	
2651	917	150	4	50	1	534	54	1110	35	427	5	7367	92	849	
151192	38326	1806	92	296	0	5292	1638	11653	357	3416	84	28185	861	8586	
139589	37136	1417	70	269	0	7125	1343	8537	213	2712	74	18141	655	5329	
11603	1190	389	22	27	0	1167	295	3316	174	704	10	10044	206	3257	

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Agricultural Labourers		Livestock, Forestry, Fishing, Hunting and Plantation Orchards & allied activities		Mining and Quarrying		Manufacturing, Processing, Servicing and Repairs in Household Industry		Manufacturing, Processing, Servicing and Repairs in other than Household Industry		Construction		Trade and Commerce		Transport, Storage and Communication	
II		III		IV		V (a)		V (b)		VI		VII		VIII	
M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37
94914	31447	1561	62	203	3	5959	1158	12893	331	3689	52	24404	575	5266	
92467	31069	1082	56	182	3	4754	982	10494	264	3125	45	14696	435	4242	
2447	380	479	6	21	0	1205	176	2399	67	563	7	9708	140	1024	
100722	31248	769	40	192	5	3846	515	6425	195	1782	28	11357	231	1438	
95930	30497	667	38	183	8	3304	479	5242	177	1446	25	7084	193	1085	
4752	761	102	2	9	0	542	36	1183	21	336	3	4273	38	350	
313928	107449	1812	181	207	39	8013	1011	7283	360	2076	84	17715	494	2621	
298901	103667	1499	173	145	34	5575	755	3847	260	1330	62	7634	295	1352	
15027	3782	313	8	62	5	2438	256	3436	100	746	22	10081	199	1269	
377347	72444	2659	84	298	3	7192	1477	7871	166	2769	34	21503	360	5169	
367850	70960	2194	77	270	3	6166	1201	5308	115	2200	27	13087	260	3618	
9497	1484	465	7	28	0	1006	276	2563	51	569	7	8416	100	1551	
310966	23226	2379	105	189	7	7165	1021	10506	259	3650	33	21646	654	4870	
303595	22808	1823	101	182	5	6705	972	7739	179	2914	29	12837	504	3559	
7371	418	556	4	7	1	460	49	2767	80	736	4	8809	150	1311	
295992	51444	4710	235	250	1	8805	1279	17365	571	5414	48	38242	991	14431	
289485	50884	3443	206	198	1	7816	1012	10653	402	3594	35	19366	584	9723	
6507	560	1267	29	52	0	989	267	6712	169	1820	13	18876	407	4708	
170335	26335	1234	74	132	1	8464	643	10423	530	3150	86	19981	577	7095	
162428	25516	1008	66	110	1	7267	691	8098	472	2476	79	14165	462	5804	
7907	819	226	8	22	0	1197	152	2325	58	674	7	5816	115	1291	
191731	43162	2355	176	287	38	10044	2724	12432	1460	4148	217	19746	1076	8999	
183425	42067	2021	149	264	37	8810	2511	9124	1357	3382	196	12607	820	5139	
8306	1095	334	27	23	1	1234	213	3308	103	766	21	7139	256	3860	
261427	49719	4058	217	246	14	11710	1781	15480	673	3334	43	31160	1457	13052	
256484	48994	3661	205	242	14	11042	1663	12725	592	2789	40	22445	1142	8877	
4943	725	397	12	4	0	668	118	2755	81	546	3	8715	315	4175	
261500	57091	3213	265	263	5	8272	1708	12890	330	3416	44	28873	1214	9146	
759171	56911	2178	228	221	5	7655	1519	7554	197	1677	28	14844	680	5235	
2329	180	1035	37	42	0	617	189	5336	133	1739	16	14029	534	3911	

DISTRICT PRIMARY CENSUS ABSTRACT

Agricultural Labourers		Livestock, Forestry, Fishing, Hunting and Plantation Orchards & allied activities		Mining and Quarrying		Manufacturing, Processing, Servicing and Repairs in Household Industry		Manufacturing, Processing, Servicing and Repairs in other than Household Industry		Construction		Trade and Commerce		Transport and Communication	
II		III		IV		V (a)		V (b)		VI		VII		VIII	
M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37
285984	84747	1976	237	160	3	10536	2799	8640	424	2599	73	18762	904	4230	
281230	83491	1766	236	149	3	9508	2606	6823	366	2270	71	12892	791	3842	
4754	1256	210	1	11	0	1028	193	1817	58	329	2	5370	113	688	
250952	136176	1956	355	63	10	4343	1112	5295	464	2340	121	19266	809	3388	
241743	132352	1891	351	54	10	3982	923	3731	407	1626	117	12886	623	2102	
9209	3824	65	4	9	0	361	189	1564	57	714	4	6330	196	1286	
131256	79773	1138	166	47	2	2415	495	2060	143	647	44	8374	264	1005	
126425	77205	1059	159	45	2	2131	476	1208	92	506	44	5388	203	587	
4831	2568	79	7	2	0	284	19	852	51	141	0	2986	61	418	
247251	111320	1582	62	25	2	3582	1082	5159	335	1436	73	16789	637	2347	
240719	108934	1422	56	17	2	3075	1034	3263	282	913	67	9352	430	947	
7032	2386	160	6	8	0	507	48	1896	53	623	6	7437	207	1400	
216653	78290	2139	166	55	28	4681	1001	6556	444	2348	163	20885	845	4051	
212548	77353	1881	143	49	28	3965	940	3633	358	1541	156	12893	655	2693	
4105	937	258	23	6	0	716	61	2923	86	807	7	7992	190	1358	
119487	36320	1245	32	249	8	3744	724	2813	246	1182	13	8807	351	3199	
116499	37897	1091	31	245	8	3233	598	1923	154	960	9	5432	289	2400	
2988	423	154	1	4	0	511	126	890	92	222	4	3375	62	799	
268386	109866	2235	195	1444	44	17290	8652	9091	2880	3302	140	31502	1976	20742	
246727	105186	1519	170	1163	22	11066	6905	5132	2526	1600	74	12649	1365	9298	
71659	4680	719	25	281	22	6224	1747	3959	354	1702	66	18883	611	11444	
314673	108651	4488	447	1166	15	25855	5013	10178	949	4269	193	31713	1405	9534	
300893	106559	2735	292	1117	15	17242	4319	5680	819	2667	138	15120	1025	5646	
13780	2092	1753	155	49	0	8413	694	4498	130	1602	55	16593	380	3888	
60302	24457	712	126	1092	23	6038	1747	1530	124	777	28	5115	217	1183	
59787	24365	691	126	1066	23	5724	1732	1247	124	624	28	4129	199	998	
515	92	21	0	26	0	314	15	283	0	153	0	986	16	165	
94573	34750	1739	372	1505	350	8580	5254	9860	7337	1568	946	14750	1172	6326	
91987	34509	1375	366	1430	346	7544	5179	8697	7302	1123	911	9991	1094	3814	
2586	241	364	6	75	4	1036	75	1163	35	445	35	4759	78	2512	

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Agricultural Labourers		Livestock, Forestry, Fishing, Hunting and Plantation Orchards & allied activities		Mining and Quarrying		Manufacturing, Processing, Servicing and Repairs in Household Industry		Manufacturing, Processing, Servicing and Repairs in other than Household Industry		Construction		Trade and Commerce		Transport and Communication	
II		III		IV		V (a)		V (b)		VI		VII		VIII	
M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
72	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37
65315	36888	2953	403	2106	134	11226	4372	7762	390	2326	61	16397	547	6428	
64489	36576	2420	386	2027	133	10286	4443	5445	368	1719	58	11008	466	4239	
826	312	533	17	79	1	940	129	2317	22	608	3	5389	81	2189	
36701	10987	1621	140	3529	151	7104	2063	6359	851	2850	166	12153	252	4759	
35523	10906	1022	129	3444	150	6302	1905	3779	760	1877	158	4507	145	2598	
1178	81	599	11	85	1	802	158	2890	71	973	10	7646	104	2161	
53564	12555	6194	155	163184	11097	9410	2097	83913	2309	16542	939	69168	1578	37303	
47244	10957	1618	83	72104	5151	5244	1396	18822	749	4982	290	14181	332	10194	
6320	1598	4576	72	91080	5916	4166	701	65091	1360	11560	649	55007	1246	27109	
92770	28468	2292	175	31776	2773	5629	1879	13732	418	9541	219	28823	532	14632	
79531	27918	1616	161	19784	1114	8925	1820	5243	291	6460	123	14086	285	8916	
3239	550	676	14	11992	1659	704	59	3489	127	3081	96	14737	247	5716	
113311	50660	6028	899	59669	4759	13746	3799	20941	609	10247	448	41107	1202	22251	
109051	49704	4035	629	24844	1721	11962	3468	11213	475	5814	180	18502	584	12284	
4260	956	1993	70	34825	3038	1784	331	9728	134	4433	268	22605	618	9967	
190726	92600	3309	411	4006	384	12247	2234	8234	449	2221	132	20055	658	7294	
187632	92029	3035	371	3831	379	10477	1866	6594	378	1748	117	12469	525	5137	
3094	571	274	40	175	5	1770	368	1640	71	473	15	7586	133	2137	
7692	6581	233	14	731	10	1403	504	1403	119	428	13	2697	112	776	
7524	6519	171	13	663	10	1176	478	688	82	283	7	847	52	253	
168	62	62	1	68	0	227	26	715	37	145	6	1850	60	523	
24357	22621	244	83	158	17	7442	2302	1779	264	1476	322	6392	473	1237	
23555	22371	205	81	141	16	6973	2280	1260	253	1212	305	3892	381	737	
802	250	39	2	17	1	469	22	519	11	264	17	2500	92	500	
54799	42812	2764	380	5386	599	13284	3809	13863	781	6433	309	34767	1645	12054	
47532	40323	1687	312	2475	351	9091	3165	5616	507	2533	148	8724	813	3147	
7267	2489	1077	68	2911	248	4193	644	8247	274	3900	161	26043	832	8907	
63463	44027	2093	247	11414	702	9313	2335	94511	5567	8342	1175	38558	1872	12513	
60019	43090	907	188	4846	507	5344	1587	7136	734	1655	277	5935	298	1609	
3444	937	1186	59	6568	195	3969	748	87375	4633	6687	898	32623	1574	10904	

DISTRICT PRIMARY CENSUS ABSTRACT

Agricultural Labourers		Livestock, Forestry, Fishing, Hunting and Plantation Orchards & allied activities		Mining and Quarrying		Manufacturing, Processing, Servicing and Repairs in Household Industry		Manufacturing, Processing, Servicing and Repairs in other than Household Industry		Construction		Trade and Commerce		Transport, Storage & Communication	
II		III		IV		V (a)		V (b)		VI		VII		VIII	
M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37
78464	65805	1754	169	4146	622	9723	3144	17319	2009	5311	754	15847	1028	11984	
75166	64082	1222	144	1147	355	7738	2812	6922	1455	2345	393	5090	560	4233	
3298	1523	532	25	2999	267	1985	332	10397	544	2966	361	10757	468	7751	
207785	81452	1566	105	39	29	2320	1260	4754	470	986	61	12826	573	1476	
203066	80303	1425	68	23	24	1998	1158	2704	430	424	46	7467	466	479	
4719	1149	141	37	16	8	322	42	2050	40	562	13	5359	107	997	
140236	16957	548	20	39	2	884	272	3582	563	519	11	10195	325	1034	
133847	16302	395	12	8	1	666	251	1670	461	154	6	4313	217	299	
6389	655	153	8	31	1	218	21	1712	82	365	5	5882	108	735	

(in '000)

1998	Projected Population by Age & Sex		
	Males	Females	Total
0-4	6377	6232	12609
5-9	7227	6816	14043
10-14	6802	5809	12611
15-19	5178	4200	9378
20-24	3869	3531	7400
25-29	3413	3509	6922
30-34	3211	3313	6523
35-39	2987	2889	5876
40-44	2668	2395	5063
45-49	2269	1936	4205
50-54	1842	1505	3346
55-59	1393	1192	2585
60-64	1114	1018	2132
65-69	840	743	1583
70-74	563	452	1015
75-79	268	220	488
80+	354	238	593
All ages	50,374	49,996	96,371

Based on Population Projections for India & States
1996-2016.

The Kayasthas constitute only a small portion (1 percent) of the total population of the state. Kayasthas acquired importance in Indian history since Mughal Period because they learnt Urdu (and later English in the British period) faster than other castes and were attached to rulers for assistance in governance. This caste has been politically significant even prior to independence. Many national leaders during the freedom struggle such as Sachchidanand Sinha, Rajendra Prasad and Jai Prakash Narain belonged to this caste. ^{Since} After independence Kayasthas have played active role, but, however there has been sharp decline of role of this caste in Bihar politics. The other factor that is making politically defunct is that the majority of this caste is service oriented and is hence politically uncommitted and they are also ~~not~~ not competitive. Nevertheless, this caste constitutes 5.5 percent of the representatives from Bihar in the ninth Lok Sabha.

Brahmins

Brahmins constitute nearly 7 percent of Bihar's total population. The Brahmins of Bihar are categorised, in terms of politics, into two major groups - the Maithils and non-Maithils (Kankariya, Saripuri etc). Some important Brahmin leaders like Kedar Pandey, Ramaram Tewary, Jagdish Trivedi, Bindeshwari Dasgupta, K.K. Tewari and Lal Muni-Choudhary emerged in politics and they could not ensure Brahminic dominance of Bihar's politics.

The Aikya Brahmins

Important mass political leader was emerged in 1975 as chief minister ~~was~~ Jagannath Mishra. When he assumes power in the state the Maethil Brahmins acquired important positions in the political system. With the death of the veteran Socialist leader Karpooji Thakur, Raghnath Jha from the non congress platform emerged as a likely chief ministerial candidate. ~~However~~ the Brahmins have formed an important part of the bureaucracy, judiciary and political life in the state. Nevertheless, of representatives from Bihar in ninth Lok Sabha 5.5 percent ~~are~~ ^{were} from this caste. Among ~~the~~ ^{the} upper castes ~~the~~ Bh

Bhumihars

Among the upper castes the Bhumihars have considerable landed property. Important among the leaders of the caste were Ganesh Dutta, Shri Krishna Sinha, Ram Dayal Singh. This caste has provided some women leaders like Krishna Shakti, Tarakeshwari Sinha and Usha Sinha. Shri Krishna Sinha remained in power for a considerable period in Bihar who have generated the ~~the~~ resentment of other caste communities against this caste. After the death of Sri Krishna Sinha the Bhumihars could not retain their hold on Bihar Politics to the same extent. However, in the Congress Ramashraya Prasad Singh and L. P. Shastri and in the BJP Kailash Pathi Mishra are considered pillars of their parties. After the debacle of Congress in the 1989 General election, this caste's political hold has declined. In the 1989 ~~Lok Sabha~~ Lok Sabha

Rajputs

The Rajputs have also been a land owning community active in Bihar politics. Anugrah Narain Sinha was active in the congress. Other important leaders of the caste have been Nand Kumar Singh, S. V. Sinha, P. V. Sinha, Deep Narain and Ambika Saran Singh. In the 1980s the prominent Rajput leaders who emerged as significant leaders were Suraj Narain Singh, Chandra Shekhar Singh, Ram Dulari Singh, Bhishma Narain Singh, and Kishori Sinha and Manorama Singh. The caste bagged six seats in 1989 Lok Sabha elections.

Backward Castes

The backward castes constitute nearly 60 percent of the total voters in Bihar. Till the early part of 1970s, these castes were politically not significant. In the late 1930s a Toiveni Sangh was formed consisting of Yadavas, Kurmies and Koeries - the three landed castes among the backward classes. The politically significant ^{backward} castes are Yadavas, Kurmies, Koeries, Banijyas, Kahars, Dhanuks, Nonias, Telis, Suris, Kanus, Lokans, Bindis, Hajams, etc among which Yadavas, Kurmies and Koeries are the frontline. ^{Yadavas are political elite in backward castes.} Although Karpuri Thakur was a Hajam (barber) he represented the whole backward caste community.

The turning point in the organization of these castes was in 1977 when Karpuri Thakur, the then Chief Minister of Bihar introduced reservations for backward

emerged. Important among them are Laloo Prasad Yadav, Nitish Kumar and Jai Prakash Yadav. It is important to note that the ~~Yadav~~ Yadavas have cornered the largest number of seats won by any single caste. During 1989 Lok Sabha election, backward castes other than Yadavs bagged 17 seats which 31 percent of the total seats. If we add the number of Yadavs, the percentage of seats won, is over 48 percent.

Scheduled castes

The scheduled castes in Bihar according to the 1991 census 22.22% of the total population. The districts with sparse scheduled caste population are Singbhum, Ranchi, Santhal Pargana and Bhagalpur. The major constituents of the scheduled castes are Chamar, Dusadh, Dhobi, Dom, Posi and ~~Musahar~~ Musahar. Although there are 23 castes under this category the most conspicuous in numerical terms are above five castes (71 percent). The political consciousness of the scheduled castes have no doubt been increasing since the introduction of general elections.

The important scheduled caste leaders from Bihar are Ram Vilas Paswan, Meera Kumar, Mahabir Paswan, Dumar Lal Baidya and others. ~~Jaga~~ Jagjivan Ram was the first scheduled caste leader from Bihar who emerged at the national level.

Scheduled Tribes

The scheduled tribe population in Bihar numbers ~~58,10~~ according to the ~~1981~~ ¹⁹⁸¹ census constitute ~~24.56~~ per numbers 58,10,867 according to 1981 census which constitute 8.3 percent of the total population. The highest concentration of S.C tribes are in the districts of Ranchi (54.4 Percent) Singhbhum (44.1 Percent) and Santhal Pargana (36.3 Percent). The districts of Palamu, Giridih and Rohtas have also a sizeable strength amounting to 18.3 Percent, 13 Percent and 11.4 Percent respectively.

The important tribes in Bihar are Mundas, ~~Oraon~~ Oraons, Ho, Bhumij, ~~Kharria~~ Kharria, Paharia, Thana etc. To these are added Santhals who reside mainly in Santhal Parganas administratively controlled by the districts of Bhagalpur, Santhal Pargana, Deoghar, etc. Exclusion of a large part of the tribal population from the benefit of economic and social progress and the marginalisation of their culture has led to the demand for a separate state. The Jharkhand movement was started in the 1950s and since then has had fluctuating fortunes. Up to 1969 the most influential leader was Jaipal Singh who formed the Adivasi Mahasabha in 1946 and later the Jharkhand Party in 1950s which merged with Congress party before the 1967 elections. Soon every tribal organisation bore the name 'Jharkhand', such as all India Jharkhand Party, Hul Jharkhand Party, Bihar Pranti Hul Jharkhand and so on. Of all the Jharkhand parties the most influential is

reserved for Scheduled Tribes and more than 60 contestants were from the Sherkhand area from different Political Parties. BJP has shown great interest in tribal politics and was able to ~~take~~ bag one reserved seat on the slogan of a separate 'Vananchal' state.

(Source: E.P.W. vol XXVI no 18 May 4, 1991)

'Caste and Bihar politics', by
Ravindra Kumar Verma.

✓ Selected Socio-Economic Indicators of Bihar

Source: Economic Survey of Maharashtra 1997-98
State Planning Commission of Maharashtra

1. Geographical area (lakh sq. km) - 1.74 - ^{Bihar} India 32.87
2. Density of Population - 497 - @ 274
3. Sex Ratio - 911 - @ 927
4. Percentage of Scheduled caste and Scheduled Tribes to total Population - 22.22 - 9.34.18 - 24.56
5. Percentage of main workers to total population - 29.66 - 38.99
6. " " Agri " " - 74.44
7. Female workers' participation rate - 14.86 - @ 22.25
8. Literacy Percentage

Males: 52.49 - @ 64.13

Females: 22.89 - @ 39.29

Total : 38.48 - @ 52.21

9. Percentage of urban population to total population - 13.14 - 25.73

10. " " State " to all India population - 10.30 - 100.00

11. Decennial growth rate of population % - 23.54 - 23.85

12. Life expectancy at Birth (years) - 57.5 - @ 58.7

13. Birth rate (P) - 32.1 - 27.4 (P) provisional (1996)

14. Death rate (P) - 10.2 - 8.9 (1996)

15. Infant mortality rate (P) - 72 - 72 (1996)

16. Number of students in Primary and Secondary schools per 1000 Popu. (30.9.96) - 139 - 179

17. Per capita income at current prices (Rs) 4097 - 9578 (1996)

18. Net area sown P. cultivators (Hectare) 0.7 - 4.3 (1996)

19. Total cereals - 21548 - 1730

20. Yield P. Hectare (in k.g) (1996)

21. Total Pulses - 729 - 586
22. Total foodgrains - 1459 - 1516
23. cotton (lint) - 340 - 249
24. Sugarcane - 42781 - 62972
25. Foodgrains production per capita (kg) 138.5 - 206.8
26. Consumption of fertilizers
per hectare of cropped area (kg) } 64.6 - 75.7 (1995)
27. Percentage of gross irrigated
area to gross cropped area (P) } 41.0 - 35.0
28. Primary Agri co-operative credit societies -
- Percentage of borrowing members to total members } 551-1059 (1995)
29. Per capita gross outputⁱⁿ industries (Rs) 2059 - 5730 (1995)
30. Per capita value added in industries (Rs) 473 - 1200 (1995)
31. Domestic consumption of electricity
per capita (kwh) } 8.9 - 57.1 (1996)
32. Industrial consumption of
electricity per capita (kwh) } - 74.3 - 114.5 (1996)
33. Motor vehicles P. lakh of pop (No) 1427 - 3587 (31.3.96)
34. Total ~~length~~^{road} length P. hundred sq. k.m of area (k.m) - 51-67 (31.3.95)
35. Number of fair price / ration
shops P. lakh of population (No) } 57-48 (1993)
36. No of banking offices
P. lakh of population (No) } 5.2 - 6.7 (31.3.97)
37. Deposits per capita (Rs) - 2238 - 5175 (31.3.97)
38. Bank credit per capita (Rs) - 682 - 2967 (31.3.97)
39. population below poverty line (worst in India) = 48%
Same 1991 census of India
40. Expenditure on medical care
(As percentage of Total Health expenditure) } 12.79

①

Historical Background of Sharkhand

Issues of The Sharkhand Problems and Challenges of ~~Sh~~ Sharkhand

Land And Forest Alienation

One of the great sufferings endured by the tribals in the region, for generations, has been the alienation of their ancestral land to which they were masters from times immemorial. Land, to them, is a part of their socio-cultural heritage.

Like land, forest is also intimately connected with ~~tribal people~~ tribal life. Forest provides the tribals with food, fuel, fertilizer, fodder, farm implements and material equipments for family use.

In a memorandum submitted to the United Nations Working Group on Indigenous Populations in August, 1987, Sharkhand leaders observed that, "the land rights and ownership introduced by the British colonial power and adopted and implemented by the national govt. after independence, the forest laws, making land and forests as commodities for sale and purchase under the money economy and marketing systems have enabled outsiders, money lenders and the

Transfer, transference of tribal land in the hands of outsiders, especially money lenders and absentee landlords, started much before the advent of the British in the region. British colonial rule further encouraged transfer of land from the original inhabitants to the outsiders and also they used to auction landed property of the tribal chiefs for failing to pay their dues in time. Thus, gradually, most of the ~~the~~ fertile tribal lands were transferred to the 'diku' money lender and absentee landlords.

With the opening up of the area to mining and industry, at the turn of the nineteenth century, tribals were further displaced. Many of them became landless 'coolie' labourers. Some even were driven to digging. The Tata and Iron and Steel company was set up at Jamshedpur and other industries like the Hindustan Copper mines, the Indian Aluminium company, the National Coal Development Corporation and others followed soon. Since Independence, with ~~the~~ launching of the Five Year Plans, both the Central and State Govts. ~~has~~ established heavy industries in and around Ranchi, Bauxela, Bokaro and Hatia. Construction of dams and hydroelectric power project engulfed thousands and thousands acres of ~~land~~ land without providing adequate

resulted ⁱⁿ many of the former tribal land owners working as 'coolies' on their own land on poor wages. Along with the big industries, ancillary industries also developed, taking away more and more ~~land~~ tribal land. More than 250 mines, situated in the Kolhan area of Singhbhum district, also caused large-scale displacement of tribals from arable land.

Besides, both Govts. has taken away sizeable portion of forest land under the Indian Forest Act, in the name of scientific management of forests and economic development of the nation. Such schemes are generally denounced by tribals leaders as a part of the over all policy of the Government to uproot the tribals and peasants from their own land, forcing them to earn their livelihood in the urban and industrial centres.

Immigration

The people of Chotanagpur have witnessed steady flow of outsiders to the region ever since the days of the Fourth Nagbanshi King Pratap Rai and subsequent rulers of Mughal and British. Rapid industrialization and development of surface communication facilities

This large scale influx of outsiders, mainly from north and central Bihar, not only deprived the local people of the newly created job opportunities and training facilities but also practically forced them to leave their own land in search of menial jobs in far distant places like Punjab, Arsam and others.

The steady influx of external population and gradual eviction of the local people made the tribals minority in their own land. In 1891, there were only 1,00,000 outsiders and today immigrants from north and central Bihar accounts for some 2.6 million people.

The immigrants, accounting for not more than fifteen percent of the total population of the region, thus, grabbed most of the lucrative jobs at the expense of the local Thakchamis. This disproportionate representation of the local people in industrial sector and their involvement in temporary, lowly paid and unskilled jobs clearly proves that apart from their lack of required skill and perhaps a preference for seasonal employment, tribals, in general, were deprived of the educational and training facilities.

deliberately kept as a reserve work force of cheap, segregated, unorganised labourers in the interest of the industrialists and business houses. De-reservation at the post on the plea of non availability of qualified candidates, is a very common occurrence today even there are reservation for the tribal in training and jobs under the public sector. Besides, outsiders non-tribal ~~at~~ very often deprive the genuine Scheduled tribe people by acquiring fake certificates through various unscrupulous ~~means~~.

Cultural identity

Jharkhand

①

Com H 44:2

~~Socio-Economic and political~~
Source: Sevastham 22 (1997), 'The beginning in the
Jharkhand context, by Christopher Lakara S.J.
Geographical, Socio-cultural and poli-
tical components of Jharkhand

1) Geographical: The geographical sense of the word Jharkhand refers to its physical confines. It is a territory with some dimensions and population, located in the southern part of the state of Bihar, includes 16 districts of south. Because of its special topography this region is called Jharkhand which literally means the forest tract. Such a name was also given to this tract as Khokhra as far back as during the Moghul period. The presence of the Moghul empire was extended to this region already from 1585. The emperors had heard about precious diamond and elephants available in the forest tract of this region.

Socio-cultural: The main tribes inhabiting this region are the Santals, Oraons, Mundas, Kharias and Hos. Although the period of their settling down varies from one tradition to another, they have all lived in the region together for the greater part of the time and thus have evolved more or less a common composite culture as a result. In the very beginning most of these tribes were like the nomads, but over the period some of them became settled agriculturists, while others practised jhum cultivation, which is also known as slash and

organised on the basis of clan, with a very wide ranging network of strong kinship system.

There is another group of people called in the Charkhand region which is known as the Sadans. The group includes the Nagbansis, Bawatis and a number of ~~socio-economic~~ economically backward castes and communities whose destinies are also very much like those of the tribals. This group emerged in close social association with the tribals as they were part of the same villages where the former dwell. They emerged out the social contacts of tribals with the rajas and Zamindars and their lower officers in the time of the Zamindari system. Some minor communities like the Bohars, Telis, Mahadis, some groups like the Ahirs, Darjis and Julahas, who settled down here during the Mughul Period also form the inhabitants of Charkhand. No wonder why the claim to be Charkhandi is made by almost all the big and small groups which are mentioned above. The heterogeneity of the population composition reflects a wide range not to mention the late comers from North Bihar. That is why the tribal population of the present Charkhand region has been diluted to mere 32 percent.

In spite of the changes which have come in the Charkhand social and cultural life there is still a persistence of the tribal culture in the region. For this ~~very~~ reason the land is still ~~called~~ known as the tribal heart-land. After all nearly 92% of the total number of tribals of Bihar are found in Charkhand.

By living together in the plateau of Sherkhand these social groups developed similar socio-economic, political and cultural levels and patterns of life. The tribal society was, however, distinguished for its social organisation which is based on the clan system. Equality in society, common ownership of property, prevalence of co-operation, communitarian life, simplicity, honesty, hard work, love for music and dance are some of the most characteristic features of the tribal society. Their simple art and culture flourished in nature and in consonance with their environment.

(iii) political

It may be recalled that this dimension of the word Sherkhand needs little explanation more specially in the present day context. Sherkhand as a social-cultural movement had its ~~origin~~ origin way back in 1915, although with the different name. At that stage of the movement this was hundred percent in the ~~hands~~ hands of the tribals. But as the time passed and the independence movement of India was intensifying the tribals also began to visualise their separate political identity. It reached its highest zenith in 1938 under the name of Adivasi Mahasabha was born into a full fledged political party in 1950 as the Sherkhand party.

To-day this party has been

State

Sharkhand ~~People~~. The struggle is on to achieve the dream of a separate state in spite of the leaders being divided on the grounds of strategy and operation. Sharkhand in this sense is a political entity which encompasses social and cultural entity as well. Almost everybody residing in this area calls himself a Sharkhandi, although not all share the same sentiments of the Adivasis of the region. This can be seen in their differences of opinions and positions taken with regard to some of the regional issues the most critical among them being the question of displacement. As a matter of fact this serves as the touchstone of a real Sharkhandi.

Whether or not one is a real Sharkhandi at heart, almost every section of the society, including the ~~the~~ immigrants, have joined in the rat race for power in the region. The sole objectives of various factions either under the flag of Sharkhand or Vananchal is to capture power structure. The local Adivasis, also known as the ~~the~~ indigenous people, the real sons of the soil, however struggling to gain control over the local resources. The tug of war is going on for several decades between the local people and the government. The creation of ^{the} Sharkhand Autonomous Area Council does not empower this region. It is still kept very much under the control of State Govt. It is

Com H44:3

Comparative study of selected socio-economic indicators of India and Bihar

Source: Economic Survey of Maharashtra 1997-98, State Planning Commission of Maharashtra

held type at the end

Top with held type

Sl. No.	Socio-Economic Indicators	Bihar	India
1.	Geographical area (lakh km ²)	1.74	32.87
2.	Density of population per Sq. km	497	274
3.	Sex ratio	911	927
4.	Percentage of scheduled caste and scheduled tribes to total population	24.56	34.18
5.	Percentage of main workers to total population	29.66	38.99
6.	Percentage of agricultural workers to total population	74.	
7.	Female workers' participation rate	14.86	22.25
8.	Literacy percentage		
	Males	52.49	64.13
	Females	22.89	39.29
	Total	38.48	32.21
9.	Percentage of urban population to total population	13.14	25.73
10.	Percentage of state population to all India population	10.30	100.0
11.	Decimal growth rate of population %	23.54	23.85
12.	Life expectancy at birth (in years)	57.5	58.7
13.	Birth rate (provisional- 1996)	32.1	27.4
14.	Death rate (provisional- 1996)	10.2	8.9
15.	Infant mortality rate (provisional- 1996)	72	72
16.	No. of students in primary & secondary schools/1,000 population (30.9.96)	139	179
17.	Per capita income at current prices (Rs)- [1996]	4097	9578
18.	Net area sown / cultivator (per hectare)[1996]	0.7	1.3
19.	Total cereals yield/hectare (in kg) [1996]	1548	1730
20.	Total pulses	729	586
21.	Total food grains	1459	1516
22.	Cotton (lint)	340	249
23.	Sugarcane	4278 1	6897 2
24.	Food grain production /capita (kg)	138.5	206.8
25.	Consumption of fertilizers/hectare of cropped area (kg)[1995]	64.6	75.7
26.	Percentage of gross irrigated area to gross cropped area (provisional)	41.0	35.0
27.	Primary agri.co-op credit societies %age of borrowing members:total members[1995]	551	1059
28.	Per capita gross output in industries (Rs) [1995]	2059	5730
29.	Per capita value added in industries (Rs) [1995]	473	1200
30.	Domestic consumption of electricity per capita (kw)[1996]	8.9	57.1

31.	Industrial consumption of electricity per capita (kw)[1996]	74.3	114.5
32.	Motor vehicles/lakh of population (No.)[31.3.96]	1427	3587
33.	Total road length/100 km ² of area (km)[31.3.95]	51	67
34.	Number of fair price/ration shops per lakh of population[1993]	57	48
35.	No. of banking offices/lakh of population[31.3.97]	5.2	6.7
36.	Deposits per capita (Rs.) [31.3.97]	2238	5175
37.	Bank credit per capita (Rs.) [31.3.97]	682	2967
38.	Population below poverty line		
39.	Expenditure on medical care (as %age of total expenditure)	12.79	

Caste and Bihar Politics

Ravindra Kumar Verma

Though the backward castes constitute nearly 60 per cent of Bihar's electorate, till the early years of the 1970s these castes were politically not significant. 1977 was the turning point in their political organisation when reservation for backward castes in government service was introduced.

THE strength of the total electorate in Bihar was 3,49,30,842 in 1977 which rose to 3,97,13,485 in 1980, 4,33,31,010 in 1984 and nearly 5.40 crore in the 1989 parliamentary elections when the voting age was reduced to 18. Though the electorate may be classified on the basis of caste, religion, class etc, caste considerations are of prime importance. After 1977 when the Janata government introduced caste based reservations in Bihar three basic caste groups emerged—forward castes, backward castes and scheduled castes and scheduled tribes.

The forward castes consist of Brahmins, Bhumihars, Rajputs and Kayasthas. Land and other resources such as official position, literacy, better economic conditions and social respect have been the privilege of these castes which accounts for the political dominance of these castes. But now the situation has begun to change and these castes are being gradually eclipsed politically. However, they still retain a political significance disproportionate to their numerical strength.

The Kayasthas constitute only a small portion (1 per cent) of the total population of the State. Kayasthas acquired importance in Indian history since Moghal period because they learnt Urdu (and later English in the British period) faster than other castes and were attached to rulers for assistance in governance. This caste has been politically significant even prior to independence. Many national leaders during the freedom struggle such as Sachchidanand Sinha, Rajendra Prasad and Jai Prakash Narain belonged to this caste. Since independence Kayasthas have played a significant role in Bihar politics. K B Sahaya, Badrinath Verma, Mahamaya Prasad Sinha Vindeshwari Prasad Verma, Phulan Prasad Verma, Jagat Narain Lal, Shyam Nandan Sahaya, Baldeo Sahaya, Kamaldeo Narain, Anirudha Prasad and P N Sinha were among the prominent legislators who were active in party politics in Bihar between 1946 and 1967. There has, however, been a sharp decline of role of this caste in Bihar politics particularly since the 1972 assembly elections.

It is a notable fact that in almost all the urban areas in Bihar Kayasthas are numerically significant. The Patna Lok Sabha constituency alone has nearly 1.5 lakh Kayastha voters amounting to nearly

15 per cent of the electorate. Two of the assembly segments Patna Central and Patna West have 46,000 and 93,000 Kayastha voters respectively. The Chitragupta Mahasabha, was a significant political force in Ranchi during the 1989 Lok Sabha polls. The Kayastha voters are very important in the Patna Lok Sabha constituency. Former General S K Sinha, among the prominent contestants from Patna in 1984 general elections, polled over 1.17 lakh votes. Shailendra Nath Srivastava (BJP) won the Patna seat in the 1989 elections by a margin of 21,593 votes defeating sitting Congress(I) MP, C P Thakur. Other prominent Kayastha leaders are Subodh Kant Sahay (Union minister of state) and Dharmesh Prasad Verma who won in 1989 Lok Sabha elections. However, when Bihar as a whole is considered the Kayasthas are being marginalised in Bihar politics. For this reason all but the highly political Kayastha voters may go to the BJP.

The reason that the Kayasthas are being marginalised in Bihar politics is on account of the close nexus between violence and politics. Being numerically insignificant this caste is unable to handle or use muscle power or organise a private militia. The other factor that is making it politically defunct is that the majority of this caste is service oriented and is hence politically unorganised. Bihar's politics has altered substantially since the first two decades of independence and in this changed situation the Kayasthas are not competitive. Nevertheless, this caste constitutes 5.5 per cent of the representatives from Bihar in the ninth Lok Sabha.

Brahmins constitute nearly 7 per cent of Bihar's total population. The Brahmins of Bihar are categorised, in terms of politics, into two major groups—the Maithils and non-Maithils (Kankubja, Sarjupari etc). The Maithils generally come from the northern districts like Darbhanga, Madhubani, Sitamarhi, Muzaffarpur, Bhagalpur, Saharsa, Purnea, Munger and Begusarai while the non Maithils reside in other parts of the State and are generally concentrated in middle Bihar.

Although some important Brahmin leaders (of the latter category) like Kedar Pandey, Ramanand Tewary, Jagannarain Trivedi, Bindeshwari Dubey, K K Tewari

and Lal Muni Choube emerged in politics they could not ensure Brahminical dominance of Bihar level politics. They could only remain confined to scattered Brahmin pockets. The political role of this caste in Bihar is visible since the 1960s.

The Maithil Brahmins came to the forefront in 1961 when Binodanand Jha became the chief minister and continued till 1963. With his coming to power Brahmins acquired a sense of unity and Brahminical unity was short lived. Main power reemerged in the early 70s with the rise of Lalit Narain Mishra who established his political significance under the leadership of Indira Gandhi. However, the most important mass political leader who emerged in 1975 as chief minister was Jagannath Mishra. When he assumed power in the State the Maithil Brahmins acquired important positions in the political system. Harinath Mishra, Ratan Nandan Jha, Nagendra Jha, Bhagwat Jha Azad became part of the centre of power in the State. With the death of the veteran Socialist leader Karpoori Thakur, Raghunath Jha from the non-Congress platform emerged as a likely chief ministerial candidate. However, Jha has been unable to retain the chieftainship of the Bihar Janata Dal.

Though the Brahmins form an important part of the bureaucracy, judiciary and political life in the State there has been a polarisation of this caste, into Maithils and non-Maithils. Nevertheless, of representatives from Bihar in the ninth Lok Sabha 5.5 per cent are from this caste. Although the Brahmins are supposed to be affiliated to Congress Party the Lok Sabha MPs elected in 1989—Mangal Mishra (Gopalganj), Janardan Tewari (Siwan) and Bhogendra Sinha (Madhubani) belong to three different political parties Janata Dal, Bharatiya Janata Party and Communist Party of India respectively.

Among the upper castes the Bhumihars have considerable landed property. Important among the leaders of the caste were Ganesh Dutta, Shri Krishna Sinha, and Ram Dayalu Singh. From 1937 to 1939 Shri Krishna Sinha was prime minister of Bihar and again from 1947 to January 1961 he was the chief minister of Bihar. During his chieftainship, many new leaders emerged from this community. Important among them were Mahesh Prasad Sinha, Krishnakant Sinha, L P Shahi, Ram Briksha Brahmachari, Basawan Sinha, Shyam Nandan Mishra, Ramashray Prasad Singh, Kailash Prasad Mishra and others. This caste has also provided some women leaders like Krishna Shahi, Tarkeshwari Sinha and Usha Sinha.

Shri Krishna Sinha remained in power for a considerable period in Bihar which generated the resentment of other communities.

munities against this caste. After the death of Shri Krishna Sinha the Bhumihars could not retain their hold on Bihar politics to the same extent. However, in the Congress Ramashraya Prasad Singh and L P Shahi and in the BJP Kailashpathi Mishra are considered pillars of their parties. After the debacle of Congress in the 1989 general elections, the caste's political hold has declined. In the 1989 Lok Sabha elections the caste bagged three seats which is in the forefront of the anti-Mandal struggle.

The Rajputs have also been a land owning community active in Bihar politics. Anugrah Narain Sinha was active in the Congress and was for years regarded as a lieutenant of Rajendra Prasad. Anugrah Narain Sinha was Shri Krishna Sinha's rival for official leadership. 1957 witnessed struggle between Shri Krishna Sinha and Anugrah Narain Sinha for leadership of the Congress legislature party. That struggle intensified caste-struggle in the state. Before that contest, caste rivalry at the political level was conducted in less visible ways. Now the struggle assumed a vocal and externally visible proportions. Other important leaders of the caste have been Nand Kumar Singh, S N Sinha, P N Singh, Deep Narain and Ambika Sharan Singh.

In the 1980s the prominent Rajput leaders who emerged as significant leaders were Suraj Narain Singh, Chandra Shekhar Singh, Ram Dulari Sinha, Bhishma Narain Singh, Kishori Sinha and Manorama Singh. In 1988 the Congress party in the State had to face the problem of dissident groups. As a result the Congress central leadership imposed Satyanandra Narain Sinha the son of late A N Sinha, as chief minister in order to defuse tension but his defeat in 1989 affected Rajput's hold on Bihar politics. The caste bagged six seats in 1989 Lok Sabha elections.

BACKWARD CASTES

The backward castes constitute nearly 60 per cent of the total voters in Bihar.

Till the early part of 1970s, these castes were politically not significant. In the late 1930s a Triveni Sangh was formed consisting of Yadavas, Kurmies and Koeries—the three landed castes among the backward castes. The politically significant backward castes are Yadavas, Kurmies, Koeries, Baniyas, Kahars, Dhanuks, Nonias, Telis, Suris, Kanus, Lohars, Bindis, Hajam, etc, among which Yadavas, Kurmies and Koeries are the frontline. Although Karpuri Thakur was a Hajam (barber) he represented the whole backward caste community.

The turning point in the organisation of these castes was in 1977 when Karpuri Thakur, the then chief minister introduced reservations for backward castes in government service. The forward castes reacted vigorously against this decision as a consequence of which the process of backward caste solidarity gained momentum. Since then politics in Bihar has been characterised by a fourfold division—forward castes, backward castes, Harijan and regional (tribal) politics.

The Congress Party relies on the forward castes in the State as seen by the fact that the Congress(I) in 1989 Lok Sabha elections, awarded more than 70 per cent of its tickets to forward castes for the general seats. The Janata Dal awarded more than 80 per cent of its tickets to non-forward castes at the behest of Laloo Prasad Yadav. The distribution of Lok Sabha tickets by different political parties suggests that the Yadavas, Koeries, Kurmies and Baniyas enjoy considerable political influence in the State due to their numerical strength and growing militancy.

It is clear that Yadavas are the political elite among the backward castes. Ram Lakhan Singh Yadav emerged as caste leader in 1960s under the patronage of chief minister K B Sahay and until recently was considered the sole Yadav leader. The other Yadav leaders like B P Mandal and Daroga Prasad Rai were not recognised as caste leaders at the State level. After the death of K B Sahaya and the phenomenal rise of Brahmins in Bihar politics,

Ram Lakhan Singh Yadav although he did not lose the leadership of his caste gradually lost his state level political significance. The emergence of backward caste politics led by Karpuri Thakur also weakened his hold in the political arena. Due to the vacuum in backward caste politics in Bihar created by the death of Karpuri Thakur, some new faces emerged. Important among them are Laloo Prasad Yadav, Nitish Kumar and Jai Prakash Yadav.

It is important to note that the Yadavs have cornered the largest number of seats won by any single caste—Laloo Prasad Yadav (Chapra), Hukumdeo Narain Yadav (Sitamarhi), Devendra Prasad Yadav (Jhanjharpur), R K Yadav (Madhepura), Chunchun Yadav (Bhagalpur), Ramsharan Yadav (Khagaria), Surya Narain Yadav (Saharsa), all from the Janata Dal, Janardan Yadav (Godda) of BJP and Ramashray Prasad Singh (Jehanabad) and Tej Narain Yadav (Buxar) of Communist Party of India. The CPI allotted four tickets to Yadavs while the BJP and IPF allotted three each. Besides the nine seats won by Yadavas eight yadavs finished second. This caste has thus emerged politically as the strongest single caste.

During 1989 Lok Sabha election, backward castes other than Yadavs bagged 17 seats which is 31 per cent of the total seats. If we add the number of Yadavs, the percentage of seats won, is over 48 per cent.

SCHEDULED CASTES

The scheduled castes in Bihar according to the 1981 census constitute 14.45 per cent of the total population. In terms of growth, we find that the population ratio has been increasing from one census to the next. The percentage of scheduled caste in Bihar in 1951 was 12.67, 14.07 in 1961, 14.11 in 1971 and 14.45 in 1981. The numerical strength of the scheduled castes is 101.42 lakh. Districtwise their population percentage ranges from 9.8 per cent to 24.4 per cent. Palamau district has the

TABLE: CASTES AND PARTIES IN IX LOK SABHA ELECTION

Castes	Political Parties						Total
	JD	BJP	Congress	CPI	JMM	Others	
Brahmin	1 (3.3)	1 (11.1)	—	1 (25.0)	—	—	3 (5.5)
Bhumihar	2 (6.5)	2 (22.3)	—	—	—	—	4 (7.2)
Rajput	6 (19.3)	—	—	—	—	—	6 (11.1)
Kayastha	2 (6.5)	1 (11.1)	—	—	—	—	3 (5.5)
Yadav	7 (22.5)	1 (11.1)	—	2 (50.0)	—	—	10 (18.6)
OBC (Koeri, Kurmi, Vaisya and others)	5 (16.1)	2 (22.2)	1 (25.0)	1 (25.0)	1 (33.3)	2 (66.7) IPF+MCC	12 (22.3)
Muslims	2 (6.5)	—	1 (25.0)	—	—	—	3 (5.5)
SC	6 (19.3)	1 (11.1)	—	—	—	1 (33.3) CPM	8 (15.0)
Pasi, Dusadh, Dhobi	—	1 (11.1)	2 (50.0)	—	2 (66.7)	—	5 (9.3)
ST	—	1 (11.1)	2 (50.0)	—	2 (66.7)	—	5 (9.3)
Total	31 (100.00)	1 (100.00)	4 (100.00)	4 (100.00)	3 (100.00)	3 (100.00)	54 (100.00)

Note : Figures in brackets show the percentage.

highest concentration with a total strength of 4,78,225. The districts with sparse scheduled caste population are Singbhum, Ranchi, Santhal Pargana and Bhagalpur.

The major constituents of the scheduled castes are Chamar, Dusadh, Dhobi, Dom, Pasi and Musahar. Although there are 23 castes under this category the most conspicuous in numerical terms are the above five castes (71 per cent). The political consciousness of the scheduled castes have no doubt been increasing since the introduction of general elections. If we take the number of contestants from these castes in the Lok Sabha election we find that there has been a phenomenal rise. The scheduled caste contestants numbered 35 in 1967, 52 in 1971, 40 in 1977, 56 in 1980, 66 in 1984 and 70 in 1989. Interestingly, none of the national parties have so far fielded scheduled caste candidates from the 41 general seats in the State in the last 40 years.

The important scheduled caste leaders from Bihar are Ram Bilas Paswan, Meera Kumar, Mahabir Paswan, Dumar Lal Beitha and others. Jagjivan Ram was the first scheduled caste leader from Bihar, who emerged at the national level. In the 1989 Lok Sabha general elections the national parties such as Janata Dal, BJP, Congress(I), CPI, etc, fielded candidates belonging to the Pasi, Dhobi, Dusadh and Chamar castes. The Congress(I) fielded eight candidates, Janata Dal six, Bharatiya Janata Party three and CPI and CPI(M) from one each.

Mahendra Baitha (Bagaha), Ram Bilash Paswan (Hajipur), Dasai Choudhary (Rosera), Sukhdeo Paswan (Araria), Chhedi Paswan (Sasaram) and Jorawar Ram (Palamau) belong to the Janata Dal. Prem Pradeep (Nawada) and Ishwari Choudhary (Gaya) belong to the CPI(M) and Bharatiya Janata Party respectively. Prominent losers among scheduled castes contestants, contesting on the Congress(I) ticket, were Mahavir Paswan (Hajipur), Ram Bhagat Paswan (Rosera), B L Baitha (Araria), Meera Kumar (Sasaram), Kuer Ram (Nawada), Ram Swaroop Ram (Gaya) and Kamala Kumari (Palamau). The BJP's scheduled caste candidates who lost were Kameshwar Paswan (Nawada) Ramdeo Ram (Palamau) and the only CPI loser was Janaki Paswan (Gaya). The losers also belonged to Dhobi, Chamar, Pasi and Dusadh castes.

SCHEDULED TRIBES

The scheduled tribe population in Bihar numbers 58,10,867 according to 1981 census which constitutes 8.3 per cent of the total population. The highest concentration of scheduled tribes are in the districts of Ranchi (54.4 per cent), Singbhum (44.1 per cent) and Santhal Pargana (36.5 per cent). The districts of

Palamau, Giridih and Rohtas have also a sizeable strength amounting to 18.3 per cent, 13 per cent and 11.4 per cent respectively.

The important tribes in Bihar are Mundas, Oraons, Ho, Bhumij, Kharia, Paharia, Thhana, etc. To these are added Santhals who reside mainly in Santhal Parganas administratively controlled by the districts of Bhagalpur, Santhal Pargana, Deoghar, etc. Exclusion of a large part of the tribal population from the benefits of economic and social progress and the marginalisation of their culture has led to the demand for a separate State. The Jharkhand movement was started in the 1950s and since then has had fluctuating fortunes. Up to 1969 the most influential leader was Jaipal Singh who formed the Adivasi Mahasabha in 1946 and later the Jharkhand Party in 1950s which merged with the Congress Party before the 1967 elections. Soon every tribal, organisation bore the name 'Jharkhand', such as All India Jharkhand Party, Hul Jharkhand Party, Bihar Prant Hul Jharkhand and so on. Of all the Jharkhand parties the most forceful, is Jharkhand Mukti Morcha born towards the end of 1972.

In the 1967 Lok Sabha elections the total number of contestants from tribal constituencies was 32—of which the Congress fielded five, Swatantra Party three, Bharatiya Jana Sangh five, SSP one, CPI one and PSP one, the remaining 16 being

independents. The number increased to 40 by the 1971 parliamentary elections of which the Congress(R) fielded three, Bharatiya Jana Sangh one, PSP one, CPI one, Jharkhand Party combine nine and independents 22. The picture in 1977 was different judged by the fact that there were only 28 contestants out of whom 18 were independents. In 1980 there were 51 contestants from the Jharkhand area compared to 55 in 1984.

There were six constituencies reserved for scheduled tribes in Bihar in 1952 but from 1957 and onwards this went down to five namely, Rajmahal, Dumka, Singbhum, Khunti, and Lohardagga. In the 1989 Lok Sabha elections the Jharkhand Mukti Morcha and Congress won two seats each and the BJP one. Simon Marandi from Rajmahal, Shibu Soren from Dumka were JMM candidates. Bagun Sumbhui from Singbhum and Sumati Oraon from Lohardagga were from the Congress(I). Karia Munda from Khunti belongs to the BJP. The important Jharkhand candidates who lost in 1989 were Krishna Marandi and N E Horo.

The Jharkhand Mukti Morcha fought from non-reserved constituencies also out of which one seat—Jamshedpur—was won by JMM candidate, Shailendra Mahto. The other notable fact is that the BJP has shown great interest in tribal politics and was able to bag one reserved seat on the slogan of a separate 'Vanan-chal' State.

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DEVELOPMENT AND UNDERDEVELOPMENT The History, Economics and Politics of North-South Relations

HARTMUT ELSENHANS

Two major theoretical perspectives traditionally govern any discussion of the entire gamut of North-South relations. Although differing in their practical implications, both are very similar in terms of their basic theoretical framework: namely: Development is the result of the accumulation of capital financed, in the first case, through state mobilisation of local savings and control of external economic relations, and, in the second, through the pull of exports and the inflow of export earnings.

In this provocative book, Hartmut Elsenhans discusses the shortcomings of both perspectives and analyses the complex political and economic relations between the advanced industrial countries of the North and the developing countries of the South. He establishes the link between mass consumption and development, and criticises the world-system perspective developed by some Marxist writers. The author goes on to demonstrate how the unequal specialisation and deformation of the economies of the South resulted in a specific class structure and mode of production dominated by state-classes. It will be valuable reading for students and others interested in the economics and history of North-South relations, development economics and international relations.

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THEOLOGIZING IN THE JH

As the third millennium of Christianity is about to unfold, the teaching authority of the Church has exhorted all believers to enter into dialogue, acknowledge, preserve and promote the spiritual and moral goods found in other religions, and values in other societies and cultures. In the context of rich ethnic, cultural and religious pluralism that marks the Indian society today, dialogue seeks to bring out the liberating aspects of all religions and cultures. Affirming "dialogue as an activity with its own guiding principles, requirements and dignity", we need to relate positively to believers of other religions. It should never be employed to elicit conversions or to impose one's religion and culture on others. Often religious sentiments and structures are manipulated by political, economic, cultural or ethnic power groups in order to safeguard their vested interests. Such activities are detrimental not only to the followers of other religions and cultures but they also dehumanize the agents themselves.

The present issue of *Sevartham* in the Indian context of religious pluralism focuses on some of the dialogical processes and problems. In the past there have been misinterpretations in trying to analyse some particular ethnic group, religion, culture and value system. Such intolerant attitudes give rise to the hurt feelings expressed in some pages. But at the same time some genuine interpretations of religion and culture are also offered for future reference and scholarship.

Missionary activities in India and particularly in Chotanagpur are briefly summarized, and the scope of evangelization which is to create a better world of justice, peace and love is highlighted. Current issue-based problems, their analysis and remedial suggestions form a substantial part of the issue. Finally, book reviews and abstracts of M. Th. dissertations provide the reader with some valuable information.

— Editor

The word "theologizing" in strict sense or a belief system rationally and systematically out one's faith in daily life, it goes beyond the man and a believer theologizing is really living. From this standpoint theologizing may be understood as a living relationship between a believer and the world beyond, therefore a concrete realization of the power of the believer for a meaningful and harmonious life. When something is explained rationally it is a scientific thing, when practised it is a lived reality. Living in this context refers primarily to this aspect of his life.

The above mentioned relationship is expressed in narratives, stories, myths and symbols of a particular culture. The same relationship is established in concrete manner and it is called rituals. These three levels of natural experience are present in the everyday life of a believer.

A believer expresses faith in his life in a particular context. This context for us here is the Jharkhand. Further theologizing in a concrete manner, faith in daily practice in the Jharkhand area in an academic sense is certainly not the scope of this issue. The next question, namely, the proper understanding of the

Jharkhand as the Context

The word has three principal components: cultural, political and religious. For the last fifty years it has been primarily with the political overtone. This is the meaning of the term. The comprehensive meaning of the word and its components are treated simultaneously.

i) *Geographical* : The geographical context refers to its physical confines. It is a territory.

population, located in the southern part of the State of Bihar. The concept of the greater Jharkhand includes some parts of Madhya Pradesh, West Bengal, Uttar Pradesh and Orissa. But the present concept takes 16 districts of Bihar only. Because of its special topography this region is called Jharkhand which literally means the forest tract. Such a name was also given to this tract as Khokhra as far back as during the Moghul period. The presence of the Moghul empire was extended to this region already from 1585. The emperors had heard about precious diamond and elephants available in the forest tract of this region.

ii) *Socio-cultural* : The main tribes inhabiting this region are the Santals, Oraons, Mundas, Kharias and Hos. Although the period of their settling down varies from one tradition to another, they have all lived in the region together for the greater part of the time, and thus have evolved more or less a common composite culture as a result. In the very beginning most of these tribes were like the nomads, but over the period some of them became settled agriculturists, while others practised jhum cultivation, which is also known as slash and burn method of agriculture. Some of them still remained forest dwellers and living on the minor forest produce. The society was organized on the basis of clan, with a very wide ranging network of strong kinship system.

There is another group of people in the Jharkhand region which is known as the Sadans. The group includes the Nagbansis, Rawatias and a number of socio-economically backward castes and communities whose destinies are also very much like those of the tribals. This group emerged in close social association with the tribals as they were part of the same villages where the former dwelt. They emerged out of the social contacts of tribals with the rajas and zamindars and their lower officers in the time of the zamindari system. Some minor communities like the Lohars, Telis, Mahalis, Kumhars and Dhobis also belong to this social group. Among the Muslims some groups like the Ansaries, Darjis and Julahas, who settled down here during the Mughal period also form the inhabitants of Jharkhand. No wonder why the claim to be Jharkhandis is made by almost all the big and small groups which are mentioned above. The heterogeneity of the population composition reflects a wide range not to mention the late comers from North Bihar. That is why the tribal population of the present Jharkhand region has been diluted to mere 32 per cent.

What has been said above should not mislead the reader concluding that therefore there is not homogeneity of culture in Jharkhand region. The

Theologizing in the Jharkhand Context

truth is far from it. In spite of the changes which have taken place in the social and cultural life there is still a persistence of the tribal region. For this reason the land is still known as Jharkhand. After all nearly 92 per cent of the total number of the population in the Jharkhand land, and only the remaining 8 per cent in some of the districts of North Bihar. Apart from the pockets of tribal concentration going even to 100 per cent. The phenomenon is particularly true in the Jharkhand sub-Division. The same may be said about the districts of Chainpur and Dumri with a lesser percentage. In these areas, languages, their customs and culture are also different from these areas. Sadri is a non-tribal language which is spoken in the region.

By living together in the plateau of Jharkhand, the tribes have developed similar socio-economic, political and cultural life. The tribal society was, however, distinct from the mainstream society which is based on the clan system. It has a collective ownership of property, prevalence of cooperativeness, honesty, hardwork, love for music and dance, which are characteristic features of the tribal society. The tribal society flourished in nature and in consonance with the environment.

(iii) *Political* : It may be recalled that the Jharkhand movement in Jharkhand needs little explanation more specifically. The Jharkhand as a socio-cultural movement had emerged in Jharkhand although with a different name. At that stage nearly 100 per cent in the hands of the tribals. The independence movement of India was intensifying the demand to visualize their separate political identity. In 1938 under the name of Adivasi Mahasabha, Mr. Jaipal Singh Munda. The same Mahasabha was re-named as a political party in 1950 as the Jharkhand Party.

Today this party has been divided into two groups. One group has given up its claim for a separate Jharkhand and is now working to achieve the dream of a separate state in spite of the grounds of strategy and operation. Jharkhand is an entity which encompasses social and cultural life of the body residing in this area calls himself a Jharkhandi. The same sentiments of the Adivasis of the region.

difference of opinions and positions taken with regard to some of the regional issues the most critical among them being the question of displacement. As a matter of fact this serves as the touchstone of a real Jharkhandi.

Whether or not one is a real Jharkhandi at heart, almost every section of the society, including the immigrants, have joined in the rat race for power in the region. The sole objective of various factions either under the flag of Jharkhand or Vananchal is to capture power structure. The local Adivasis, also known as the indigenous people, the real sons of the soil, however, are struggling to gain control over local resources. The tug of war is going on for several decades between the local people and the government. The creation of the Jharkhand Autonomous Area Council does not empower very much for the development of the people in this region. It is still kept very much under the control of the State Government. It is likened to a tiger without its teeth. Bargaining is again on for a greater share of power for Autonomous Council. In the meantime demand for a status of full Statehood by many political groups goes on ~~ceaselessly~~ *by challenges*.

Living One's Faith in the Context

After having described the context we are now in a better position to understand what it means to live one's faith in daily life. The faith life of a person is a continuous process of experience and expressions of the relation with the universe and the supernatural.

Jharkhand as the Home of Tribals

Traditions hold that after meandering for hundreds of years like the Israelites of the Old Testament, the Adivasis finally found their home in the forest and hilly region of the Jharkhand. Going by some of their oral traditions, songs and dances it can be said quite convincingly that the Adivasis considered this final settlement as their promised land given in gift. The Israelites built the temple of Jerusalem as an abode for Yahweh, the Adivasis homed their ancestral spirits and other benevolent spirits in sacred groves. It could have been compared to the Garden of Eden before the fall. Everything worked harmoniously; the land was flowing with milk and honey. Oral tradition contain narratives of lavish feasting on the occasion of Sarhul while at Rohtasgarh which may well be taken as indication of life in plenty. Seasonal songs often soar high to recount their nostalgic memories of such blissful times.

However, this state of "Paradise Gained, Paradise Lost". A systematic disintegration of the tribal society from the sixteenth century onwards, the time of Moghul rule, led to economic degradation of the tribal society under the colonial rule of the British under the jamingdar system. Massive land alienation from the hands of the tribal people created a much unwanted class of jaimindars and other classes alien to the land. Systematic oppressions, including the displacement of thousands of Adivasis out of Jharkhand into Bengal and even the terrain of Bhutan.

That was about the past. But today much has changed. The tribal people are in the land. Their home is being attacked through various means. The question of displacement has come as a major issue in this region. Their home is posed for annihilation. The great anxiety is faced with such threats.

Social and Cultural Disintegration

Once upon a time the homogeneous tribal society was homogeneous because of the heavy influx of immigrants from other social groups settled down in the region. At the time of Maharaja Durjan Sal after his capture of Gwalior around 1628. Apart from the jagir system imposed on the tribal society, the growth of industry and trade accelerated the process of new influx into the region. Trade and commerce expanded in the region leading to urbanization. This attracted aliens from other regions. At the same time drove out many local people. More tribals lost their land, became poor and were making room for their more enterprising brethren. They came into the land as managers, engineers, teachers, nurses and doctors to fill the post in newly established educational institutions, courts and hospitals. The configuration of the population composition in the region with such situations the tribal society entered a period of cultural decadence never to recover fully again. A section of the same society took to formal education and moved to social and economic fronts. Today one can find a number of tribals forming a higher middle class.

has also led them and other lower middle class into alienation from tribal culture and their native villages. When this process is taken as social mobility in the real sense of the term, it may be quite a different experience for the unskilled and less educated. This is because mobility is always understood in the positive sense in that it should lead to positive consequences. Mere change from one place to another or from one occupation to another may not necessarily result into improvement in the standard of life. As a matter of fact many move into towns and cities residing in slum-like situations. This is far from giving them a higher status of life by any standard.

Situations in the rural areas are no better. By and large poverty and backwardness still remain with the rural farmers. Systematic exploitation by the money market does not help them improve their economic conditions. Rains play truant; irrigation facilities are next to nil (less than 5%). Agriculture practice remains still very much traditional. Poverty alleviation programmes have made little difference in the conditions of the people. Political patronage, bureaucratic approach to development and police harassments often do not motivate villagers to take part in the development work. As a result there is a dichotomy created in the very structure of development administration. Most of these offices and positions are occupied by non-tribals or non-local persons in whom the people of this region harbour many suspicions. The obvious social incompatibility is hardly conducive to a united effort for friendly and collaborative action. Government development programmes have helped those who have grown aware and powerful to encounter the subtle ways of exploiters. But the percentage of such people is very low. The greater number are in the rural areas exposed to various kinds of exploitations and threats by the vested interest groups.

The Latest Issues : The conditions of the people of this region, especially of the poor and the tribals, have been described vividly. This group still remains the most exploited, illiterate, poor and backward. Only a very small margin of the people have managed to rise higher in society. Their land, forests, resources on the surface and beneath the ground are constantly being exploited by outsiders and contractors in the name of the national interests. The social and economic condition of the local people grows worse day by day. This is the real irony of the whole plan of development and industrialization of this region. They are exposed to all kinds of exploitation and humiliation by the dominant sections.

A very subtle strategy is often adopted as a matter of policy by

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oppressors. It lies in keeping them ignorant and backward, so that they can be subjected to exploitation. Although there has been a rapid spurt in the region taking the line from the time of the British, half of the population still remains illiterate. The lowest with 38 percent, and economically the lowest in terms of per capita income with 10 percent. People under the poverty line are drawn from the weaker sections.

The few who are educated do not rise to a position in society either. There is tough competition. As a result of this the greater number of the educated are in the rank and file of the numerous unemployed. Even good many young men take to anti-social activities in their own communities. Such activities lead to a state of an irony !

It is very true that many agencies and organizations are active in this region engaging in development work. A larger majority of the area remain poor and backward. The point is that one should try to find out which really intend to put the poor and backward to rest. Do they truly want their progress and empowerment? Or are they really the well-wishers of the local people? Such are some of the questions which arise in the mind. In spite of so much investment in various development and poverty alleviation programmes the conditions have not improved significantly. Besides, regional issues like unemployment and migration, came up like adding fuel to the fire. It places the people feel hopeless and utter despair.

There is a deliberate but hidden strategy to change customs, religion and society by dominating the masses. In saving their culture they are destroying it. A similar strategy is often adopted to create a vote bank.

Faith Response : The question arises how should we respond to this situation. Should he take any action? What fate ? Does his faith prompt him to take any action? Or remain inactive ? I am spontaneously reminded of the bush in the Bible. Moses is placed face to face with the burning bush.

his own kith and kin. Yahweh challenged him to respond to this grim situation which involved lot of risks. To take his people out of the slavery of Egypt was not an easy task. Yet he did it. That was the kind of faith response Moses gave in that situation. He actualized his faith in his Yahweh.

Similar examples can be given from the life and teaching of Jesus in the New Testament. Jesus showed compassion to the poor, the suffering and the marginalized on several occasions. He healed the sick, forgave sins, drove out evil spirits, and in this way emancipated the entire person in order to predispose him to live up to his faith actively without any impediment. This was in fact the ultimate goal of his healing ministry much misunderstood today under the charismatic spirituality.

Every Christian gets the gift of faith in baptism. Faith is professed in this God. And he lives by faith. But what is this faith if it is devoid of charity, and does not inspire concern for his brother? What is this faith if it does not sensitize you to the sufferings of your brothers and sisters, and fails to move you to act? What is this faith if it does not put fire in you in the face of injustice? What is this faith if it alienates you from your context? What is this faith if it does not prompt you to endeavor for change and make things better? Faith remains at rituals and ceremonies if it does not move you to action in the given situation and in accordance with the situation.

Living one's faith in a context calls upon individuals, collectivity and institutions. At all these three levels faith demands actions, for actions speak louder than words. Only then our celebrations and observances find their meaning and bear fruit. If Moses and Jesus had remained passive believers today the history of the world would have been written differently. But it is not so. The believers are called for in the like manner to be actors in their social, and cultural context to create history by taking up challenges to change things for better and ever better. This is a call for every baptized person, and a duty of every citizen in society.

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REWRITING

In the past anthropologists took serious made scholarly studies about them, which were unimportant in the political map of the world. However, for their own ends, took trouble to study various aspects of the tribal people. Their theses, anthropological journals and books, and efforts, some information concerning the future of future generations. Tribal groups have a sense of keeping something in memory is often bound to undergo changes or fade away with the people. Therefore anthropologists have tried to people by storing up tribal culture and customs.

As far as collecting and recording tribal culture is praiseworthy. But as far as the interpretation and evaluation is concerned, these authors have failed. Their interpretation may be true for some parts of the world, but according to my experience their interpretations do not apply to the tribal people who were foreigners, either Europeans or Americans. They stick to measure tribal culture as well. In the past the behaviour of the tribals did not come up for discussion from their own then tribal behaviour was considered as immoral or superstitious. The same authors, who were equally foreigners to the tribal people in India, culturally and socially they remained tribals.

In the present times, too, many authors have entered the market with books on tribal life. These authors, like the earlier authors and some roadside interviewers, have not entered into the feeling and values of the tribal people.

At present some tribals are studying the works of these authors, these have lived and experienced the tribal life.

promote faith and justice. The present and future challenges in this field cannot be ignored. There is a need for formal education, no doubt. Our educational institutes should increase the level of literacy particularly among the Tribals so as to bring them at par with other ethnic groups and communities at regional and national level. These institutes should also aim at providing educational facilities within manageable distance to the economically weaker sections of the society. In most cases it is now syllabus-and-examination oriented; it should become more vocational and more job oriented. In the educational field the Church has to move ahead with the times. The Church had been for the most part unable to grapple with the problems of rapid urbanization. The education imparted by our institutions does not prepare present day youth to meet challenges of industrialization. The tribal community has very few doctors, engineers, administrators and the professionals. Therefore in the industrial and administrative sectors employment opportunities have been by and large parcelled out among the non-Tribals.

Mission schools are known for regular teaching, maintenance and discipline, yet almost all the schools work under great financial constraints and pressure. The Catholic schools are discriminated against in more than one way, be it for recognition of a new school, payment of teachers, grants of scholarship, new appointments and evaluation of final results.

11 The industrialization of South Bihar has changed the character of Chotanagpur, and the city of Ranchi, once a town with a tribal majority, now finds itself in a small minority. The decline of the tribal population in urban areas of Chotanagpur is due to the lower employment opportunities for the Tribals in growing towns and cities.

In Chotanagpur social degradation is directly translated into economic exploitation, the outcome of development for the Tribals.

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In fact, industrialization has made the Tribals of Hatia, Bokaro, Patratu and the Damodar valley destitute. Now the displaced persons are rickshaw pullers, porters and even beggars. All large cities of Bihar are situated in its Jharkhand area. Industrial development has been inadequate. Rehabilitation programmes. The continuing opposition to the range and the Koel Karo project provides a business. The Koel Karo project was supposed to be the cost of 45,000 acres of agricultural and forest land ("Sasandiri") and the means of livelihood for the villages. The peasants, aware of their history, opposed this project. In the past, in many cases, they have broken the promises, no adequate compensation. Thousands of Tribals were displaced to become unskilled workers, migrants, rickshaw-pullers and reduced beggars. The economic super-exploitation in urban and industrial areas, such as Ranchi and Dhanbad justified and re-enforced by violence. The nation is supported by violence.

National resources are extracted from the area and absorbed by the more developed urban areas and plains. A few Tribals benefit from urban-industrial development. In fact most of them have been adversely affected. It is one in which some of the immigrants take part in development in Jharkhand, while the Tribals of Jharkhand have largely remained unskilled. The large industrial projects in S. Chotanagpur, the Engineering Corporation (HEC) in Ranchi, the Thermal Power Station at Patratu and the Valley Corporation have employed large numbers of migrants. The sons of the soil have not benefited from industrial projects. In part the Tribals themselves

for their miseries. The majority of the Tribals continue to pursue their traditional occupation because they have been unable to enjoy the fruits of modern development partly due to discrimination in employment by the "outsiders" and partly because their low level of education does not qualify them for skilled jobs and because of their lack of awareness. They are considered by the "outsiders" as unreliable and lazy, as people unfit for the regular work needed by modern economy. In the eyes of industry, they make a undisciplined labour force. They are unskilled workers and seem unable to become skilled. They get drunk and do not come to work. The Tribals are not suited for modern economy. It is true that the educational institutions have raised the standard of the Tribals and people of Chotanagpur. But the tribal society is still facing lots of problems, particularly of exploitation. The tribal society lacks men and women to enter into the sectors of trade and commerce.

Major mining operations in the State are located in the tribal districts of South Bihar. Employment opportunities are not only limited, but unscrupulous contracts in mining areas go on exploiting the workers. The worst victims of this exploitation are the tribal girls who work at construction sites, in the mining areas and kilns.

In the urban areas there occurs a break-up of the tribal society and with the influx of the non-tribal population "sanskritization" of the area and as a consequence communal disharmony is ever on the increase. This "internal colonialism" has caused not only excessive economic and social control, but also it has brought Hindu fundamentalism into the social, political and religious life of the areas. The Christians perceive Hinduism and Hinduization as the greatest threat to tribal society. The Tribals must be liberated from this cultural domination if they want to be recognized as masters and free agents of history.

Political freedom and development are inter-connected with socio-economic development. This was the reason why in 1939

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under Jaipal Singh the "Adivasi Mahasabha" was a non-denominational association of non-Catholics alike. The Jharkhand Party, the political wing of the Adivasi Mahasabha, the Tribals of Chotanagpur and Santa Church formed an organization to fight for a separate State. In the post independence elections the party was a threat to the Congress Party in Chotanagpur. It entered the Jharkhand Party and in 1967 it won the ruling Congress. This caused the formation of the Jharkhand Party under the leadership of N. E. Banerjee. Speaking the Catholics have no stance in the Jharkhand Party. The Protestants have associated themselves with the Catholics still keep a safe distance from the Jharkhand Party. Why among the politicians, the majority of the tribals understood the importance of Christianity and want their voice to be heard in the Jharkhand Party. They are prepared to take risks. Past elections have caused confusion and disarray among the Congress Party. The political policies and lack of unity and

In short, the central problem of the Jharkhand Party is a crisis of leadership. There is a lack of vision and dedicated leadership. The lack of vision is the biggest weak point for the failure of the Jharkhand Party. The Jharkhandis do not find support, they are not able to develop their initial zeal. As a result, the wrong people who misguide them in the elections by giving money, position and power. Instances in the recent past of total blockades for human rights and just cause. Great enthusiasm and when the goal was not achieved ended in total disarray. The Jharkhand Party has been formed in 1995, but so far it

since the enemies of the Council, the "outsiders" who neither have sympathy for the local people nor do they have knowledge of local culture and customs, do not support financially for the development of this area so that they can go on exploiting the people of Chotanagpur economically, socially, culturally and territorially.

and NGOs

The Church in Chotanagpur should help to organize integral human development and liberation from all that limits man from self-fulfilment. There is a need for a macro-ethic that influences the decisions made at the centres of power at State or Central level. Decisions made at these centres ignore integral human development. Church's task should not be limited to the temporal liberation, though this is very important. Genuine humanization includes material and spiritual dimensions. Development which is merely economic is incapable of setting man free; on the contrary, it will end by enslaving him further. Development that does not include the cultural transcendence and religious dimension of man and society is even less conducive to authentic liberation. It is true that one cannot stop at sociopolitical liberation which is obviously a limited but essential view. Nevertheless one has to remember that the Kingdom of God is not restricted to the economic, political, social or even to ideological emancipation but neither can it be realized without them. Therefore, though they are limited, they are not outside the Kingdom of God; though they are not the whole, they are essential and real.

Conclusion

The Catholic Church in Chotanagpur has been firmly established among the Tribals. She is identified as a Tribal one and she enjoys living her Faith in her own cultural milieu. More than a hundred years ago the missionaries courageously stood by the Tribals in the face of social, economic and cultural exploitation and through their evangelization they are now incorporated into the

family of God's people. The Church has been challenged because of the rapid increase in population, a great influx of migrants causing political imbalance. The Tribals are reduced to a minority in the area. This rarely strikes the Tribals because of their position. But the times are changing and the survival of the tribes are at stake.

Finally, the leaders of the Church with their institutions, schools, colleges and institutions should strive after the wholeness from the individual point of view: embracing the spiritual dimensions; second, from the socio-economic, political and cultural dimensions; third, from the point of view of the eternal and end. The Church in Chotanagpur takes all this overall into consideration for her service and other activities national and international and liberative enough to face all the challenges.

Notes and References

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2. Augustus Stockman was born at ... entered the Society of Jesus on April 8, 1847. He was transferred to Chotanagpur on April 23, 1897.
3. P. Ponette, *The Dawn of Ranchi Mission*.
4. The four mission posts, Sarwada, ... substation Burudi came to be known to missionaries.

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cassettes with culturally appropriate programmes that can be shown on community television sets.

Status of Women

- Although there has been some progress in education in recent years, the literacy rate and educational attainment of women age 13-49 is still low, with more than three-quarters of them illiterate. The education of women can play a major role in shaping the attitudes and behaviour of women. Educational attainment is strongly associated with every important variable considered in the NFHS, including age at marriage, fertility behaviour, current use of family planning, demand for family planning, ideal number of children, wanted fertility rate, utilization of antenatal care services, receipt of tetanus toxoid injections and iron and folic acid tablets, delivery in a health facility, delivery by trained attendants, vaccination of children against six serious but preventable diseases, knowledge and ever use of ORS packets, infant and child mortality and the nutritional status of children. The status of women in Bihar is quite low and there is ample evidence of discrimination against women in several respects such as lower female literacy, lower school attendance rate for girls age 6-14, sex ratio unfavourable to women, low level of female employment, relatively low age at marriage, higher female child mortality rates, and lower vaccination rates for female children. Thus programmes to elevate the status of women in Bihar are needed. In particular, increasing the school enrollment and educational levels of girls and young women is important for reducing fertility, increasing family planning use and improving maternal and child health. The spread of education is, however, a slow process and there is clearly the need for a

well-managed, rigorous family welfare programme.

Achievement of Programme Objectives

- Major national objectives of the CSSM programme adopted in the Eighth Five Year Plan (1992-97) are to achieve an infant mortality rate of 50 per 1,000 live births (the infant mortality rate in Bihar during 1988-92 was 89 per 1,000 live births); an under-five mortality rate of 70 (under-five mortality in Bihar during 1988-92 was 128); a crude death rate of 9 per 1,000 population (the crude death rate during 1991-92 in Bihar was 11.5); and a crude birth rate of 26 per 1,000 population (the crude birth rate for Bihar during 1990-92 was 32.3). The national targets for service coverage include 100 percent coverage of antenatal care (women in Bihar received antenatal care for only 37 percent of births during 1989-92); 100 percent deliveries by trained birth attendants (only 19 percent of deliveries were attended by a doctor or a nurse/midwife during 1989-92); and a couple protection rate of 75 percent among couples in the reproductive ages (in Bihar it was only 25 percent during 1992).
- Although all of these comparisons indicate great challenges ahead for Bihar, some progress has been made toward lowering fertility and mortality rates. With its population of 86.4 million in 1991, Bihar accounts for 10 percent of the total population of India and exercises great influence on the demographic parameters of the country. If the national population growth goal of replacement fertility is to be achieved even by 2011-2016, it is necessary to increase efforts to manage the demographic situation of Bihar.

Table 4.9 Money spent for daughter's marriage

Percent distribution of ever-married women by the amount generally spent for a daughter's marriage (not including dowry) by background characteristics, Bihar, 1993

Background characteristic	Money spent on marriage (in rupees)							Don't know	Total Percent
	None	<5000	5000 <10000	10000 <14999	15000 <24999	25000 <49999	50000+		
Residence									
Urban	0.2	6.2	9.7	14.1	13.6	15.5	31.7	9.1	100.0
Rural	0.2	11.3	20.1	20.3	13.9	10.5	10.0	13.8	100.0
Backward districts	--	13.2	23.1	20.2	12.6	10.4	9.8	10.7	100.0
Education									
Illiterate	0.1	12.5	21.7	21.3	13.3	9.3	7.1	14.6	100.0
Lit. < mid. complete	0.4	4.7	9.0	13.8	18.4	18.5	28.3	6.9	100.0
Middle school complete	0.8	2.4	10.0	12.9	17.0	19.0	33.8	4.1	100.0
High school and above	0.2	2.2	3.9	10.1	11.5	17.8	44.1	10.1	100.0
Religion									
Hindu	0.2	11.5	18.7	18.3	12.9	11.3	14.1	12.9	100.0
Muslim	--	5.4	17.1	25.0	18.7	11.3	8.5	14.1	100.0
Other	2.1	12.0	24.7	17.8	12.1	7.9	9.0	14.4	100.0
Caste/tribe									
Scheduled caste	--	22.7	23.4	18.4	8.9	6.1	5.7	14.8	100.0
Scheduled tribe	0.8	18.9	27.3	20.5	7.6	3.5	3.1	18.3	100.0
Other	0.1	8.3	17.1	19.4	15.0	12.6	15.0	12.4	100.0
Total	0.2	10.6	18.6	19.4	13.8	11.2	13.1	13.1	100.0

-- Less than 0.05 percent

Table 4.9 also presents the distribution of ever-married women by the amount spent on the marriage of daughters by background characteristics of the respondents. Residents of urban areas and families of more educated women spend higher amounts on the marriage of daughters than others, and families of scheduled caste and scheduled tribe women spend less on the marriage of daughters than others.

Table 4.10 presents information on the cash paid as a dowry by background characteristics. A little more than one-tenth of ever-married women (11 percent) said that no cash is generally given as a dowry in the daughter's marriage and 12 percent stated that they do not know. Among those who said that cash was given as a dowry, 32 percent gave less than Rs. 10,000, 37 percent gave Rs. 10,000 to 24,999 and 31 percent gave Rs. 25,000 or more.

Urban residents (13 percent) and women with at least a high school education (14 percent) are more likely to state that no dowry is given than rural and less educated women. Among women of other religions and scheduled tribe women, two-thirds reported that no dowry is given. Urban residents (45 percent) and those with at least a high school education (58 percent) are also more likely to report that more than Rs. 25,000 in cash is given as dowry in a daughter's marriage.

In addition to cash, it is also customary to present various commodities to a daughter as part of the dowry. Table 4.11 shows the percentage of ever-married women by the items

Table 4.10 Cash paid as dowry

Percent distribution of ever-married women by the amount of cash generally paid as daughter's dowry by background characteristics, Bihar, 1993

Background characteristic	No dowry	Cash paid as dowry (in rupees)						Don't know	Total Percent
		<5000	5000 <10000	10000 <14999	15000 <24999	25000 <49999	50000+		
Residence									
Urban	13.4	4.5	8.1	9.1	11.8	13.2	32.2	7.7	100.0
Rural	11.0	10.2	16.2	16.8	13.1	9.0	10.6	13.0	100.0
Backward districts	4.1	9.5	18.5	18.4	15.0	12.4	12.8	9.4	100.0
Education									
Illiterate	11.5	11.3	18.1	17.1	13.3	8.1	7.2	13.5	100.0
Lit., < middle complete	8.8	2.9	5.9	13.0	13.4	18.4	30.0	7.6	100.0
Middle school complete	10.3	1.1	3.5	15.7	14.2	12.2	38.5	4.4	100.0
High school and above	14.4	3.0	1.7	4.6	8.3	12.3	46.1	9.5	100.0
Religion									
Hindu	9.5	10.0	14.8	15.2	12.9	10.0	15.6	11.9	100.0
Muslim	15.0	6.9	17.3	19.2	14.2	8.3	4.6	14.5	100.0
Other	65.3	2.6	5.2	5.4	3.8	2.9	6.4	8.2	100.0
Caste/tribe									
Scheduled caste	4.5	17.9	23.4	16.9	11.8	6.5	3.4	15.6	100.0
Scheduled tribe	62.7	8.7	7.5	3.5	3.3	1.7	3.3	9.4	100.0
Other	7.1	8.4	14.8	16.7	14.0	10.8	16.0	12.1	100.0
Total	11.4	9.4	15.0	15.6	12.9	9.6	13.7	12.2	100.0

generally given as dowry to the daughter at the time of marriage. The most common items given are radios or transistors (66 percent), cycles (65 percent) and utensils (64 percent). Twenty-nine percent said that generally in their families furniture such as cots, chairs, sofa sets, dining tables, and cupboards are given to daughters at marriage. Twelve percent said that items such as televisions, VCRs or VCPs are given and 11 percent stated that cars, scooters or motorbikes are given. Less than 50 grams of gold are given as dowry according to 37 percent of women and only 4 percent reported that 50 grams or more of gold are given as dowry. The figures for silver are similar to those for gold.

The families in urban areas are more likely to give gold, silver, cars, scooters or motorbikes, televisions, VCRs or VCPs, and furniture; and those in rural areas are more likely to give cycles, radios or transistors and utensils. The families of literate women are more likely than others to give expensive items such as gold and silver, cars, scooters or motorbikes, televisions, and VCRs or VCPs. Compared with Hindus, the Muslims are more likely to give less expensive items. Among scheduled caste households, cycles, radios and utensils are the most common items given. Thirty-two percent of women belonging to scheduled tribes report that no items are given as a dowry.

Table 4.12 shows the percentage of women who approve and disapprove of the dowry system. Overall, 63 percent of ever-married women disapprove of the dowry system. However, a significant minority (37 percent) approve of the dowry system. The differentials by background characteristics indicate that illiterate women (40 per cent), Hindus (37 per cent) and

Table 4.11 Items given as dowry

Percent distribution of ever-married women according to items given at the time of a daughter's marriage by background characteristics, Bihar, 1993

Background characteristic	Items given as dowry												
	Gold		Silver		Land, house or flat	Car, scooter or bike	TV, VCR or VCP	Furniture	Utensils	Radio or transistor	Cycle	Other	None
	<50g	50g+	<50g	50g+									
Residence													
Urban	52.2	3.5	51.4	3.5	2.1	22.4	27.6	35.1	57.7	49.8	41.7	22.3	7.4
Rural	34.7	4.3	35.6	4.5	0.4	8.8	9.1	27.5	65.6	68.9	68.4	45.9	4.0
Backward districts	43.5	4.0	45.7	4.9	1.1	5.7	8.4	22.6	72.6	69.1	69.6	41.2	1.0
Education													
Illiterate	32.7	3.9	34.0	4.2	0.4	5.7	5.9	25.6	65.1	70.4	70.9	45.8	4.4
Lit., < middle complete	55.1	4.7	55.1	4.3	1.1	23.5	28.3	39.8	68.4	56.6	48.5	36.8	1.8
Middle complete	55.1	5.1	51.2	3.7	0.2	27.5	32.3	37.6	61.7	55.7	46.5	35.0	2.6
High school and above	51.8	6.0	48.5	5.9	3.2	36.6	40.0	39.8	54.1	41.8	30.2	20.3	10.3
Religion													
Hindu	36.9	4.1	37.6	4.1	0.7	11.6	12.7	29.0	65.8	65.7	63.5	41.6	4.2
Muslim	41.4	5.1	41.0	5.6	0.7	7.1	7.7	28.3	60.6	72.6	73.5	50.6	2.0
Other	20.8	3.0	25.5	3.0	1.0	5.6	4.5	11.4	33.9	31.3	32.8	11.0	42.7
Caste/tribe													
Scheduled caste	20.1	2.7	21.7	3.6	0.3	7.2	6.5	24.4	67.9	72.4	73.7	48.4	1.3
Scheduled tribe	9.5	0.9	12.7	1.2	--	3.0	1.4	13.6	49.8	48.7	50.6	20.7	32.0
Other	42.1	4.7	42.4	4.7	0.8	12.0	13.5	30.6	65.5	67.1	64.8	43.9	2.2
Total	37.3	4.2	37.9	4.4	0.7	10.8	11.8	28.6	64.4	66.2	64.5	42.5	4.5

Note: Total percent will not add to 100.0 due to multiple response.

-- Less than 0.05 percent

scheduled caste women (41 percent) are more likely to approve of the dowry system than others, and that urban women (77 percent) and those who have at least a high school education (83 percent) are more likely to disapprove of the dowry system than others. The reasons underlying the approval or disapproval of the dowry system need to be examined through further analysis of the open-ended responses, but such analysis is not attempted here.

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Table 8.2 Crude death rates and age-sex specific death rates

Crude death rates (CDR) and age-sex specific death rates, Bihar, 1991-92

Age	NFHS (1991-92)						SRS (1991)		
	Death rate			Number of usual residents			Death rate		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
0 - 4	28.2	27.7	28.0	2021	1983	4003	20.9	24.8	22.8
5 - 14	3.5	3.0	3.3	4317	4033	8350	2.5	3.2	2.9
15-49	4.0	4.1	4.0	6821	6777	13598	3.5	4.3	3.9
50+	35.5	43.0	38.9	1973	1672	3644	33.5	29.8	31.7
CDR	11.3	11.7	11.5	15131	14464	29596	9.4	10.3	9.8

Note: Crude death rate and age-sex specific death rates from the NFHS are based on the annual number of deaths reported for the *de jure* population during the two years prior to the survey. The SRS rates are also *de jure*, based on deaths during 1990. Source of SRS data: Office of the Registrar General (1993a).

of 2.08 percent, which matches well with SRS estimate of 2.05 for 1990 (Office of the Registrar General, 1993b).

The age-specific death rates for broad age groups shown in Table 8.2 can be compared directly with the SRS rates. Although the SRS does not report the death rates for all of the specific age groups shown in Table 8.2, these rates are estimated based on the SRS age distribution. The age pattern of mortality as revealed by the NFHS and SRS data indicates an expected typical U-shaped pattern with very high death rates at very young and very old ages and the lowest rate at age 5-14. The NFHS and SRS age-specific death rates are very close at ages 5-14 and 15-49, but the NFHS rates are higher at ages 0-4 and 50+. This perhaps indicates underreporting of deaths in the SRS and better reporting in the survey.

In most countries, male death rates are higher than female death rates at almost all ages. South Asia has generally been an exception in this respect, with higher death rates for females over much of the age span (Ghosh, 1987; Preston, 1990). The overall death rate is higher for females than males in both the NFHS and SRS (the ratio of female to male death rate is 1.04 in the NFHS and 1.10 in the SRS 1991), an expected phenomenon for Bihar. However, age-sex patterns of mortality for the NFHS and SRS 1991 show some important inconsistencies. For age 0-4, the female death rate, as expected, is higher than the male death rate in the SRS (the ratio is 1.19), but lower than the male death rate in the NFHS (the ratio is 0.98). The lower female death rate relative to the male death rate at ages 0-4 and 5-14 found in the NFHS is unusual given the opposite findings of the SRS in many states of India.

The SRS data on age-sex death rates over a long period of time also show female death rates higher than male death rates in the reproductive age groups in several states. The NFHS and the 1991 SRS reveal the expected pattern of higher female than male death rates in the reproductive age group of 15-49 (ratios for the NFHS and the 1991 SRS are 1.03 and 1.23, respectively).

In the oldest age group of 50 years and over, the ratio of female to male death rates is 1.21 from the NFHS and 0.89 from the SRS. The higher ratio from the NFHS is unexpected.

It should be mentioned again that the information on deaths in the household was obtained from either the head of the household or some responsible member and the possibility of underreporting of deaths of females cannot be ruled out. Also, females who died in the reproductive years may have been reported as deaths of females age 50 and over.

8.3 Infant and Child Mortality

Definitions of Infant and Child Mortality

In the NFHS, ever-married women age 13-49 were asked to give a complete history of their births, including the sex, date of birth, survival status, and age at the time of the survey or age at death for each live birth. For children who had died, age at death was recorded in days for children dying in the first month of life, in months for children dying before their second birthday, and in years for children dying at later ages. This information was used to calculate the following direct estimates of infant and child mortality:¹

Neonatal mortality	:	the probability of dying in the first month of life;
Postneonatal mortality	:	the difference between infant and neonatal mortality;
Infant mortality (${}_1q_0$)	:	the probability of dying before the first birthday;
Child mortality (${}_4q_1$)	:	the probability of dying between the first and fifth birthday;
Under-five mortality (${}_5q_0$)	:	the probability of dying before the fifth birthday.

Assessment of Data Quality

The reliability of mortality estimates calculated from retrospective birth histories depends upon the completeness with which deaths of children are reported and the extent to which birth dates and ages at deaths are accurately reported and recorded. Estimated rates of infant and child mortality are subject to both sampling and nonsampling errors. While the sampling errors for various mortality estimates are provided in Appendix A, this section describes the results of various checks for nonsampling errors -- in particular, underreporting of deaths in early childhood (which would result in an underestimate of mortality) and misreporting the date of birth or age at death (which could distort the age pattern of under-five mortality). Both problems are likely to be more pronounced for children born long before the survey than for

¹ A detailed description of the method for calculating the probabilities presented here is given in Rutstein (1984). The mortality estimates are not rates, but are true probabilities, calculated according to the conventional life table approach. For any calendar period, deaths and exposure in that period are first tabulated for the age intervals 0, 1-2, 3-5, 6-11, 12-23, 24-35, 36-47, and 48-59 months. Then age interval specific probabilities of survival are calculated. Finally, probabilities of mortality for larger age segments are produced by multiplying the relevant age interval survival probabilities together and subtracting the product from one:

$${}_nq_x = 1 - \prod_i (1 - q_i)$$

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CONCLUSIONS

Fertility and Family Planning

- Although there is evidence of a slight decline in the total fertility rate in Bihar in recent years, the TFR remains high at 4 children per woman. Thus Bihar is still far from the achievement of replacement level fertility (2.1 children per woman). Only 23 percent of currently married women are using a contraceptive. If all women who say they want to space or limit their births were to use family planning the contraceptive prevalence rate could increase from 23 percent to 48 percent of married women. A sizeable percentage of women who intend to use contraception in the future prefer to use modern spacing methods. This indicates that the potential demand for modern spacing methods is quite strong and suggests that increasing attention should be paid to effective spacing methods as part of a balanced programme to satisfy the contraceptive needs of women in Bihar.
- Two-thirds of currently married nonusers say they do not intend to use contraception in the future. The lack of intentions to use family planning is a matter of great concern and suggests that it will be difficult for the family planning programme to be successful without a strong Information, Education and Communication (IEC) component to motivate couples to use contraception. The ideal family size is 3.4 children which is larger by 1.4 children than the two-child family advocated by the Family Welfare Programme. To bring about a change in the popular norms about family size, a strong and well directed IEC is needed. The accessibility and quality of services need to be improved to attract new

contraceptors as well as to encourage continued use among current contraceptive acceptors.

Maternal and Child Health

- Various indicators of maternal and child health show that in almost every respect Bihar is not faring well. Despite the decline in infant mortality (18 percent over a 10-year period), 1 in every 8 children still die before reaching age 5. Most babies (87 percent) are delivered at home and a sizeable proportion of deliveries are conducted by untrained personnel. A very small percentage of children age 12-23 months are fully vaccinated and 54 percent have not received any vaccination. Over three-fifths of all young children are underweight and over three-fifths are stunted.
- The improvement of services is crucial to the success of the Child Survival and Safe Motherhood (CSSM) programme. The importance of a strong IEC package in the CSSM programme cannot be overemphasized. Such a package is necessary to inform couples about the importance of antenatal care and safe delivery conducted under hygienic conditions, the advantages of giving colostrum to babies, the correct timing of introducing supplementary food to a child's diet, the importance of immunization against preventable diseases, the use of oral rehydration therapy for children suffering from diarrhoea, the advantages of a small family and the disadvantages of early childbearing and inadequate childspacing. The lack of exposure of most women to electronic mass media and their inability to read, however, indicate that alternative communication strategies will have to be employed, such as distribution of video

FACT SHEET-BIHAR

1991 Population Data

Office of the Registrar General and Census
Commissioner

Total population (millions)	86.4
Percent urban	13.1
Percent scheduled caste	14.6
Percent scheduled tribe	7.7
Decadal population growth rate (1981-91)	23.5
Crude birth rate (per 1,000 population)	32.2
Crude death rate (per 1,000 population)	10.9
Life expectancy at birth (years) ¹ :	
Male	55.7
Female	53.6

National Family Health Survey, 1993

Sample Population

Ever-married women age 13-49	5,949
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Background Characteristics of Women Interviewed

Percent urban	14.6
Percent illiterate	78.3
Percent attended high school or higher	8.1
Percent Hindu	82.6
Percent Muslim	15.6
Percent working	24.9

Marriage and Other Fertility Determinants

Percent of women age 15-49 currently married	82.9
Percent of women age 15-49 ever married	86.7
Singulate mean age at marriage for females (in years)	18.0
Singulate mean age at marriage for males (in years)	23.2
Percent of women married to first cousins ²	4.4
Median age at marriage among women age 25-49	14.7
Median months of breastfeeding ³	26.5
Median months of postpartum amenorrhoea ³	9.9
Median months of postpartum abstinence ³	2.9

Fertility

Total fertility rate ⁴	4.0
Mean number of children ever born to women age 40-49	5.2

Desire for Children

Percent of currently married women who:	
Want no more children or are sterilized	42.7
Want to delay their next birth at least 2 years	24.0
Mean ideal number of children ⁵	3.4
Percent of births in the last 4 years which were:	
Unwanted	9.3
Mistimed	14.2

Knowledge and Use of Family Planning

Percent of currently married women:	
Knowing any method	94.9
Knowing a modern method	94.9
Knowing a source for a modern method	88.5
Ever used any method	26.2
Currently using any method	23.1

Percent of currently married women currently using:

Pill	1.1
IUD	0.5
Injection	0.0
Condom	1.3
Female sterilization	17.3
Male sterilization	1.3
Periodic abstinence	0.9
Withdrawal	0.5
Other methods	0.1

Mortality and Health

Infant mortality rate ⁶	89.2
Under-five mortality rate ⁶	127.5
Percent of births ⁷ whose mothers:	
Received antenatal care from a doctor	
or other health professional	26.5
Received 2 or more tetanus toxoid injections	30.7
Percent of births ⁷ whose mothers were assisted at delivery by:	
Doctor	12.7
Nurse/midwife	6.2
Traditional birth attendant	58.4
Percent of children 0-1 month who are breastfed	97.7
Percent of children 12-13 months who are breastfed	91.2
Percent of children 12-23 months who received ⁸ :	
BCG	33.9
DPT (three doses)	29.1
Polio (three doses)	31.6
Measles	14.6
All vaccinations	10.7
Percent of children under 4 years ⁹ who:	
Had diarrhoea in the 2 weeks preceding the survey	13.7
Had a cough accompanied by rapid breathing	
in the 2 weeks preceding the survey	4.3
Had a fever in the 2 weeks preceding the survey	21.1
Are chronically undernourished (stunted) ¹⁰	60.9
Are acutely undernourished (wasted) ¹⁰	21.8

¹ 1986-90

² Based on ever-married women

³ Current status estimate based on births during the 36 months preceding the survey (48 months for breastfeeding)

⁴ Based on births to women age 15-49 during the 3 years preceding the survey

⁵ Based on ever-married women age 13-49, excluding women giving non-numeric responses

⁶ For the 5 years preceding the survey (1988-92)

⁷ For births in the period 1-47 months preceding the survey

⁸ Based on information from vaccination cards and mothers' reports

⁹ Children born 1-47 months preceding the survey

¹⁰ Stunting assessed by height-for-age, wasting assessed by weight-for-height; undernourished children are those more than 2 standard deviations below the median of the international reference population, recommended by the World Health Organization.

Table 9.4 Place of delivery

Percent distribution of live births during the four years preceding the survey by place of delivery, according to selected background characteristics, Bihar, 1993

Background characteristic	Place of delivery						Total percent	Number of live births ¹
	Health facility/ institution		Home			Don't know/ missing		
	Public	Private	Own home	Parents' home	Other			
Mother's age at birth								
< 20	5.3	4.6	69.1	19.6	0.7	0.7	100.0	760
20-34	6.3	7.2	76.4	9.6	0.4	0.2	100.0	2556
35+	2.6	2.1	93.6	1.2	0.4	--	100.0	245
Birth order								
1	8.9	10.3	61.1	18.7	0.6	0.4	100.0	842
2-3	7.0	7.1	72.9	12.2	0.5	0.3	100.0	1316
4-5	3.3	3.2	85.6	7.3	0.5	0.1	100.0	860
6+	2.3	3.1	91.6	2.8	0.1	0.1	100.0	544
Residence								
Urban	18.1	23.3	49.6	8.0	0.5	0.4	100.0	470
Rural	4.0	3.7	80.0	11.6	0.5	0.2	100.0	3092
Backward districts	5.8	2.7	75.5	15.3	0.4	0.3	100.0	540
Education								
Illiterate	2.6	2.1	84.0	10.7	0.4	0.2	100.0	2822
Lit., < middle complete	15.6	12.2	58.2	13.3	0.4	0.3	100.0	359
Middle school complete	18.0	19.3	49.3	11.8	1.5	--	100.0	98
High school and above	21.3	36.2	28.0	12.9	0.8	0.8	100.0	283
Religion								
Hindu	6.6	7.1	74.1	11.4	0.5	0.3	100.0	2792
Muslim	2.7	3.1	83.5	10.2	0.3	0.2	100.0	703
Other	7.7	7.7	76.9	7.7	--	--	100.0	68
Caste/tribe								
Scheduled caste	4.1	3.3	77.1	14.4	0.1	1.0	100.0	357
Scheduled tribe	2.5	1.4	83.2	12.9	--	--	100.0	272
Other	6.4	7.1	75.2	10.6	0.5	0.2	100.0	2934
Antenatal care visits								
None	1.8	1.4	84.9	11.2	0.3	0.4	100.0	2227
1-3 visits	9.8	9.5	68.0	11.9	0.7	0.1	100.0	1035
4+ visits	22.7	32.9	36.5	7.2	0.8	--	100.0	290
Total¹	5.8	6.3	76.0	11.1	0.5	0.2	100.0	3562

-- Less than 0.05 percent
¹Births in the period 1-47 months prior to the survey. Total includes 19 births for whom the information about antenatal care visits is missing, which are not shown separately.

-- Less than 0.05 percent

¹Births in the period 1-47 months prior to the survey. Total includes 19 births for whom the information about antenatal care visits is missing, which are not shown separately.

As expected, a higher proportion of deliveries were attended by doctors in urban areas (40 percent) than in rural areas and backward districts (9 percent each). Among the deliveries which took place in private health institutions, 87 percent are attended by doctors and 12 percent by nurse/midwives, whereas among deliveries in public health institutions, 75 percent are attended by doctors and 21 percent by nurse/midwives. Among deliveries taking place in the respondent's home, two-thirds (66 percent) are attended by traditional birth attendants (TBA), one-fourth (26 percent) by relatives or others, and only 3 percent by doctors. Assistance at delivery by medical professionals and nurses is also uncommon for births to women in their parents' home, where 86 percent of deliveries are attended by TBA's or other nonmedical

Table 9.11 Prevalence of acute respiratory infection, fever and diarrhoea

Among all children under four years of age, the percentage who were ill with a cough accompanied by fast breathing, fever and diarrhoea during the two weeks before the survey, and the percentage with diarrhoea in the 24 hours before the survey, according to selected background characteristics, Bihar, 1993

Background characteristic	Percentage of children suffering in previous two weeks from:					Any diarrhoea in previous 24 hours ²	Number of children
	Cough accompanied by fast breathing	Fever	Diarrhoea ¹				
			Any	Bloody			
Child's age							
< 6 months	3.8	15.5	12.0	0.1	6.7	405	
6-11 months	5.5	28.5	23.3	1.2	13.4	430	
12-23 months	6.5	27.4	17.3	1.6	7.4	875	
24-35 months	2.9	17.7	12.0	2.3	5.0	695	
36-47 months	2.8	16.2	7.4	1.3	2.5	847	
Sex							
Male	4.9	23.0	13.8	1.4	6.2	1648	
Female	3.7	19.1	13.6	1.5	6.4	1603	
Birth order							
1	4.2	21.3	14.0	1.8	6.4	755	
2-3	5.1	19.2	13.2	1.3	6.2	1216	
4-5	3.4	23.7	14.7	1.4	6.6	800	
6+	3.8	21.1	12.9	1.3	6.1	481	
Residence							
Urban	3.6	19.6	9.6	0.8	4.3	440	
Rural	4.4	21.3	14.3	1.5	6.6	2811	
Backward districts	5.9	24.9	15.1	2.0	7.1	487	
Mother's education							
Illiterate	4.3	22.0	13.7	1.4	6.4	2558	
Lit., < middle complete	4.1	17.5	15.4	1.4	6.0	331	
Middle school complete	4.3	24.8	10.3	0.6	2.2	93	
High school and above	4.0	15.5	13.1	2.4	7.5	269	
Religion							
Hindu	4.2	21.1	13.6	1.4	6.2	2562	
Muslim	4.7	20.2	14.5	1.7	7.6	631	
Other	2.6	30.6	8.9	--	--	58	
Caste/tribe							
Scheduled caste	5.6	22.2	15.8	2.2	6.7	314	
Scheduled tribe	1.2	21.0	5.3	0.6	2.4	255	
Other	4.4	20.9	14.2	1.4	6.7	2682	
Source of drinking water							
Piped water	U	U	10.9	1.0	3.8	211	
Ground water	U	U	14.8	1.9	7.3	1899	
Well water	U	U	12.0	0.8	5.1	1079	
Other	U	U	(24.8)	(1.5)	(1.9)	35	
Total	4.3	21.1	13.7	1.4	6.3	3251	

Note: Figures are for children born in the period 1-47 months prior to the survey. Total includes 27 children for whom the source of drinking water is surface water, which are not shown separately.

U: Not available

() Based on 25-49 unweighted cases

-- Less than 0.05 percent

¹Includes diarrhoea in the past 24 hours

²Includes diarrhoea with blood

Table 9.12 Treatment of acute respiratory infection

Among all children under four years of age who had cough accompanied by fast breathing during the two weeks before the survey, the percentage taken to a health facility or provider and percentage given treatment, according to selected background characteristics, Bihar, 1993

Background characteristic	Among children with cough and fast breathing								Number of children
	Percentage taken to a health facility or provider ¹	Percentage treated with						DK/miss-ing	
		Anti-biotic pill or syrup	Injection	Cough syrup	Home remedy/herbal medicine	Other	None		
Child's age									
< 12 months	(65.6)	(55.5)	(40.9)	(44.7)	(--)	(15.6)	(14.1)	(--)	39
12-23 months	82.3	51.2	37.9	39.0	2.7	24.4	7.0	--	57
24+ months	67.4	36.3	20.4	28.6	--	30.0	18.2	4.7	44
Sex									
Male	77.3	54.1	35.3	33.8	--	24.0	8.9	--	81
Female	66.9	39.1	30.6	42.1	2.6	23.3	17.4	3.5	59
Birth order									
1	(87.5)	(57.1)	(51.3)	(46.5)	(--)	(11.7)	(3.9)	(6.4)	32
2+	68.7	45.0	27.9	34.6	1.4	27.3	15.1	--	108
Residence									
Urban	(82.6)	(44.7)	(35.3)	(54.1)	(--)	(41.7)	(5.9)	(--)	16
Rural	71.7	48.2	33.0	35.2	1.2	21.4	13.4	1.7	124
Backward districts	57.9	48.3	40.9	29.2	--	10.3	29.2	1.9	29
Mother's education									
Illiterate	70.4	41.8	32.2	39.8	--	26.1	15.4	0.5	111
Literate	(83.0)	(71.1)	(37.6)	(27.8)	(5.3)	(14.4)	(1.3)	(5.3)	28
Religion									
Hindu	75.2	49.4	34.0	41.8	--	25.3	9.7	0.5	109
Muslim	(63.1)	(44.1)	(32.3)	(17.5)	(5.1)	(14.0)	(23.6)	(5.1)	29
Total	72.9	47.8	33.3	37.3	1.1	23.7	12.5	1.5	140

Note: Total includes 2 children belonging to other religions, who are not shown separately.

() Based on 25-49 unweighted cases

-- Less than 0.05 percent

¹ Includes government/municipal hospital, private hospital/clinic, Primary Health Centre, sub-centre, doctor or other health professional.

Treatment of Fever

Table 9.13 shows treatment patterns for children suffering from fever during the two weeks before the survey. Nearly 60 percent of the children had been taken to a health facility or provider for the treatment of fever. Almost half of the children (48 percent) were treated with antibiotics in the form of pills or syrup and 18 percent were given injections. A smaller proportion were given antimalarial medication (11 percent) or home remedies (3 percent). Differentials in the treatment of fever reveal that children age 6-11 months were most likely to be taken to a health facility or provider. Male children, those of lower birth order, urban children, those of educated mothers and scheduled caste children were more likely to be taken to a health facility or provider than others.

Table 9.13 Treatment of fever

Among all children under four years of age suffering from fever during the two weeks before the survey, the percentage taken to the health facility or provider and type of treatment given, according to selected background characteristics, Bihar, 1993

Background characteristic	Among children with fever								Number of children
	Percentage taken to a health facility or provider ¹	Percentage treated with							
		Anti-malarial	Antibiotic pill or syrup	Injection	Home remedy/herbal medicine	Other	None	Don't know/missing	
Child's age									
< 6 months	45.7	1.8	45.1	14.9	5.7	18.6	35.5	1.2	63
6-11 months	66.2	12.4	59.6	21.4	1.9	23.8	15.2	1.2	123
12-23 months	61.5	12.1	47.7	19.3	3.8	32.0	21.0	0.0	239
24-35 months	58.7	10.8	47.2	13.3	0.6	25.0	27.0	1.2	123
36-47 months	58.2	11.4	40.8	19.1	1.4	21.2	30.4	0.4	137
Sex									
Male	64.3	11.1	51.1	17.1	2.1	27.6	22.0	--	379
Female	54.0	10.4	44.4	19.5	3.1	23.8	27.0	1.4	306
Birth order									
1	64.6	13.8	50.7	19.9	1.5	28.8	17.1	1.3	161
2-3	63.1	11.9	52.0	17.0	2.5	24.9	20.5	0.6	233
4-5	54.5	9.4	40.6	18.5	4.2	28.0	29.0	0.4	189
6+	53.9	6.3	49.3	17.4	1.5	19.6	35.4	--	102
Residence									
Urban	70.7	14.0	46.0	12.9	0.9	40.1	15.7	0.9	86
Rural	58.1	10.4	48.4	18.9	2.8	23.8	25.5	0.6	599
Backward districts	58.3	9.6	46.9	25.4	2.0	27.5	25.7	0.4	121
Mother's education									
Illiterate	57.0	11.5	45.8	19.1	2.8	25.6	27.3	0.1	562
Literate, < primary	63.4	2.8	54.5	20.4	3.4	24.1	14.3	5.2	58
High school and above	75.0	8.5	61.7	9.1	--	36.1	9.8	0.0	42
Religion									
Hindu	60.0	9.7	48.7	17.1	2.7	26.7	24.2	0.5	540
Muslim	59.1	15.5	45.9	24.7	1.2	20.6	25.5	1.2	127
Caste/tribe									
Scheduled caste	68.1	16.1	52.3	20.9	--	22.8	23.9	--	70
Scheduled tribe	(53.5)	(5.6)	(47.9)	(5.6)	(8.5)	(26.7)	(31.0)	(--)	54
Other	59.3	10.7	47.7	19.0	2.3	26.2	23.7	0.8	562
Total	59.7	10.8	48.1	18.1	2.6	25.9	24.3	0.6	685

Note: Total includes 23 children with mother's education middle school complete and 18 children belonging to other religions, who are not shown separately.

() Based on 25-49 unweighted cases.

-- Less than 0.05 percent

¹Includes government/municipal hospital, private hospital/clinic, Primary Health Centre, sub-centre, doctor, or other health professional.

CHAPTER 8

MORBIDITY AND MORTALITY

This chapter presents data on the prevalence of certain diseases as well as mortality rates, especially for infants and young children. This type of information is relevant both to the demographic assessment of the population and to health policies and programmes. The mortality estimates are also useful for projecting the future size of the population. More detailed information on the mortality of children can be used to identify sectors of the population which are at high risk and in need of health services.

The National Family Health Survey collected information on mortality and on morbidity from both the Woman's and Household Questionnaires. The Household Questionnaire has questions on individuals in the household suffering from blindness, tuberculosis, leprosy, physical impairment of the limbs and malaria, as well as a question on deaths occurring in the household during the past two years. The Household Questionnaire also includes a question on deaths occurring in the household during the past two years and the Woman's Questionnaire collects information on the survival status of all births, the age at death if the child died, and the prevalence of common childhood diseases for children under four years of age. The prevalence and treatment of childhood diseases are discussed in Chapter 9.

8.1 Morbidity

Because demographic sample surveys generally do not include questions on the prevalence of diseases, there is not much experience with the results of such questions. The patterns shown by the morbidity data analyzed in this section are generally plausible, suggesting that the questions have provided useful information. At the same time, there is little to indicate whether the overall prevalence levels are correct. It is certainly possible that the results of the survey substantially understate the prevalence of these conditions because some survey respondents fail to report them.

It is worth noting some of the considerations that might be made in assessing the validity of these prevalence figures. Conditions carrying a stigma, such as leprosy, may be underreported due to intentional concealment by respondents or embarrassment on the part of interviewers about asking these questions. Respondents will be aware of certain conditions, such as blindness and physical impairment, but may be unaware of others unless they have been diagnosed by medical personnel. Moreover, given the linguistic diversity in India, local as well as national, respondents may know that a household member suffers from a given condition but fail to report it because they do not recognize the words used by the enumerator in asking the question.

max morbidity
Table 8.1 shows the prevalence of the five health conditions among the household population living in each place of residence by age and by sex. Partial or complete blindness, with the highest incidence, affects 28 per 1,000 population. Malaria follows next, afflicting 14 per 1,000 population during the three months prior to the survey. Physical impairment of the limbs affects 7 per 1,000, 6 per 1,000 have tuberculosis and 1 per 1,000 have leprosy.

Table 8.1 Morbidity

Number of persons per 1,000 usual residents in the household suffering from blindness, tuberculosis, leprosy, physical impairment of the limbs and malaria according to age, sex and residence, Bihar, 1993

Demographic characteristic	Number of persons per 1,000 suffering from:						Number of usual residents
	Blindness		Tuber- culosis	Leprosy	Physical impairment of limbs	Malaria during the last three months	
	Partial	Complete					
URBAN							
Age							
0 -14	2.3	13.1	2.8	0.4	6.6	9.6	1718
15-59	19.4	2.2	5.3	1.7	5.6	6.5	2565
60+	150.8	15.7	9.5	2.6	21.1	2.6	279
Sex							
Male	16.3	9.0	4.2	1.6	7.5	5.6	2410
Female	26.3	5.0	5.1	0.9	6.3	9.4	2152
Total	21.0	7.1	4.7	1.3	6.9	7.4	4562
RURAL							
Age							
0 -14	3.1	6.2	1.7	0.4	7.2	12.0	10636
15-59	20.2	1.5	8.8	1.5	5.9	17.5	12576
60+	159.0	13.3	14.5	3.7	15.6	23.0	1822
Sex							
Male	21.5	4.0	7.1	1.8	8.5	16.4	12721
Female	24.6	4.7	5.2	0.6	5.7	14.6	12312
Total	23.0	4.4	6.2	1.2	7.2	15.5	25033
TOTAL							
Age							
0 -14	3.0	7.2	1.8	0.4	7.1	11.6	12354
15-59	20.0	1.6	8.2	1.6	5.8	15.6	15140
60+	157.9	13.7	13.8	3.6	16.3	20.3	2102
Sex							
Male	20.6	4.8	6.6	1.8	8.4	14.7	15131
Female	24.9	4.8	5.2	0.7	5.8	13.8	14464
Total	22.7	4.8	5.9	1.2	7.1	14.3	29596
BACKWARD DISTRICTS							
Age							
0 -14	4.1	4.5	1.7	0.8	8.6	12.2	1868
15-59	21.9	2.7	14.3	2.9	8.6	18.8	2250
60+	181.4	14.6	13.3	7.0	15.8	27.1	325
Sex							
Male	20.9	5.7	10.6	2.9	10.5	17.4	2277
Female	31.6	2.9	7.2	1.7	7.7	15.8	2166
Total	26.1	4.3	8.9	2.3	9.1	16.6	4443

Partial and Complete Blindness

The overall prevalence of partial blindness is 23 per 1,000 population (Table 8.1), with slight variation by place of residence. Partial blindness increases sharply with age from 3 per 1,000 persons age 0-14 to 20 per 1,000 persons age 15-59 and 158 per 1,000 persons age 60 and over. The high prevalence among older persons, by far the largest differential displayed for any of these morbidity data, is particularly striking. Overall, females are substantially more prone to partial blindness than males despite the fact that there are proportionally more males than females in the older age groups where the prevalence of partial blindness is the highest. Overall, the prevalence for females is 25 per 1,000 compared with 21 per 1,000 for males.

The overall level of complete blindness is 5 per 1,000. The NFHS estimate of total blindness is considerably higher than the 1981 Census estimate of 0.1 percent (Office of the Registrar General and Census Commissioner, 1983), which is probably indicative of relatively high underenumeration in the census rather than a substantial increase in blindness in Bihar between 1981 and 1993.

The prevalence of complete blindness is reported to be higher among urban residents (7 per 1,000) than rural residents (4 per 1,000). Females are slightly more prone to complete blindness than males in rural areas and less prone than males in urban areas. Complete blindness is more than eight times as prevalent among persons over age 60 as among persons age 15-59. Complete blindness is higher among persons age 0-14 than among persons age 15-59, and the difference is significant. The overall prevalence of partial blindness in backward districts is the highest among all areas (26 per 1,000), but the age-sex differentials are similar to those of the state as a whole.

Malaria

The overall level of malaria in the three months prior to the survey was 14 per 1,000. The prevalence is substantially lower in urban areas (7 per 1,000) than in rural areas (16 per 1,000). In urban areas the prevalence of malaria is higher for females (9 per 1,000) than for males (6 per 1,000) whereas slightly the opposite is true in rural areas (16 per 1,000 for males compared with 15 per 1,000 for females). The overall level of malaria in backward districts is 17 per 1,000.

There are more substantial but still rather small differences in prevalence among age groups. The prevalence of malaria is highest for those age 60 and over (20 per 1,000) and lowest for those age 0-14 (12 per 1,000). Since the prevalence of malaria is known to vary considerably by season, the NFHS estimates should not be taken to represent the typical level throughout the year. The fieldwork was conducted during the dry season when malaria rates are expected to be relatively low.

Tuberculosis

The overall prevalence of tuberculosis is 6 per 1,000, with some variation by place of residence and sex. Age differences are marked, with values of 2 per 1,000 for persons age 0-14, 8 per 1,000 for those age 15-59, and 14 per 1,000 for those age 60 and over. In backward

districts the overall prevalence of tuberculosis is higher at 9 per 1,000 than in the country as a whole.

Leprosy

The reported prevalence of leprosy is only 1 per 1,000. The prevalence is more than twice as high among males as among females and is higher among persons age 60 and over than among others.

Physical Impairment of the Limbs

The overall prevalence of persons with physically impaired limbs is 7 per 1,000. Female prevalence is 6 per 1,000 in all residence groups. Males have slightly higher prevalence, 8 per 1,000. There is little difference in prevalence by age under age 60, but those age 60 and over are more than twice as likely to have physically impaired limbs as others. //

8.2 Crude Death Rates and Age-Specific Death Rates

Crude death rates (CDR) and age-specific death rates by sex for the usual resident population in Bihar from the NFHS and the SRS are shown in Table 8.2. The crude death rate from the NFHS is based on deaths occurring to usual residents of the household during the two years preceding the survey as obtained in the Household Questionnaire, whereas the SRS estimates are based on deaths during a one-year period. The NFHS CDR is calculated as the annual number of deaths in the two-year period before the date of interview per 1,000 usual residents. The denominator of this measure is calculated by projecting the number of usual residents at the time of the survey backwards to the mid-point of the time period on the basis of the intercensal population growth rate in the state. The intercensal growth rate is assumed to be the same for all age and sex groups.

Questions on the number of deaths occurring to usual residents in each household during a particular time period have been included in demographic surveys in many countries and have generally resulted in a substantial understatement of deaths. We, therefore, begin by considering the evidence on the completeness of reporting of deaths. The Sample Registration System (SRS), maintained by the Office of the Registrar General, provides the most useful comparison. The most recent report on mortality estimates by age for Bihar is for 1991 (Office of the Registrar General, 1993a). The rates for ages 0-4, 5-14, and 50+ are taken directly from the published data whereas the rate for age 15-49 is estimated from the published data.

Table 8.2 shows an average annual crude death rate for the usual resident population of Bihar of 11.5 per 1,000 for the two years before the NFHS survey (roughly 1991-92). The SRS crude death rate for the state is 9.8 per 1,000 for 1991 and 10.9 per 1,000 for 1992 (Office of the Registrar General, 1993a, 1994a). The NFHS estimate of CDR is relatively higher than the SRS estimates. The NFHS estimate of the crude death rate may be subtracted from the earlier estimate of the crude birth rate (see Table 5.1) to calculate the rate of natural increase of the population of Bihar. The rate of natural increase is estimated to be 20.8 per 1,000 population per year for the two-year period before the survey. This translates into an annual growth rate

CHAPTER 11

VILLAGE PROFILE

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The use of family planning methods, health services and educational facilities often depends as much on the supply of such services and facilities as on the demand. The NFHS included a Village Questionnaire to assess the availability, or supply, of family planning and other health and educational services in rural areas.

Information was obtained on the quality of roads that connect the village to other places, and the distance to transportation depots such as railway stations and bus stands, the nearest town, and block and tehsil headquarters. A series of questions was included on the availability and distance to various types of educational institutions and programmes, as well as health personnel and facilities. The existence of important support services and facilities in the village (including banks, cooperative societies, post offices, markets and shops) was also determined because they contribute to the quality of life in the village and can serve as one indicator of the degree of isolation of the village.

The supervisor of each interviewing team was responsible for locating key informants in the village who were knowledgeable about village facilities and infrastructure. The village headman (*Sarpanch*) would usually be contacted by the supervisor to obtain an overview of the village and names of other persons who could provide more specific information. For example, a teacher or school principal might be asked about available schools and educational services, a doctor or health practitioner could be questioned about health facilities, the village land record keeper (*Parwari*) could provide information about heavy equipment and other capital goods used for farming, and the village extension worker (*Gram Sevak*) might be asked about the availability of electricity, irrigation and other production infrastructure. Based upon the responses from these informants, the supervisor filled in the questionnaire during the fieldwork in each village. The information in this chapter is based on questionnaires completed for 137 villages in the NFHS sample.

11.1 Distance from the Nearest Town and Transportation Facility

Table 11.1 presents the distribution of sample villages according to the distance from the nearest town, railway station and bus stand. Only 25 percent of the villages are within 5 km of the nearest town and 54 percent are 10 or more km away. The median distance to the nearest town is 11 km. The majority of villages (60 percent) are 10 or more km from the nearest railway station, and the median distance is 12 km. Bus service is somewhat more accessible to the villages in Bihar. Fifty-six percent of the villages are less than 5 km from the nearest bus stand, and only 15 percent are 10 or more km away from one. The median distance to the nearest bus stand is about 5 km.

// 11.2 Availability of Educational Facilities

As indicated in previous chapters of this report, the availability of education is very important for the improvement of health and family welfare. Women with a high school education have fewer and healthier children than illiterate women.

Political analyse and Election Trends
of Bihar based on General Election, 1946.

Petitioned away

Table 11.1 Distance from nearest town and transportation facility

Percent distribution of villages according to distance from the nearest town, railway station and bus stand, Bihar, 1993

Distance	Nearest town	Nearest railway station	Nearest bus stand
< 5 km	25.2	17.8	56.0
5-9 km	20.4	22.6	26.0
10+ km	53.9	59.6	15.1
Don't know/missing	0.4	--	2.9
Total percent	100.0	100.0	100.0
Median distance	11.3	11.8	4.5

-- Less than 0.05 percent

Most of the sample villages in Bihar have access to some form of educational facility (see Table 11.2). The majority of villages (69 percent) have a primary school located within the village, and three-fourths (78 percent) of the villages have a middle school either within the village or within 5 km of the village. The median distance of villages from a secondary school is 4 km and from a higher secondary school is 6 km. However, colleges are located quite far from the villages, at a median distance of almost 13 km. Fifty-six percent of the villages are 10 or more km from the nearest college.

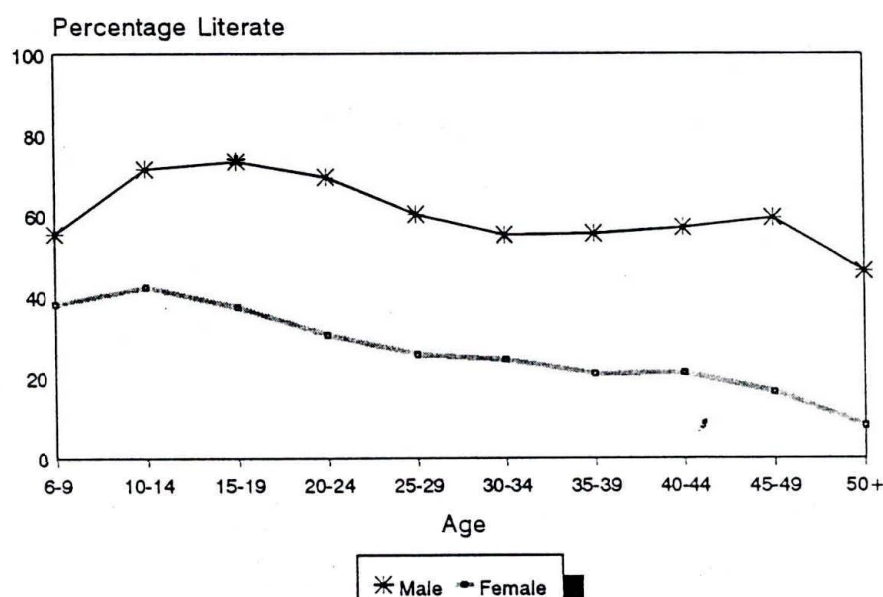
Table 11.2 Distance from nearest educational facility

Percent distribution of villages according to distance from nearest educational facility, Bihar, 1993

Distance	Educational facility				
	Primary school	Middle school	Secondary school	Higher secondary school	College
Within village	69.2	31.3	7.8	2.6	--
< 5 km	22.5	46.6	48.9	26.3	29.6
5-9 km	8.2	20.2	34.2	25.8	13.6
10+ km	0.1	0.3	9.1	28.5	56.3
Don't know/missing	--	1.6	--	13.8	0.4
Total percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Median distance	0.0	2.5	3.9	5.9	12.8

-- Less than 0.05 percent

Figure 3.3
Percentage Literate by Age and Sex



NFHS, Bihar, 1993

Table 3.7 and Figure 3.4 show school attendance rates for the school-age household population, by age, sex and residence. The table focuses on children age 6-14, because the Indian Constitution established a goal of providing free and compulsory education for children through age 14. In the state as a whole, only 51 percent of children age 6-14 attend school. In backward districts, the school attendance rate is only 1 percentage point below that for the state as a whole. As expected, the school attendance rate is much higher for males than for females (Figure 3.4). School attendance rates by sex in the state as a whole are 64 percent for males and 38 percent for females age 6-14. School attendance is also higher in urban areas (77 percent) than in rural areas (47 percent) and backward districts (50 percent)). The gap between

Table 3.7 School attendance

Percentage of the *de facto* household population age 6-14 years attending school by age, sex and residence, Bihar, 1993

Age	Male				Female				Total			
	Urban	Rural	Total	Backward districts	Urban	Rural	Total	Backward districts	Urban	Rural	Total	Backward districts
6-10	83.0	57.0	60.6	58.0	69.3	34.0	38.5	39.7	76.5	45.7	49.9	49.3
11-14	86.2	64.9	68.8	65.1	65.6	33.0	37.9	36.6	77.1	49.1	53.8	51.7
6-14	84.3	59.8	63.6	60.5	67.8	33.6	38.3	38.6	76.7	46.9	51.3	50.1

Table 3.1 Household population by age and sex

Percent distribution of the *de facto* household population by age, according to sex and residence, Bihar, 1993

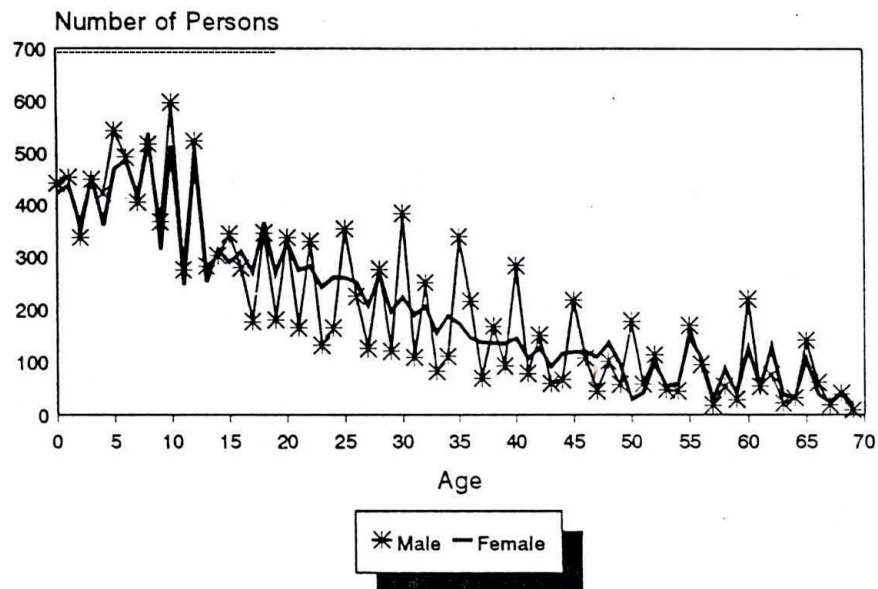
Age	Urban			Rural			Total			Backward districts		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
< 1	2.5	2.5	2.5	3.1	2.9	3.0	3.0	2.9	2.9	3.1	3.0	3.0
1 - 4	9.1	10.2	9.6	11.6	11.1	11.4	11.2	11.0	11.1	11.2	11.2	11.2
5 - 9	12.7	13.7	13.2	16.2	15.4	15.8	15.6	15.2	15.4	16.3	14.8	15.6
10-14	14.0	12.0	13.0	13.2	12.5	12.8	13.3	12.4	12.9	13.5	12.3	12.9
15-19	11.0	11.3	11.1	8.5	10.1	9.3	8.9	10.3	9.6	8.5	11.2	9.9
20-24	8.8	10.2	9.5	7.3	9.3	8.3	7.6	9.5	8.5	7.5	9.4	8.4
25-29	6.9	8.1	7.5	7.5	8.0	7.8	7.4	8.0	7.7	7.2	7.7	7.4
30-34	7.2	6.5	6.9	6.1	6.6	6.3	6.3	6.6	6.4	6.2	6.3	6.3
35-39	5.6	6.1	5.9	6.0	4.8	5.4	5.9	5.0	5.5	6.0	4.4	5.2
40-44	5.2	4.8	5.0	4.1	3.9	4.0	4.3	4.0	4.1	3.9	3.9	3.9
45-49	4.4	4.3	4.4	3.4	3.9	3.6	3.6	4.0	3.8	3.4	3.5	3.5
50-54	3.4	2.0	2.7	2.9	1.9	2.4	3.0	1.9	2.4	2.6	2.0	2.3
55-59	2.8	2.8	2.8	2.4	2.8	2.6	2.5	2.8	2.6	2.8	3.4	3.1
60-64	2.5	2.3	2.4	2.8	2.6	2.7	2.7	2.6	2.6	2.9	2.5	2.7
65-69	1.6	1.4	1.5	1.9	1.6	1.7	1.8	1.6	1.7	1.5	1.8	1.7
70-74	1.4	0.7	1.0	1.7	1.2	1.4	1.6	1.1	1.4	1.7	1.2	1.4
75-79	0.3	0.6	0.4	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6
80+	0.6	0.5	0.6	0.9	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.6	0.7	0.9	0.8	0.8
Total percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number	2396	2200	4596	12439	12422	24861	14835	14622	29456	2197	2159	4356
Sex ratio	NA	NA	918	NA	NA	999	NA	NA	986	NA	NA	983

NA: Not applicable

Woman's Questionnaire, the age reported by the woman herself replaces the age reported in the Household Questionnaire if there is a discrepancy. Her age on the Woman's Questionnaire is based on her month and year of birth, if known, or on her reported age otherwise. A variety of probing techniques were used to elicit accurate age information from the respondent. The data suggest that probing and other elaborate measures used for arriving at the age of the eligible women helped in reducing the biases in age reporting due to digit preference.

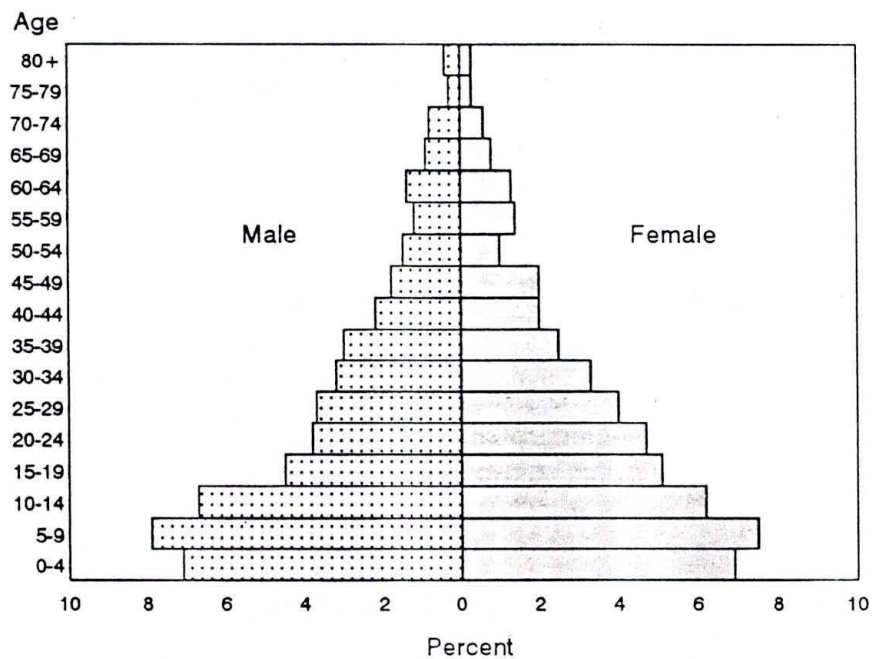
The distribution by five-year age groups is shown in the population pyramid in Figure 3.2. The irregular dip in the proportion of women at age 50-54 is indicative of a possible shifting of the age of women from age 50-54 to age 45-49 and age 55-59. This is an unusual phenomenon because in DHS surveys, it is generally found that there is a slight tendency to displace the age of women from age group 45-49 to 50-54, presumably to reduce the work load of the interviewer (Rutstein and Bicego, 1990). Perhaps, interviewers in the NFHS in Bihar were overcompensating because of warnings that questionnaires would be carefully scrutinized in the case of women recorded as age 50. However, the impact of this apparent shifting of age on the quality of data is minimal because the shifting is not pronounced.

Figure 3.1
Number of Persons Reported at Each Age
by Sex



NFHS, Bihar, 1993

Figure 3.2
Population Pyramid of Bihar



NFHS, Bihar, 1993

The *de facto* population sex ratio (females per 1,000 males) is 918 in urban areas, 999 in rural areas, 986 for the state as a whole and 983 in backward districts. Roughly comparable figures from the 1991 Census are 844 in urban areas, 921 in rural areas and 911 in the state as a whole (Office of the Registrar General and Census Commissioner, 1991b). The discrepancy between the two sources is 7 percentage points (74 per 1,000) in urban areas, 8 percentage points (78 per 1,000) in rural areas and 8 percentage points (75 per 1,000) for the state as a whole, with the sex ratio consistently higher in the NFHS. Possible reasons for this pattern of differences are discussed later.

Table 3.2 compares the age distributions by sex from the NFHS *de jure* sample with the 1991 Sample Registration System (SRS). The SRS baseline survey counts all usual residents of the sample area (Office of the Registrar General, India, 1993a). By and large, the age distributions by sex are quite similar for the 1991 SRS and the NFHS.

Table 3.2 also provides information on sex ratios by age for the NFHS. The Sample Registration System (SRS) publishes percentage age distributions for the sample registration areas but not absolute numbers of population, so no population sex ratios can be computed from the SRS publication. The total population sex ratio for Bihar was 946 in the 1981 Census, 911 in the 1991 Census and 956 in the NFHS *de jure* sample. The NFHS *de jure* value is almost 5 percentage points (45 per 1,000) higher than the 1991 Census estimate (Office of the Registrar General and Census Commissioner, 1991b).

One difference between the two sources of data is the population coverage. The Census includes the institutional population, which is overwhelmingly male, whereas the NFHS excludes the institutional population. Aside from the difference in the coverage, the discrepancies in population sex ratios between the NFHS and the 1991 Census in Bihar could occur if the NFHS missed more males than females, or if the Census missed more females than males, or if both of these errors occurred. Sampling error in the NFHS does not account for such a large

Table 3.2 Population by age and sex from SRS and NFHS					
Percent distribution of the <i>de jure</i> population by age and sex from SRS and NFHS, Bihar, 1991-93					
Age	SRS (1991)		NFHS (1993)		Sex ratio
	Male	Female	Male	Female	
0 - 4	15.7	15.5	13.4	13.7	981
5 -14	25.1	24.7	28.5	27.9	934
15-29	27.3	25.8	24.5	26.7	1043
30-49	20.4	21.8	20.6	20.2	935
50-64	7.9	8.1	8.2	7.6	879
65+	3.6	4.0	4.8	4.0	792
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	956
Median age	U	U	19.3	19.2	NA
NA: Not applicable					
U: Not available					
Source for SRS: Office of the Registrar General (1993a).					

I ^{under} 6-economy

Table 3.9 Household ownership of land, livestock and durable goods

Percentage of households owning agricultural land, livestock and various consumer durable goods according to residence, Bihar, 1993

Item owned	Residence			
	Urban	Rural	Total	Backward districts
Agricultural land				
No land	71.7	40.7	45.4	47.3
Irrigated land only				
< 1 Acre	4.0	11.7	10.5	10.2
1-5 Acres	3.3	8.9	8.1	8.8
6+ Acres	2.7	1.9	2.0	2.1
Non-irrigated land only				
< 1 Acre	3.1	8.3	7.5	5.8
1-5 Acres	5.8	12.0	11.1	5.9
6+ Acres	2.3	2.7	2.6	0.7
Irrigated and non-irrigated land				
< 1 Acre	1.2	5.1	4.5	6.7
1-5 Acres	3.1	5.7	5.3	8.7
6+ Acres	2.8	3.0	3.0	3.9
Total percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Livestock				
Bullock	6.8	33.9	29.8	30.7
Cow	12.3	29.2	26.6	30.0
Buffalo	5.5	18.8	16.8	22.3
Goat	7.9	19.9	18.1	18.5
Sheep	--	0.6	0.5	0.7
Camel	--	--	--	0.1
Other	1.2	2.4	2.2	3.2
No livestock	76.7	36.2	42.3	38.0
Consumer durable goods				
Sewing machine	35.8	5.5	10.1	6.1
Clock/watch	79.2	35.3	42.0	38.7
Radio	56.5	21.6	26.9	23.9
Television	48.5	3.7	10.6	5.0
Refrigerator	18.6	0.7	3.4	1.1
Bicycle	55.0	34.6	37.7	30.8
Motorcycle/scooter	25.2	2.8	6.2	2.5
Car	5.4	0.1	0.9	--
Bullock cart	1.1	3.0	2.7	0.7
Thresher	1.2	2.3	2.1	2.6
Tractor	1.0	0.5	0.6	0.3
Water pump	2.8	5.1	4.8	8.1
Number of households	723	4025	4748	686

-- Less than 0.05 percent

11.3 Availability of Health Facilities

The availability of health facilities either within or close to a village is critical to the health and well-being of village mothers and their children. Table 11.3 shows the distance of villages from the nearest health facility as well as the percentage of ever-married women in rural areas who have access to the facilities. Nearly 42 percent of all sample villages in Bihar have some form of health facility within the village. Eighteen percent have a sub-centre within the village, the same percentage as have a hospital. Fifteen percent have a dispensary/clinic, but only 4 percent of villages have a Primary Health Centre within the village and 31 percent have the nearest one located at a distance of at least 10 km. Seventy-three percent of the villages have a sub-centre within the village or within 5 km of the village. Forty-two percent of villages have the nearest hospital located 10 or more km away.

The median distance of villages to a sub-centre is almost 3 km, while the median distance to a Primary Health Centre is 7 km. The median distance of villages from a hospital is 7 km.

The percent distribution of ever-married women according to the distance to the nearest health facility mirrors the distribution of villages. Sixty-two percent of ever-married women have access to a health facility within their village and the most common facility is a sub-centre (43 percent). Most women (52 percent) would have to travel 10 or more km to a hospital.

Table 11.3 Distance from nearest health facility						
Percent distribution of villages and ever-married women age 13-49, according to distance from nearest health facility, Bihar, 1993						
Distance	Health facility					
	Primary Health Centre	Sub-centre	Either PHC/Sub-centre	Hospital	Dispensary/clinic	Any health facility
VILLAGES						
Within village	3.7	17.7	18.5	18.6	14.8	41.9
< 5 km	35.2	55.1	57.6	26.6	44.2	35.5
5-9 km	29.7	20.9	22.2	13.3	19.1	21.8
10+ km	30.9	3.4	1.7	41.5	12.3	0.8
Don't know/missing	0.4	2.9	--	--	9.5	--
Total percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Median distance	7.3	2.5	2.4	7.2	2.9	1.5
EVER-MARRIED WOMEN						
Within village	6.4	43.3	44.3	11.8	27.7	62.0
< 5 km	26.7	38.4	39.8	16.6	28.2	24.3
5-9 km	34.2	14.7	14.7	20.1	20.6	12.7
10+ km	32.8	2.8	1.1	51.5	17.9	1.0
Don't know/missing	--	0.8	--	--	5.7	--
Total percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Median distance	7.5	1.2	1.1	10.4	3.1	0.8
-- Less than 0.05 percent						

11.4 Availability of Other Facilities and Services

Health personnel are also very important for the provision of health services to mothers and their children. Table 11.4 indicates the availability of health personnel within the villages. Only 18 percent of the villages have a village health guide, only 15 percent have a trained birth attendant, and less than 2 percent have a mobile health unit or have been visited by a mobile health unit.

Table 11.4 also details the availability of various other facilities and services in the villages. About one third of all the villages (32 percent) are electrified. Among the government rural development programmes in India, the most important is the Integrated Rural Development Programme, but it exists in only 35 percent of the villages in Bihar. Only 6 percent of the villages have National Rural Employment Programme (NREP), 5 percent have Training the Youth for Self-Employment (TRYSEM), and 2 percent have the Employment Guarantee Scheme (EGS). One in seven villages have an *Anganwadi* centre (a preschool child care centre under the Integrated Child Development Scheme), 9 percent have adult education classes, 8 percent have *Jana Shikshana Nilayam* (post-literacy adult education centre) and 6 percent have youth clubs. Only 1 percent of them have *Mahila Mandal* (women's club). One-fourth of the villages have some type of cooperative society. Shops or markets are more common, but are not available in most villages. A little less than one-fifth of villages (19 percent) have a fair price shop and 24 percent have a market or other type of shop. Only 10 percent have a bank and 25 percent have a post office.

Table 11.4 Availability of facilities and services	
Percentage of villages having selected facilities and services, Bihar, 1993	
Facility/service	Percentage
<i>Anganwadi</i>	13.6
Adult education classes	8.7
<i>Jana Shikshana Nilayam</i>	7.6
Village health guide	18.3
Trained birth attendant	15.3
Mobile health unit	1.6
Electricity	31.8
Bank	10.2
Cooperative society	10.9
Agriculture cooperative society	12.5
Milk cooperative society	1.7
Post office	24.7
Market/shop	24.2
Fair price shop	19.2
<i>Mahila Mandal</i>	1.2
Youth club	5.8
Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP)	34.9
National Rural Employment Programme (NREP)	6.3
Training the Youth for Self-employment (TRYSEM)	4.7
Employment Guarantee Scheme (EGS)	2.0

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Survey

The Ministry of Health and Family Welfare (MOHFW), Government of India, has sponsored the development of 18 Population Research Centres (PRCs) located in universities and institutes of national repute throughout India. In 1991, the MOHFW initiated the Project to Strengthen the Survey Research Capabilities of the PRCs (PRC Project) with financial support from the United States Agency for International Development (USAID). The National Family Health Survey (NFHS) is being undertaken as one important component of the PRC Project.

The NFHS covers the population in 24 states and the National Capital Territory of Delhi, (the erstwhile Union Territory of Delhi) which contain 99 percent of the population of India. The NFHS is a household survey with an overall sample size of 89,777 ever-married women in the age group 13-49. Because of the scale of this undertaking, the data collection under the NFHS was carried out in three phases in 1992 and 1993. Andhra Pradesh, Himachal Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh, Tamil Nadu and West Bengal were the states covered in the first phase. The states covered in the second phase of the NFHS were Assam, Goa, Haryana, Karnataka, Kerala, Maharashtra, Rajasthan and Uttar Pradesh. In the third phase of the NFHS, Arunachal Pradesh, Bihar, Gujarat, the Jammu Region of Jammu and Kashmir, Manipur, Meghalaya, Mizoram, Nagaland, Orissa, Punjab, Tripura and the National Capital Territory of Delhi were covered.

The NFHS is a collaborative project of the MOHFW, Government of India, New Delhi; the International Institute for Population Sciences (IIPS), Bombay; several Consulting Organizations (COs); all the PRCs; USAID, New Delhi; and the East-West Center/Macro International. The MOHFW designated IIPS, Bombay, as the nodal organization, responsible for providing coordination and technical guidance for the NFHS. The PRCs participated in all stages of survey implementation for the states in which they are located. IIPS and the PRCs collaborated with a number of COs in India for survey implementation. Each CO was responsible for facilitating survey activities in one or more states covered by the NFHS. Technical assistance for the NFHS was provided by the East-West Center/Macro International.

In the state of Bihar, the survey was conducted by the Population Research Centre (PRC), Patna University in close collaboration with the Centre for Development Research and Training (CFDRT), a private research organization in Madras. The CFDRT Madras acted as a Consulting Organisation (CO) for the NFHS in Bihar.

1.2 Origin of the State

The origin of Bihar state can be traced back to the Vedic period. Bihar is mentioned in the *Vedas*, *Puranas* and epics. Bihar formed a part of Bengal presidency until a new province of Bihar and Orissa (combined) was created on 12 December 1911. Between 1931 and 1941 there was yet another partition and Bihar and Orissa became two separate provinces. Some portions of Bihar were ceded to West Bengal as a result of the Bihar and West Bengal (Transfer of Territories) Act, 1956 (Office of the Registrar General and Census Commissioner, 1967).

1.3 Geographic Features

Physical Characteristics

Bihar is a land-locked state lying between $21^{\circ}58'10''$ and $27^{\circ}31'15''$ north latitudes, and $83^{\circ}19'50''$ and $88^{\circ}17'40''$ east longitudes. It is bounded on the north by Nepal, on the east by West Bengal, on the west by Uttar Pradesh and Madhya Pradesh and on the south by Orissa.

According to the 1981 Census, Bihar is divided on the basis of physical features into three regions, namely the Himalayan Foothills, the Bihar Plain and the Bihar Plateau. The Himalayan Foothills are located in the northern part of Paschim Champaran district. This region comprises the Dun and Sumeshwar ranges of the Siwalik hills which is a part of the Himalayan system. The Dun range is about 32 km in length and the Sumeshwar range is 72 km long with an altitude of 450 metres.

The Bihar plain is part of the Indo-Ganga plain which is Terai flat. The monotony is broken in the southern part of this region by an extension of the plateau margins. This plain is further divided into two micro-regions, i.e., North Bihar plain and South Bihar plain. The North Bihar plain is a riverine plain which extends from the Tarai of Nepal in the north to the northern bank of Ganga in the south. This plain is very fertile and densely populated. The general slope is towards the southeast, and the area is known for floods and frequent shifts in the channels of the Kosi river. The South Bihar plain extends roughly from 150 metres contour in the south to the bank of the Ganga river in the north. The general slope of the region is northeast with numerous isolated hills, including the Barabar, Rajgir and Kharagpur hills. Due to the intrusion of the Kharagpur hills toward the north, the Ganga takes a sharp bend near Munger district.

The Bihar plateau is more popularly known as the Chotanagpur plateau and consists of a series of plateaus of different elevations. The entire Chotanagpur plateau is very rich in mineral deposits. The Ranchi plateau is the highest, with an elevation of about 1,100 metres (also known as the 'Pat' lands), and consists of Deccan lava. The area east of the Ranchi plateau is the Hazaribagh plateau which extends to the Rajmahal hills with an average height of 600 metres above sea level. It is formed by the debris of the streams descending down the hills. The southern part of this region, known as the Singhbhum plateau, has an altitude of 150 metres with many hill rocks of 300 metres or more. Dalma and Baghmundi are the main ranges in this plateau. The region slopes towards the southeast direction (Director of Census Operations, Bihar, 1981).

The life line of this state is the Ganga river which enters the state from the west and flows towards the east. A large number of rivers join the Ganga from the north and south. Ghaghara, Gandak and Kosi are the main tributaries of the Ganga. Kosi, called "the sorrow of Bihar", is the widest river and frequently changes its course causing devastation. The Son, Punpun, Mohane and Gumani rivers are the right-bank tributaries of the Ganga. Other rivers that form the southern drainage system in Bihar are the South Koel, Subarnarekha, Damodar and Barkar.

I-3
Forests in the state are mainly confined to the Chotanagpur plateau. The total area under forests in the state was 29,226.09 km² during 1985-86, which accounts for 16.8 percent of the total area of the state.

Climate, Rainfall and Seasons

The year in Bihar may be divided into three distinct seasons - winter from October to February, summer from March to mid-June and the monsoon from mid-June to September. Hot westerly winds begin in March and last until May. The temperature begins to rise in March, and the months of April and May are characterised by great heat and dryness. The monsoon sets in by around the middle of June, bringing in its wake a quick fall in the temperature and widespread rains ending in September. The cold season starts in November when both day and night temperatures drop rapidly. January is usually the coldest month (Office of Registrar General and Census Commissioner, 1967).

The temperature varies from region to region. The lowest temperature varies from 0°C to 4°C in Chotanagpur to 8°C to 11°C in other parts of the state. The mean maximum temperature in May varies between 35°C and 38°C in North Bihar and between 37°C and 41°C in South Bihar. Gaya is the hottest district in the state as well as in the country. The elevated portion of the Chotanagpur plateau has a relatively mild summer.

The state receives most of its rainfall from the southwest monsoon from June to September. The average rainfall is 1,200 mm and ranges from 1,000 mm to 2,000 mm.

I-4 1.4 Area and People

Area and Administrative Divisions

The state of Bihar is 173,847 km² in area and ranks ninth among the states and Union Territories of India. Bihar is densely populated with only 5.3 percent of the area of the country and 10.58 percent of its people. Patna, the capital of Bihar, is situated on the bank of the Ganga river. The state was divided into 7 administrative divisions and 31 districts in 1981. The numbers rose to 10 and 42, respectively, in 1991. There were 587 community development blocks (C.D. Blocks) in 1981.

I-5 People, Culture, Religion and Language

Bihar has a glorious history which can be traced to Aryans who settled along the Indo-Gangetic plains. For over a thousand years, from the sixth century B.C. to the fifth century A.D., the history of India was much the history of Bihar (Diwakar, 1959). This period witnessed the rise and fall of the famous Maurya and Gupta empires in Bihar. The renowned ancient kingdoms of *Videha*, *Magadha*, and *Anga* were parts of Bihar. Pataliputra (present Patna) was the capital of *Magadha* for a long time and is best known in connection with the Maurya kings Chandragupta and Ashoka. *Mithila*, which was an important centre for Sanskrit learning as early as 1000 B.C., comprised three districts of Bihar, namely Darbhanga, Champaran and Muzaffarpur (The Imperial Gazetteer of India, 1908). *Vaisali* which was part of south Muzaffarpur district was a small kingdom known as the first republic, not only in India,

but also in the world. The famous treatise on statecraft, namely *Arthashastra*, is attributed to Kautilya (or Chanakya), who was Chandragupta Maurya's able minister (Smith, 1919).

Bihar was ruled by kings of the Gupta dynasty during the fourth and fifth centuries A.D. and flourished in several walks of life. It was a period known for economic prosperity, and for advancement in science, music, fine arts and literature. Architecture, sculpture and painting attained a high level of excellence during the Gupta rule. The Gupta regime was famous for its noninterfering, benevolent governance which provided health services, good roads and rest houses to pilgrims. The sciences of mathematics, astronomy and astrology were cultivated with much success during the Gupta period. Aryabhata and Varahmihir, two famous scientists, flourished in the Gupta regime. The reign of various kings of the Gupta dynasty from A.D. 320 to 480 is known in Indian history as the "Golden Age" (Smith, 1919).

Bihar is the land of Gautama Buddha and Mahavir Jain. Mahavir Jain founded the cognate creed of the Jains in Bihar and Gautama Buddha developed his religion in Magadha. In fact Bihar derives its name from the town of Vihar which means a Buddhist monastery (Imperial Gazetteer, 1908). Bihar-Shariff, considered to be the second Mecca by many Muslims, and Gaya, with the temple of *Vishnupada*, considered to be one of the holiest places, are situated within 200 km of Patna. Patna, the birth place of Guru Govind Singh, is very sacred to the Sikhs (Srinivasan et al., 1982).

In ancient times, Bihar was very famous for its various seats of learning. The universities of Nalanda, Vikram Shila (now Bhagalpur) and Udaatpuri (now Bihar-Shariff) were highly regarded centres of higher learning, which students and scholars from India and various other countries visited. Unfortunately, despite its glorious past history of learning, Bihar is now one of the most illiterate states in India.

Bihar is also a land of many freedom fighters such as Veer Kaur Singh, Birsamunda, Tilka Manjhi, Maulana Mazharul Haque, and Abdul Bari. Mahatma Gandhi started his "Freedom Movement" from Champaran in Bihar.

According to the 1981 Census, 83 and 14 percent of the population of Bihar are Hindus and Muslims, respectively (Office of the Registrar General and Census Commissioner, 1984a). The main language of the people is Hindi which is also the official language of the state. Besides Hindi a large percentage of Muslims speak Urdu. Bhojpuri, Magahi and Maithili are among the local dialects of the state.

1.5 Economy

5-6 Bihar is predominantly an agricultural state with about 87 percent of the population living in rural areas according to the 1991 Census. Agriculture is the single largest sector of the economy employing about 81 percent of the work force, 43.6 percent as cultivators and 37.1 percent as agricultural labourers (Office of the Registrar General and Census Commissioner, 1991a). Agriculture accounts for 40 percent of the state's income (averaging over the period 1986-89 at current prices). Bihar grows kharif and rabi crops and the major agricultural products include rice, bajra, maize, jowar, sugarcane, tur, potato and pulses. The main cash crops are sugarcane, potato, tobacco, oilseeds, onion, jute and mesta. Kharif and rabi food

grains constitute 64 and 36 percent of the total production of food grains in the state, respectively. They constitute 8.1 and 5.9 percent of the total production of kharif and rabi food grains in India (Centre for Monitoring Indian Economy, 1991).

Coal, bauxite, copper ore, gold, iron, silver, lime stone, mica, manganese, cromite, sulphur pyrites, graphite, vanadium, appellate, barytes, asbestos and dolomite are the principal minerals of the state. The state reserves 32.3 percent of the mineral resources of the country (the highest) and contributes 35 percent to the all-India production. The state's share of the national income from the mining sector was about 35 percent during 1960-61, and declined to about 25 percent during 1980-89. Although Bihar is rich in mineral resources, it is industrially not well developed. The state has a few industries, including manufacture of cement, fertilizer, caustic soda, alloy steel and steel rope. In the core sector, the state has steel plants at Bokaro and Jamshedpur, a sponge iron project at Chaudil, a copper complex at Ghatsila, coal mining industries, heavy engineering and forging plants at Ranchi, a caustic soda plant at Garhwa road (Palamu), a fertilizer factory at Sindri, an oil refinery at Barauni and an alloy steel plant at Patratu and Adityapur.

1.6 Basic Demographic Indicators

The basic demographic indicators for the state and for India are given in Table 1.1. Bihar is the second most populous state (after Uttar Pradesh) with a population of 86 million. The decadal population growth rate in the state during 1981-91 was almost the same as that for the nation as a whole (24 percent). The population density (per km²) in 1991 was 497 for the state compared to 273 for India. There is a large variation in the population density among the districts of the state, ranging from 127 in the newly created district of Gumla to 1,130 in the Patna district.

Eighty-seven percent of the population of Bihar live in rural areas compared to 74 percent in India. The sex ratio of the population (number of females per 1,000 males) is 911 in Bihar and 927 for all India. The percentage of the population age 0-14 years (41 percent) is considerably higher than in the country (36 percent), reflecting a higher fertility rate in the state. However, about 4 percent of the population in the state, as well as the country, is age 65 years or older. The percentage of children age 0-4 years has declined slightly during 1981-91 both at the state and country level, but the percentage of old persons (age 65+) has remained the same. In 1991, persons belonging to scheduled castes¹ and scheduled tribes², constituted 14.6

¹ The Government of India has identified certain castes as socially and economically backward and recognizing the need to protect them from social injustice and all forms of exploitation, the constitution of India has conferred on them special protection. The term "Scheduled caste" was used for these caste groups for the first time in India in the Government of India Act of 1935 (Office of the Registrar General and Census Commissioner, 1984b). The list of scheduled castes and scheduled tribes used in the 1981 Census was based on the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes Orders (Amendment) Act of 1976 (Central Act 108 of 1976). Scheduled castes refer to such caste races or tribes or parts of groups, within such castes, races or tribes as are declared to be scheduled castes by the President of India by public notification.

² Scheduled tribes refer to such tribe or tribal communities or parts of or groups within such tribes or tribal communities as are declared to be scheduled tribes by the president of India by public notification (Office of the Registrar General and Census Commissioner, 1984b).

and 7.7 percent of the population of Bihar compared with 16.7 and 8.0 percent of India, respectively.

Bihar is known as one of the most educationally backward states in India. The literacy rate among the population age 7 years and above, according to the 1991 Census, was 38.5 and 52.2 percent for the state and the country, respectively. The literacy rates for males and females of the state were 52.5 and 22.9 percent compared with 64.1 and 39.3 percent, respectively, for the country.

The crude birth rate of 32.3 per 1,000 population and the crude death rate of 10.9 per 1,000 population are higher than the all-India crude birth rate of 29.2 and crude death rate of 10.1 as estimated by the Sample Registration System (SRS) in 1992. The total fertility rate of 4.4 children per woman in Bihar is also higher than the all-India fertility rate of 3.6 children per woman in 1991. The annual exponential growth rate for Bihar was 2.11 percent compared with 2.14 percent for the country during 1981-91.

Table 1.1 also indicates that the infant mortality rate is lower in the state than in the country. The infant mortality rate estimated by the SRS was 73 per 1,000 live births in Bihar compared to 79 in India for the year 1992. The life expectancy for males in the state (58.2 years) and the country (58.1 years) are the same, whereas for females it is lower in the state (57.0 years) than in the country (59.1 years). The couple protection rate (defined as the percentage of eligible couples effectively protected against pregnancy) was 25 percent in Bihar compared with 44 percent in India for the year 1992.

Major demographic trends in the state are displayed in Table 1.2. The total population of the state was 56.4 million in 1971, 69.9 million in 1981 and 86.4 million in 1991. As such, there was an addition of 30 million persons during the last twenty years. The decadal growth rate increased from 21.3 percent for the period 1961-71 to 24.1 percent for 1971-81 and then declined slightly to 23.5 percent during 1981-91. The density of population (per km²) rose from 324 in 1971 to 405 in 1981 and 497 in 1991, indicating rising pressure of population on the land.

The percentage of urban population in Bihar increased from 10 percent in 1971 to 12.5 percent in 1981 and finally to 13.1 percent in 1991. The sex ratio declined from 954 in 1971 to 946 in 1981 and 911 in 1991. The percentage of the population age 0-14 declined by only 2 percentage points from 1971 to 1991 and the population age 65 years and above increased by less than 1 percentage point during the same period. The percentage of the population belonging to scheduled castes increased from 14.1 in 1971 to 14.6 in 1991, whereas the percentage belonging to scheduled tribes decreased from 8.8 to 7.7 percent during the same period.

Although the level of literacy during the period 1971-91 has increased, the literacy rate of females in Bihar is still very low. The percentage of males age 5 years and above who are literate increased by 7.5 percentage points compared with a 4.9 percentage point increase in female literacy during 1971-81, and increased 14.4 percentage points compared with 9.3 for females during 1981-91. According to the 1991 census, the literacy rate for males age 7 and above (53 percent) is more than double the literacy rate for females (23 percent).

Table 1.1 Basic demographic indicators

Basic demographic indicators for Bihar and India, 1981-1992

Index	Bihar	India
Population (1991)	86,374,465	846,302,688
Percent population increase (1981-91)	23.5	23.9
Density (Population/km ²) (1991)	497	273
Percent urban (1991)	13.1	26.1
Sex ratio (1991)	911	927
Percent 0-14 years old (1981)	41.7	39.6
(1991)	40.6	36.3
Percent 65+ years old (1981)	3.7	3.8
(1991)	3.8	3.8
Percent scheduled caste (1991)	14.6	16.7
Percent scheduled tribe (1991)	7.7	8.0
Percent literate (1991) ¹		
Male	52.5	64.1
Female	22.9	39.3
Total	38.5	52.2
Crude birth rate (1992)	32.3	29.2
Crude death rate (1992)	10.9	10.1
Exponential growth rate (1981-91)	2.11	2.14
Total fertility rate (1991)	4.4	3.6
Infant mortality rate (1992)	73	79
Life expectancy (1986-90)		
Male	55.7	57.7
Female	53.6	58.1
Couple protection rate (1992)	24.7	43.5

¹Based on the population age 7 and above.

Source: Office of the Registrar General (1992, 1993a, 1994a, 1994b); Office of the Registrar General and Census Commissioner (1987); Ministry of Health and Family Welfare (1991, 1992).

The crude birth rate in the state declined from 39.1 per 1,000 population in 1981 to 30.7 in 1991. The total fertility rate declined from 5.7 children per woman in 1981 to 4.8 children per woman in 1991. The crude death rate declined from 13.9 per 1,000 population in 1981 to 9.8 per 1,000 population in 1991.

The exponential rate of growth of the population of Bihar increased from 1.93 during 1961-71 to 2.16 during 1971-81 and then declined slightly to 2.11 during 1981-91. It is remarkable to note that Bihar experienced a rapid decline in infant mortality from the level of 118 per 1,000 live births in 1981 to 69 in 1991. The life expectancy has increased considerably, by 3 years for males and 4 years for females from 1981-86 to 1986-91. However, life expectancy for females remained considerably lower than life expectancy for males during the same periods, contrary to the pattern observed in most other Indian states and other countries. Government statistics reveal that the percentage of couples effectively protected by various methods of family planning in Bihar rose steadily from 5.5 in 1971 to 12.3 in 1981 and finally to 24.7 in 1992.

Table 1.2 Trends in basic demographic indicators

Trends in basic demographic indicators, Bihar, 1971-91

Index	1971	1981	1991
Population	56,353,369	69,914,734	86,374,465
Percent population increase (previous decade)	21.3	24.1	23.5
Density (population/km ²)	324	405	497
Percent urban	10.0	12.5	13.1
Sex ratio	954	946	911
Percent 0-14 years old	42.6	41.7	40.6
Percent 65+ years old	3.2	3.7	3.8
Percent scheduled caste	14.1	14.5	14.6
Percent scheduled tribe	8.8	8.3	7.7
Percent literate ^a			
Male	30.6	38.1	52.5
Female	8.7	13.6	22.9
Total	19.9	26.2	38.5
Crude birth rate	U	39.1	30.7
Crude death rate	U	13.9	9.8
Exponential growth rate	1.93	2.16	2.11
Total fertility rate	U	5.7	4.4
Infant mortality rate	U	118	69
Life expectancy			
Male	U	55.2 ^b	55.7 ^c
Female	U	52.9 ^b	53.6 ^c
Couple protection rate	5.5	12.3	24.7 ^d
U: Not available			
^a Based on the population age 5 and above for 1971 and 1981 and population age 7 and above for 1991.			
^b 1981-86			
^c 1986-90			
^d 1992			
Source: Office of the Registrar General (1982, 1985, 1992, 1993a, 1994a, 1994b); Office of the Registrar General and Census Commissioner (1974, 1976, 1984b, 1987); Ministry of Health and Family Welfare (1989, 1991, 1992).			

1.7 Population and Family Welfare Policies and Programmes

Health and family planning services in Bihar, as in other states, are provided through a network of sub-centres, Primary Health Centres, Community Health Centres, Postpartum Centres, Voluntary Organizations and other facilities according to the national family welfare policy and guidelines provided under the family welfare programmes of the country. The clinical approach of the programme was followed by the extension education approach which was introduced in 1963-64. Mass vasectomy camps were organised during 1970-73. During the seventies, a community-oriented service network was developed in which family planning services were offered as part of the overall package of health services. This integrated and coordinated approach was implemented during the period 1974-77. The mother and child care approach, which commenced in 1977-78, is still continuing. The Expanded Programme on Immunization (EPI) was introduced in 1978 with the sole objective of reducing mortality and disabilities due to various diseases like diphtheria, tetanus, tuberculosis, typhoid and poliomyelitis by providing free vaccination services easily available to all eligible children and

expectant mothers. In order to speed up the pace of immunization the Universal Immunization Programme (UIP) was introduced during 1985-86 and is being implemented through the existing network of the Primary Health Care System.

The Area Project in Bihar was carried out in 11 districts of Bihar during 1981-87 with the financial assistance of UNFPA. The objective of the project was to make available integrated services for health and family welfare to the people and reduce maternal and child mortality and morbidity. The project also focused on increasing and satisfying the demand for contraceptive services, increasing the availability of trained manpower in the field, and providing buildings for health centres and residential purposes (Ministry of Health and Family Welfare, 1992). The multipurpose workers scheme launched by the government of India in 1974 included Bihar. The chief objective of the scheme was to establish a health delivery system in the rural areas through a team of multipurpose workers, including one male and one female for every 5,000 rural population. Implementation of the scheme involved training all existing health workers at different levels in multipurpose functions.

An Information Education and Communication (IEC) Training Programme was launched during 1987-88. The chief objective of the programme was to restructure the working pattern of the health personnel with regular supportive training and supervision, with a view to making the health infrastructure more responsive to people's needs. Districts and PHC-level training teams were formed in all districts and regular training programmes were started. A series of need assessments and situational materials were developed. The scheme seeks to promote voluntary community participation in health and family welfare by persons in the village at the rate of one person for 20 households. Further, it enhances mobility of grassroots workers by providing teams with bicycles, mopeds and motorcycles (Ministry of Health and Family Welfare, 1990). This scheme in Bihar has continued under the IPP-7 programme since 1987. The Child Survival and Safe Motherhood (CSSM) programme was recently started in Bihar (Ministry of Health and Family Welfare, 1993). The chief objective of this programme is to ensure survival of children and safe motherhood through different measures adopted by the government.

1.8 Health Priorities and Programmes

Health conditions in Bihar are poor. The rapidly growing population is adversely affecting health and quality of life. Delivery of health services is mainly governed by the National Health Policy which was approved by Parliament in 1983. Although the National Health Policy places a major emphasis on ensuring primary health care to all by the year 2000, it identifies certain areas which need special attention. These areas are: (1) nutrition for all segments of population, (2) the immunization programme, (3) maternal and child health care, (4) prevention of food adulteration and maintenance of quality of drugs, (5) water supply and sanitation, (6) environmental protection, (7) school health programmes, (8) occupational health services and (9) prevention and control of locally endemic diseases. Moreover, active community participation is one of the most important ingredients in the successful implementation of health programmes.

After India became a signatory to the Alma Ata Declaration of 1978 by committing itself to the goal of "Health for All" by 2000 A.D., the government concentrated on the development of rural health infrastructure so as to provide health care services to the rural population which

44:14.

Political analysis and election trends of Bihar based on General Elections, 1996

{Source: EPW; Vol XXXII No.47, November 22-28, 1997 - Binoy S. Prasad}

Caste and social factions continue to play a major role in elections continue to play a major role in elections in Bihar. In the absence of concrete political agendas, these influences get further reinforced and elections have become a means of establishing a phoney social dominance by caste groups. This is also why no one pattern of alignment of social forces is clearly discernible as consistent. The distinct political culture of the state where the majority of voters are illiterate but politically alert, has contributed to the violent and corrupt nature of elections in Bihar.

There were a number of developments that provided an interesting backdrop to the 1996 Lok Sabha election in Bihar. Just a year before the election to the Vidhana Sabha (the state legislative assembly) had established the chief minister of Bihar, Laloo Prasad Yadav as one of the strongest regional leaders of north India. With no great performance achieved by the government, the voters got yet another chance to make known their opinion on Laloo's administration which had been hit by the scandal which came to be known as the "fodder scam". Above all, the election of 1996 was a retrial of the political alliance of the social groups: the other backward casts (OBC), especially the yadavs, Muslims, and dalits so successfully forged under the leadership of Laloo. Evidently, with the kurmis and the OBCs breaking away from the alliance and their alignment with the BJP and other small forward caste parties, the political equation had changed considerably.

Alliance System and Election Trends

BJP-Samata Alliance

The major factor for the upset of the Janata Dal under Laloo's leadership was the alliance of the BJP and the Samata Party which claimed 24 out of 54 seats. In south Bihar, i.e., Chhotanagpur-Santhal Pargana area (also identified as the Jharkhand region), the BJP-Samata alliance had a clean sweep. It bagged 12 out of 14 Lok Sabha seats.

The BJP alliance had a positive swing of 12 percent votes in Bihar compared to its national swing of over 2.7 percent only. For the BJP, the national percentage of votes increased from 20.8 percent in 1991 to 23.5 percent in 1996. Despite national reverses of the Congress party and resurgence of the BJP, the national percentage of votes for the Congress still remained higher (28.1 percent) than the BJP (23.5 percent). In the 'first-past-the-post' election system, there is always an ambiguous relationship between the percentage of votes secured and the number of seats earned. In 1991, the BJP nationally added 40

seats to its total without further addition to its share of votes. This time around, the BJP was a beneficiary of an electoral system they had been criticising for so long.

The BJP's positive swing votes of 12 percent was largely on account of its ally, the Samata Party and voters' disillusionment with the Government of Laloo Prasad Yadav (hereafter mentioned as Laloo) and the main opposition in Bihar, the Congress. In triangular or multi-cornered contests, the alliance worked out by the BJP and the Samata paid rich dividends. The BJP was able to convert its own traditional votes into seats. Earlier, the BJP did not have enough strength on its own to claim as many number of seats. The alliance was a shot in the arm for the BJP and, therefore, it could spread its influence in the north and the central part of Bihar. In a sense, the national average of votes for the BJP (23.5 percent), worked out on the basis of votes secured nationally didn't present the whole picture about the BJP. For example, in its own belt, Maharashtra, Gujarat, Rajasthan, Delhi or Himachal Pradesh, the BJP and allies added 5 percent votes to their share of votes secured in 1991. That accounted for more seats for the BJP than the Congress.

JD-Left Alliance

In 1996, the JD-Left alliance had lost its momentum primarily because of the absence of National Front, a kind of joint front of non-Congress and non-BJP parties that they had in 1990. Secondly, the popularity of the Janata Dal under Laloo's presidency had deteriorated a lot. Thirdly, it was clear that the party did not work hard to expand its base. All these affected the alliance. Out of the 44 Lok Sabha seats the Janata Dal contested, leaving eight seats to the CPI and two to the CPI(M), Laloo fielded 17 of his sitting MLAs including five cabinet ministers. As many as seven of the 17 MLAs were defeated.

The election of the 10 Janata Dal MLAs to the Lok Sabha rendered the Janata Dal government four seats short of a majority in the 324-member state legislative assembly. The Janata Dal had 169 MLAs. The immediate fallout was that like in the previous state legislature (1990-95), Laloo's government depended on alliance partners, the CPI and the CPI(M) which had 23 and six members respectively. The other evidence of the unpopularity of Laloo and the JD was taht along with the 1996 Lok Sabha election, there were by-elections to four Assembly seats. The Janata Dal couldn't win a single seat.

Furthermore, in the by-elections held for 10 seats to the Vidhan Sabha (legislative assembly) that took place on October 11, 1996 (i.e., after the Lok Sabha elections), the BJP-Samata Party combine wrested four seats respectively. There were indications in some cases that Laloo could not secure votes of his own caste, yadav, for the Dal nominees belonging to the non-yadav castes. That clearly meant that for the first time after 1990, Laloo could not take the votes fo yadavs for granted at least for non-

yadav candidates sponsored by him. Three assembly seats had fallen vacant following departure of the three MLAs who were elected to the Lok Sabha in May 1996 and became prime minister Deve Gowda's union ministers also. They were Kanti Singh, Raghubansh Prasad Singh and Chandradeo Prasad Verma who represented Piro, Belsand and Paliganj assembly constituencies respectively. In none of these three assembly constituencies could Laloo's candidate win. Belsand and Paliganj seats went to BJP-Samata nominees and Piro was wrested by Shivanand Tiwari, the general secretary of the Samata Party, Lovely Anand, wife of Anand Mohan Singh, a Samata Party MP snatched the Navi Nagar assembly constituency from the Janata Dal. Laloo had put up Bhima Yadav as the JD candidate who was trounced by Lovely Anand with a comfortable margin of more than 7,000 votes.

Anand Mohan Singh, a rajput tough, was the founder of Bihar People's Party (BPP), largely a rajput outfit. The BPP later merged with the Samata party. An alliance could thus be seen emerging between (a) the forward castes and the tradesmen (usually the banias) represented by the BJP, (b) the non-yadav middle castes like koeri, kurmi and mahato under the Samata Party, and (c) a section of the rajputs represented by the Bihar People's party. In the assembly by-elections, a steady erosion in Laloo's electoral base was noticeable.

The alliance partners of the Janata Dal - the CPI and the CPI(M) - felt that Laloo conducted himself too much like a big brother and settled the adjustment of seats with a strong arm. The communist parties were extending support to Laloo's government before and after the 1996 election because their national leadership directed them to do so. The rank and file of the local party units were, however, very unhappy about Laloo's style of handling the alliance. In 1991, the CPI had won eight Lok Sabha seats and the CPI(M) one. In 1996, they asked for more constituencies. In particular, the CPI was very keen on having Jamshedpur but was denied the constituency. The two communist parties were allotted eight and two seats respectively.

One could debate the merits of the claims and counterclaims of these adjustments of seats, the fact that the Janata Dal and the CPI supporters were not working in unison was manifested in five constituencies where the alliance lost. They were Buxar, Motihari, Munger, Hazaribagh and Nalanda. The winner in all these constituencies was the BJP-Samata Party alliance. Likewise, the CPI(M) lost Nawadah, the only seat to its account in 1991. The CPI(M) cadre also complained of non-cooperation on the part of the Janata Dal workers. The lack of effectiveness of local level alliance was usually because of the presence of rebel candidates or independent candidates cutting into the votes of the majority castes. As we will see later, the CPI and CPI(M) paid the price for insincerity and indifference on the part of the Janata Dal.

Janata Dal and CPI(ML)

The CPI(ML) led by Vinod Mishra, which had earlier extended

support to the formation of Laloo's government in 1990, was also disillusioned by the chief minister because his administration had failed 'to curb violence and atrocities against its mass bases and cadres'. The CPI(ML), therefore, decided to switch its support to the Samata Party. From the ideological standpoint of the CPI(ML), the Samata Party was not fundamentally different from the Janata Dal in its political and social outlook. The Samata Party, with its support base among the kurmi and koeri castes, was just like Laloo's Janata Dal which had yadavs consolidated behind it. Koeris and kurmis along with the yadavs were all members of the OBCs and a vast segment of which was the most formidable upcoming section of the Bihar rural society. Their landed interest had been behind instigation and killings in some of the most infamous cases of political violence. Their movement up the socio-economic ladder had been at the expense of the landless harijans, tribal people or extremely backward castes (EBCs). The CPI(ML), therefore, should have maintained equal distance from both the Janata Dal and the Samata Party. But the exigencies of electoral politics demanded the CPI(ML) too had an alliance partner. In terms of seats, however, the CPI(ML) drew a blank.

Congress: No Alliances, Poor Performance

It is remarkable that the Congress did not have an alliance partner in 1996. In 1970s, the Communist Party of India always had seat adjustments with the Congress(I). Since the JD did not have an alliance with the Jharkhand Mukti Morcha, the Congress should have worked out a tactical alliance with the JMM, a party of the inhabitants of the Chhotanagpur-Santhal Pargana region. After all, the JMM MPs did vote for the motion supporting of P.V. Narasimha Rao in 1992. In fact, before the 1996 election both the Congress and the JMM were discredited to a great extent. The Congress won Begusarai, the lone Lok Sabha seat and a woman MP in 1991. In 1996, Begusarai was lost to Ramendra Kumar, an independent.

In numerical terms, the Congress doubled its strength in 1996 by winning two seats. The credibility of the Congress as a national party was all time low since 38 of its 53 candidates in the field forfeited their deposit. Whereas in eight constituencies (Buxar, Chapra, Siwan, Motihari, Bettiah, Barh, Hajipur and Kishanganj) the Congress had less than 10,000 votes. In Maharajganj, the party polled just a little over 2,000. Many leading stalwarts like Ram Lakhan Singh Yadav (Arrah), Krishna Sahi (Begusarai), Dhanik Lal Mandal (Jhanjharpur), Ramesh Thakur (Bhagalpur) and S.N. Sinha (Aurangabad) lost the election.

Compared to its performance in 1991, the Congress in Bihar achieved a negative swing of votes in 1996 which was around 13 percent. This was against the national negative swing of over 8 percent. The national percentage of votes for the Congress (28.1 percent) in 1996 was against 36.5 percent in 1991. The percentage of votes polled by the Congress was well below 30 in Bihar. Below the critical level of 30 percent mark, votes cannot easily

be translated into seats unless there is a multi-cornered contest.

Bihar, therefore, joined Uttar Pradesh in the list of those states where the Congress had been marginalised. In Assam, Haryana, and Karnataka, the Congress was on the brink of being marginalised. In all, there were 92 Lok Sabha seats in 1991 where the Congress finished third or below. This time around, the number rose to 144. In almost every election held so far, split in non-Congress votes always helped the Congress. In 1996, the split factor did not favour the Congress except in Andhra Pradesh.

Laloo's Reverses: Some Explanations

The unprecedented victory of the JD at the assembly election of 1995 had created an invincible image of Laloo. That image was negated by the votes of Bihar within a year. One of the major reasons for the reverses of the JD was that in Bihar, with the change of parties in power, the repressive nature of the government had never changed. Laloo's government sought to survive on the ideology of 'social justice' which would have mobilised the OBCs, workers, dalits and women. But during the JD government the demands of the peasants continued to be ignored and their agitations were suppressed in the areas of Bhojpur, Gaya, Jehanabad, Aurangabad, and Palamau. There was no let up in the ongoing conflict between peasant organisations and land-owning class. Peasant-worker organisations were banned while the private armies of land-owning class were allowed to gain in strength.

Women who constituted almost half of the population of Bihar were ignored. The Women's Commission, which was set up with representation from various mass women's organisations never took off.

Laloo had to depend largely on his own charisma to rally people around himself or at best on the manipulation of caste equation, mainly the alliance of the Muslims and yadavs. Twelve out of 44 JD tickets were given to the candidates of the yadav caste alone. The share of the yadavs, therefore, worked out to a little more than 27 percent. The share of the yadavs in the population of Bihar is about 12.5 percent. In other words, more than one out every four Lok Sabha candidates of the Janata Dal was a yadav. Many of Laloo's handpicked candidates did not have a clean public image. Atleast 17 of them were members of the current legislative assembly who had not even sought party tickets.

Laloo's administration did not deal with the problem of violence on the weaker section. His first term did witness the 'Tiskhora massacre' near Patna where criminals hired by yadav landlords killed 11 harijans. Laloo, who had earned the reputation of personally visiting the violence-affected areas, was found wanting in taking action against the culprits. Added to this was the poor economic performance of Laloo's government which was getting involved deeper in corruption, the animal husbandry scandal (being the leading one).

recently the RJD Government
is dismissed and President's rule
imposed.

(NOT General information
under the topic of Education)

Availability of educational facilities

The availability of education is very important for the improvement of health and family welfare. Women with a high school education have fewer and healthier children than illiterate women.

{Table 11.1 Distance from nearest town and transportation facility - to be typed}

Most of the sample villages in Bihar have access to some form of educational facility (see Table 11.2). The majority of villages (69 percent) have a primary school located within the village, and three-fourths (78 percent) of the villages have a middle school either within the village or within 5 km of the village. The median distance of villages from a secondary school is 4 km and from a higher secondary school is 6 km. However, colleges are located quite far from the villages, at a median distance of almost 13 km. Fifty-six percent of the villages are 10 or more km from the nearest college.

{Table 11.2: Distance from nearest educational facility - to be typed}

Table 3.7 shows school attendance rates for the school-age household population, by age, sex and residence. The table focuses on children age 6-14, because the Indian Constitution established a goal of providing free and compulsory education for children through age 14. In the state as a whole, only 51 percent of children age 6-14 attend school. In backward districts, the school attendance rate is much higher for males than for females. School attendance rates by sex in the state as a whole are 64 percent for males and 38 percent for females age 6-14. School attendance is also higher in urban areas (77 percent) than in rural areas (47 percent) and backward districts (50 percent).

{Table 3.7: School attendance - to be typed} ✓

Availability of Health Facilities

The availability of health facilities either within or close to a village is critical to the health and well-being of village mothers and their children. Table 11.3 shows the distance of villages from the nearest health facility as well as the percentage of ever-married women in rural areas who have access to the facilities. Nearly 42 percent of all sample villages in Bihar have some form of health facility within the village. Eighteen percent have a sub-centre within the village, the same percentage as have a hospital. Fifteen percent have a dispensary/clinic, but only 4 percent of villages have a Primary Health Centre within the village and 31 percent have the nearest one located at a distance of at least 10 km. Seventy-three percent of the villages have a sub-centre within the village or within 5 km of the village. Forty-two percent of villages have the nearest hospital located 10 or more km away.

The median distance of villages to a sub-centre is almost 3 km, while the median distance to a Primary Health Centre is 7 km. The median distance of villages from a hospital is 7 km.

The present distribution of ever-married women according to the distance to the nearest health facility mirrors the distribution of villages. Sixty-two percent of ever-married women have access to a health facility within their village and the most common facility is a sub-centre (43 percent). Most women (52 percent) would have to travel 10 or more km to a hospital.

{Table 11.3: Distance from nearest health facility - to be typed}

Availability of Other Facilities and Services

Health personnel are also very important for the provision of health services to mothers and their children. Table 11.4 indicates the availability of health personnel within the villages. Only 18 percent of the villages have a village health guide, only 15 percent have trained birth attendant, and less than 2 percent have a mobile health unit or have been visited by a mobile health unit.

Table 11.4 also details the availability of various other facilities and services in the villages. About one third of all the villages (32 percent) are electrified. Among the government rural development programmes in India, the most important is the Integrated Rural Development Programme, but it exists in only 35 percent of the villages in Bihar. Only 6 percent of the villages have National Rural Employment Programme (NREP), 5 percent have Training the Youth for Self-Employment (TRYSEM), and 2 percent have the Employment Guarantee Scheme (EGS). One in seven villages have an Anganwadi centre (a preschool child care centre under the Integrated Rural Development scheme), 9 percent have adult education classes, 8 percent have Jana Shikshana Nilayam (post-literacy adult education centre) and 6 percent have youth clubs. Only 1 percent of them have Mahila Mandal (women's club). One-fourth of the villages have some type of cooperative society. Shops or markets are more common, but are not available in most villages. A little less than one-fifth of villages (19 percent) have a fair price shop and 24 percent have a market or other type of shop. Only 10 percent have a bank and 25 percent have a post office.

{Table 11.4: Availability of facilities and services - to be typed}

Morbidity

Table 8.1 shows the prevalence of the five health conditions among the household population living in each place of residence by age and by sex. Partial or complete blindness, with the highest incidence, affects 28 per 1,000 population. Malaria follows next, afflicting 14 per 1,000 population during the three months prior to the survey. Physical impairment of the limbs affects 7 per 1,000, 6 per 1,000 have tuberculosis and 1 per 1,000 have leprosy.

{Table 8.1: Morbidity - to be typed}

Partial and Complete Blindness

The overall prevalence of partial blindness is 23 per 1,000 population (Table 8.1), with slight variation by place of residence. Partial blindness increases sharply with age from 3 per 1,000 persons age 0-14 to 20 per 1,000 persons age 15-59 and 158 per 1,000 persons age 60 and over. The high prevalence among older persons, by far the largest differential displayed for any of these morbidity data, is particularly striking. Overall, females are substantially more prone to partial blindness than males despite the fact that there are proportionally more males than females in the older age groups where the prevalence of partial blindness is the highest. Overall, the prevalence for females is 25 per 1,000 compared with 21 per 1,000 for males.

The overall level of complete blindness is reported to be higher among urban residents (7 per 1,000) than rural residents (4 per 1,000). Females are slightly more prone to complete blindness than males in rural areas and less prone than males in urban areas. Complete blindness is more than eight times as prevalent among persons over age 60 as among persons age 15-59. Complete blindness is higher among persons age 0-14 than among persons age 15-59, and the difference is significant. The overall prevalence of partial blindness in backward districts is the highest among all areas (26 per 1,000), but the age-sex differentials are similar to those of the state as a whole.

Malaria

The overall level of malaria in the three months prior the survey was 14 per 1,000. The prevalence is substantially lower in urban areas (7 per 1,000) than in rural areas (16 per 1,000). In urban areas, the prevalence of malaria is higher for females (9 per 1,000) than for males (6 per 1,000) whereas slightly the opposite is true in rural areas (16 per 1,000 for males compared with 15 per 1,000 for females). The overall level of malaria in backward districts is 17 per 1,000.

There are more substantial but still rather small differences in prevalence among age groups. The prevalence of malaria is highest for those age 60 and over (20 per 1,000) and lowest for those age 0-14 (12 per 1,000). Since the prevalence of malaria is

known to vary considerably by season, the NHFS estimates should not be taken to represent the typical level throughout the year. The fieldwork was conducted during the dry season when malaria rates are expected to be relatively low.

Tuberculosis

The overall prevalence of tuberculosis is 6 per 1,000, with some variation by place of residence and sex. Age differences are marked, with values of 2 per 1,000 for persons age 0-14, 8 per 1,000 for those age 15-59, and 14 per 1,000 for those age 60 and over. In backward districts, the overall prevalence of tuberculosis is higher at 9 per 1,000 than in the country as a whole.

Leprosy

the reported prevalence of leprosy is only 1 per 1,000. The prevalence is more than twice as high among males as among females and is higher among persons age 60 and over than among others.

Physical Impairment of the Limbs

The overall prevalence of persons with physically impaired limbs is 7 per 1,000. Female prevalence is 6 per 1,000 in all residence groups. Males have slightly higher prevalence, 8 per 1,000. There is little difference in prevalence by age under age 60, but those age 60 and over are more than twice as likely to have physically impaired limbs as others.

(Table 3.9: Household ownership of land, livestock and durable goods - to be typed under Economy (6)) of I

Status of Women

Although there has been some progress in education in recent years, the literacy rate and educational attainment of women age 13-49 is still low, with more than three-quarters of them illiterate. The education of women can play a major role in shaping the attitudes and behaviour of women. Educational attainment is strongly associated with every important variable considered in the NFHS, including age at marriage, fertility behaviour, current use of family planning, demand for family planning, ideal number of children, wanted fertility rate, utilization of antenatal care services, receipt of tetanus toxoid injections and iron and folic acid tablets, delivery in a health facility, delivery by trained attendants, vaccination of children against six serious but preventable diseases, knowledge and ever use of ORS packets, infant and child mortality and the nutritional status of children. The status of women in Bihar is quite low and there is ample evidence of discrimination against women in several respects such as lower female literacy, lower school attendance rate for girls age 6-14, sex ratio unfavourable to women, low level of female employment, relatively low age at marriage, higher female child mortality rates, and lower vaccination rates for female children. Thus programmes to elevate the status of women in Bihar are needed. In particular, increasing the school enrollment and educational levels of girls and young women is important for reducing fertility, increasing family planning use and improving maternal child health. The spread of education is, however, a slow process and there is clearly the need for a well-managed, rigorous family welfare programme.

{Table 4.9: Money spent for daughter's marriage - to be typed}

Table 4.9 also presents the distribution of ever-married women by the amount spent on the marriage of daughters by background characteristics of the respondents. Residents of urban areas and families of more educated women spend higher amounts on the marriage of daughters than others, and families of scheduled caste and scheduled tribe women spend less on the marriage of daughters than others.

Table 4.10 presents information on the cash paid as a dowry by background characteristics. A little more than one-tenth of ever-married women (11 percent) said that no cash is generally given as dowry in the daughter's marriage and 12 percent stated that they do not know. Among those who said that cash was given as a dowry, 32 percent gave less than Rs.10,000, 37 percent gave Rs.10,000 to 24,999 and 31 percent gave Rs.25,000 or more.

Urban residents (13 percent) and women with at least a high school education (14 percent) are more likely to state that no dowry is given than rural and less educated women. Among women of other religions and scheduled tribe women, two-thirds reported that no dowry is given. Urban residents (45 percent) and those with at least a high school education (58 percent) are also more likely to report that more than Rs.25,000 in cash is given as

dowry in a daughter's marriage.

In addition to cash, it is also customary to present various commodities to a daughter as part of the dowry. Table 4.11 shows the percentage of ever-married women by the items generally given as dowry to the daughter at the time of marriage. The most common items given are radios or transistors (66 percent), cycles (65 percent) and utensils (64 percent). Twenty-nine percent said that generally in their families furniture such as cots, chairs, sofa sets, dining tables, and cupboards are given to daughters at marriage. Twelve percent said that items such as televisions, VCRs or VCPs are given and 11 percent stated that cars, scooters or motorbikes are given. Less than 50 grams or more of gold are given as dowry. The figures for silver are similar to those for gold.

The families in urban areas are more likely to give gold, silver, cars, scooters or motorbikes, televisions, VCRs or VCPs and furniture; and those in rural areas are more likely to give cycles, radios or transistors and utensils. The families of literate women are more likely than others to give expensive items such as gold and silver, cars, scooters or motorbikes, televisions, and VCRs or VCPs. Compared with Hindus, the Muslims are more likely to give less expensive items. Among scheduled caste households, cycles, radios and utensils are the most common items given. Thirty-two percent of women belonging to scheduled tribes report that no items are given as dowry.

{Table 4.10: Cash paid as dowry - to be typed}

{Table 4.11: Items given as dowry - to be typed}

{Table 9.4: Place of delivery - To be typed}

{Population table - to be typed}

- All These are taken directly from various sources - which need to be printed. They provide a good base for understanding the Bihar situation.
- When recorded they need to be printed out 1/2 sheets
 - we may put together short paper later in which we will understand the framework well need to be developed.
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- Same

State-backed caste-based Senas in Bihar

"If someone is alive in Bihar, it is because nobody is interested in killing him".

-People Union for Civil Rights

The collapse of the state and its administrative machinery has resulted in a dual or parallel system in different spheres of Bihar social life. The collapse of the state-run education system has led thousands of private educational institutions to spring up throughout Bihar. Same is the fate of state-run health care system. The prime source of income for thousands of state employed doctors is their private clinics and nursing homes. The state-run hospitals have become death traps. Power supply in the state is equally ad hoc. Water of state-run water supply system is so contaminated, especially during the monsoon that it perpetually becomes a source of water-borne diseases. Even the big police force proves to be totally incapable of providing even the minimum safety and security to the citizens. Bihar tops in killings, kidnappings, custodial deaths in the country. In most places, police is in connivance with the criminals, gangsters, and mafia.

It is necessary to understand the twin formation of landlord's private senas and people's self-defence guerilla squads against this background. The landlords have been maintaining armed organisations since British days. The land owning classes utilised their local powers in strengthening their clout in the legal constitutional government and its administrative set-up after independence. This state of affairs was relentlessly opposed by common people and organised left-democratic forces in the State.

The ruling classes got alarmed when people started exercising their voting power against the entrenched feudal forces. The semi-feudal forces could not fight and defeat this current head-on; so they opted for sabotaging it in a covert way. They devised ways to manipulate the electoral process through dubious means of bogus voting, booth capturing using armed might. They subverted the land reforms laws in Bihar. An explosive situation emerged in rural Bihar due to rising expectations of the underprivileged, on the other. The landlords have been utilising all political options from Congress (I) to BJP and Janata Dal while the poor peasants have tried options from socialists to CPI to Naxalites. The peasant struggles suffered a setback during emergency when CPU sided with the Congress (I); CPI's compromising attitude dampened their anti-feudal struggle. Their struggle suffered another blow when the socialists joined Janata Party and abandoned their anti-feudal line. Other left forces were not strong enough in Bihar to make their presence felt. So the poor peasants turned towards the Naxalites in a big way after emergency. The memory of the heroic struggle of Musahari in Muzaffarpur district under Naxalite leadership was fresh in their minds.

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The Naxalite forces were also trying to develop militant peasant struggle in a new way having learn from the Naxalbari uprising, which was suppressed due to this adventurist line. So, they adopted mass line in the second phase of their struggle after emergency. The arena of struggle in this phase shifted from north Bihar to central Bihar, encircling Patna and Bhojpur districts.

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A new development that took place in post-emergency Bihar, and in central Bihar in particular, was the rise of middle castes in socio-economic and political hierarchy. Middle castes were organised in a big way by the Samyukta Socialist Party (SSP). Lohiaite ideology of caste-based reservations in education and government employment was big attraction for them. They shared political power for the first time in 1967 non-Congress government at the state level. It generated lust for more power. They got a bigger opportunity in 1977 in Karpoori Thakur government. The subsequent years saw tremendous consolidation and rise of Yadav, Kurmi, and Koeri castes. This newly emerged power elite was aggressive against the upper castes as well as against dalits and other runprivileged groups. Because of this, they came into direct confrontation with the rising movement of landless, poor peasants, mostly dalits, who were mobilised under the Naxalite leadership. It resulted in the infamous Belchhi massacre in 1978, which provoked Indira Gandhi to visit Belchhi in order to woo the dalits. The dalits, however, were not in a mood to relent. In Naxaism, they found an ideology and politics which matched their deep-rooted determination to fight for their liberation. Their struggle spread throughout central and south-central Bihar. The extra-constitutional domain of power of the ruling classes was grievously threatened by waves of militant peasant struggles led by different Naxalite groups. Hundreds of landlords had to flee from their strongholds towards the cities in central Bihar. It was only a tactical retreat, not a total defeat. The state and its oppressive machinery was still intact; moreover, there was the political and economic support of the big capitalist class together with the foreign imperialist powers. Conspiracies were hatched by the ruling classes to finish off the rising peasant movements. The result was the formation of state-backed caste-based senas: Bhumi Sena (kurmi), Lorik Sena (yadav), Brahmarshi Sena (bhumihar), Kunwar Sena (rajput), etc. Then began the deluge of murder, mayhem and massacres.

Central Bihar witnessed scores of massacres from Pipra onwards; but it was also destined to witness the strength and power of revolutionary egalitarian ideology as well. Those who did not have enough, to eat and feed their children, succeeded in defeating and liquidating most of these senas, the Bhumi Sena being the most barbarous of them. In frenzy, the ruling classes threw away all norms of civility and constitutional functioning, and the state came out openly against the downtrodden, defending the rural rich. The blatant manifestation of this was Arwal massacre in 1986 by the police itself.

Rise of Ranveer Sena

It is not the first time that Bhojpur is experiencing the formation of senas. The forerunners of Ranveer Sena were Brahmarshi and Kunwar Sena which could not sustain for long. Then the local ruling classes were divided along caste lines. The Mandalisation of politics aggravated the conflict between the upper and the middle castes. But, once the Mandal forces got consolidated on the political map of Bihar, the upper caste landlords initiated the process of aligning with the Mandal forces to counter the challenge of the militant poor. This process got momentum after Jwala Singh, a derided rajput landlord and manager of Danwar Bihta carnage, joined Janata Dal. This strategy of the ruling classes culminated into the formation of upper caste Ranveer Sena in 1994 with the full backing of the middle castes and local level district administration. It is this formidable alliance which unleashed terror in Bathani Tola to wipe out Naxalism from Bhojpur.

The formation of Ranveer Sena is indicative of class polarisation from above. This is not a caste sena as happened to be the case with other private senas. The class aspect is fairly pronounced in Ranveer Sena's support base and functioning. Bhumihaar and rajput caste people have never seen eye to eye and have a history of being mutual foes throughout Bihar. They have now joined hands to form Ranveer Sena. Further, it is the class interest which goaded the ruling stratum of the middle castes to extend support to the sena.

The same trend could be seen in Palamau, Patna, Gaya, Jehanabad, Aurangabad and Nalanda. There existed internecine fights between the pathan landlords and rajput, bhumihaar and brahmin landlords in Palamau, but they forged an alliance under the Sunlight Sena (which was formed by the Pathans) when their economic interests and socio-political authority was challenged by peasants fighting under Naxalite leadership. An interesting feature of Palamau is the powerful presence of BJP, and yet it could not tamper with the class interests of brahmin and other upper caste Hindu landlords of Sunlight Sena. By contrast, the poor and backward Muslim groups are united with the poor Hindu caste fellows and dalits under Naxalite leadership.

Similar is the case with the Kisan Sangha of Magadh range in central Bihar, which is an armed organisation composed of criminal elements and their political masters from yadav, kurmi, bhumihaar and rajput castes. It was formed allegedly at the behest of ex-union minister for chemicals and fertilisers, Ram Lakhan Singh Yadav. Caste feuds have given way to class collaboration.

What is really needed is empowerment of people through their own mobilisation and struggle. Different organisations and individuals who are actually with the people have to play their role in helping this process. Strength of people's own organisation alone could be a real and genuine solution.

Political analysis and election trends of Bihar based on General Elections, 1996

{Source: EPW; Vol XXXII No.47, November 22-28, 1997 - Binoy S. Prasad}

Caste and social factions continue to play a major role in elections continue to play a major role in elections in Bihar. In the absence of concrete political agendas, these influences get further reinforced and elections have become a means of establishing a phoney social dominance by caste groups. This is also why no one pattern of alignment of social forces is clearly discernible as consistent. The distinct political culture of the state where the majority of voters are illiterate but politically alert, has contributed to the violent and corrupt nature of elections in Bihar.

There were a number of developments that provided an interesting backdrop to the 1996 Lok Sabha election in Bihar. Just a year before the election to the Vidhana Sabha (the state legislative assembly) had established the chief minister of Bihar, Laloo Prasad Yadav as one of the strongest regional leaders of north India. With no great performance achieved by the government, the voters got yet another chance to make known their opinion on Laloo's administration which had been hit by the scandal which came to be known as the "fodder scam". Above all, the election of 1996 was a retrial of the political alliance of the social groups: the other backward casts (OBC), especially the Yadavs, Muslims, and Dalits so successfully forged under the leadership of Laloo. Evidently, with the Kurmis and the OBCs breaking away from the alliance and their alignment with the BJP and other small forward caste parties, the political equation had changed considerably.

Alliance System and Election Trends

BJP-Samata Alliance

The major factor for the upset of the Janata Dal under Laloo's leadership was the alliance of the BJP and the Samata Party which claimed 24 out of 54 seats. In south Bihar, i.e., Chhotanagpur-Santhal Pargana area (also identified as the Jharkhand region), the BJP-Samata alliance had a clean sweep. It bagged 12 out of 14 Lok Sabha seats.

The BJP alliance had a positive swing of 12 percent votes in Bihar compared to its national swing of over 2.7 percent only. For the BJP, the national percentage of votes increased from 20.8 percent in 1991 to 23.5 percent in 1996. Despite national reverses of the Congress party and resurgence of the BJP, the national percentage of votes for the Congress still remained higher (28.1 percent) than the BJP (23.5 percent). In the 'first-past-the-post' election system, there is always an ambiguous relationship between the percentage of votes secured and the number of seats earned. In 1991, the BJP nationally added 40

seats to its total without further addition to its share of votes. This time around, the BJP was a beneficiary of an electoral system they had been criticising for so long.

The BJP's positive swing votes of 12 percent was largely on account of its ally, the Samata Party and voters' disillusionment with the Government of Laloo Prasad Yadav (hereafter mentioned as Laloo) and the main opposition in Bihar, the Congress. In triangular or multi-cornered contests, the alliance worked out by the BJP and the Samata paid rich dividends. The BJP was able to convert its own traditional votes into seats. Earlier, the BJP did not have enough strength on its own to claim as many number of seats. The alliance was a shot in the arm for the BJP and, therefore, it could spread its influence in the north and the central part of Bihar. In a sense, the national average of votes for the BJP (23.5 percent), worked out on the basis of votes secured nationally didn't present the whole picture about the BJP. For example, in its own belt, Maharashtra, Gujarat, Rajasthan, Delhi or Himachal Pradesh, the BJP and allies added 5 percent votes to their share of votes secured in 1991. That accounted for more seats for the BJP than the Congress.

Source: Economic and Political weekly Vol xxxi NO 44 NOV 2, 1996
"Bihar State, class and 'Sena' Nexus by Arvind ^{Sinha} ~~Sinha~~, Ind ^{Sin}

31 percent of the total seats. If we add the number of Yadavs, the percentage of seats won is over 48 percent.

Scheduled castes

The scheduled castes in Bihar according to the 1991 census are 22.22 percent of the total population. The districts with sparse scheduled caste population are Singhbhum, Ranchi, Santhal Pargana and Bhagalpur. The major constituents of the scheduled castes are Chamar, Dusadh, Dholi, Dom, Posi and Musahar. Although there are 23 castes under this category, the most conspicuous in numerical terms are the above five castes (71 percent). The political consciousness of the scheduled castes have no doubt been increasing since the introduction of general elections.

The important scheduled caste leaders from Bihar are Ram Vilas Paswan, Meira Kumar, Mahabir Paswan, Dumar Lal Baitha and others. Jagjivan Ram was the first scheduled caste leader from Bihar who emerged at the National level.

Scheduled tribes

The scheduled tribe population in Bihar is 58,10,867 according to 1981 census which constitutes 8.3 percent of the total population. The highest concentration of scheduled tribes are in the districts of Ranchi (54.4 percent), Singhbhum (44.1 percent) and Santhal Paragana (36.6 percent). The districts of palamu, Giridh and Rohtas have also a sizeable strength amounting to 18.3 percent, 13 percent and 11.4 percent respectively.

The important tribes in Bihar are Mundas, Oraons, Ho, Bhumij, Kharia, Paharia, Thhana, etc. to these are added Santhals who reside mainly in Santhal Paraganas - administratively controlled by the districts at Bhagalpur, Santhal Paraganas, Deoghar, etc. Exclusion of a large part of the tribal population from the benefit of economic and social progress and the marginalisation of their culture has led to the demand for a separate state. The Jharkhand movement was started in the 1950s and since then has had fluctuating fortunes. Upto 1969, the most influential leader was Jaipal Singh who formed the Adivasi Mahasabha in 1946 and later the Jharkhand Party in 1950s which merged with the Congress party before the 1967 elections. Soon, every tribal, organisation bore the name 'Jharkhand', such as the All India Jharkhand party, Hul Jharkhand Party, Bihar Prant Hul Jharkhand and so on. Of all the Jharkhand parties, the most forceful is Jharkhand Mukti Morcha born towards the end of 1972. There were five constituencies reserved for scheduled tribes and more than 60 constituents were from the Jharkhand area from different political parties. BJP has shown great interest in tribal politics and was able to bag one reserved seat on the slogan of a separate 'Vananchal' state.

{Source: EPW, Vol XXVI No.18, May 4, 1991; "Caste and Bihar Politics", by Ravindra Kumar Verma}

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Jharkhand

Geographical, Socio-cultural and political components of Jharkhand

{Source: Sevartham 22 (1997), 'The ~~legitimizing~~ in the Jharkhand context by Christopher Lakara sj}

Geographical

The geographical sense of the work Jharkhand refers to its physical confines. It is a territory with some dimensions and populations, located in the southern part of the state of Bihar. It includes 16 districts of south. Because of its special topography, this region is called Jharkhand which literally means the forest tract. Such a name was also given to this tract as Khokhura as far back as during the Moghou period. The presence of the Moghul empire was extended to this region already from 1585. The emperors had heard about precious diamonds and elephants available in the forest tract of this region.

Socio-cultural

The main tribes inhabiting this region are the Santhals, Oraons, Mundas, Kharias and Hos. Although the period of their settling down varies from one tradition to another, they have all lived in the region together for the greater part of the time and thus have evolved more or less a common composite culture as a result. In the very beginning, most of these tribes were like the nomads, but over the period, some of them became settled agriculturists, while others practised jhum cultivation, which is also known as slash and burn method of agriculture. Some of them still remained forest dwellers and living on the minor forest produce. The society was organised on the basis of class, with a very wide ranging network of strong kinship system.

There is another group of people in the Jharkhand region which is known as the Sadans. The group includes the Nagbansis, Rawatias and a number of socio-economically backward castes and communities whose destinies are also very much like those of the tribals. This group emerged in close social association with the tribals as they were part of the same villages where the former dwelt. They emerged out of the social contacts of tribals with the rajas and Zamindars and their lower officers in the time of the Zamindari system. Some minor communities like the Lohars, Telis, Mahabis, some groups like the Ansaries, Darjis and Julahas, who settled down here during the Moghul period also form the inhabitants of Jharkhand. No wonder why the claim to be Jharkhandis is made by almost all the big and small groups which are mentioned above. the heterogeneity of the population composition reflects a wide range not to mention the latecomers from North Bihar. that is why the tribal population of the present Jharkhand region has been diluted to a mere 32 percent.

In spite of the changes which have come in the Jharkhand social

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and cultural life, there is still a persistence of the tribal culture in the region. For this reason, the land is still known as the tribal heartland. After all, nearly 92 percent of the total number of tribals of Bihar are residing in the Jharkhand land, and only the remaining 8 percent are found scattered in some of the districts of North Bihar.

By living together in the plateau of Jharkhand, these social groups developed similar socio-economic, political and cultural levels and patterns of life. The tribal society was, however, distinguished for its social organisation which is based on the class system. Equality in society, common ownership of property, prevalence of cooperation, communitarian life, simplicity, honesty, hard work, love for music and dances are some of the most characteristic features of the tribal society. Their simple art and culture flourished in nature and in consonance with their environment.

Political

It may be recalled that this dimension of the word Jharkhand needs little explanation more specially in the present day context. Jharkhand as a social-cultural movement had its origin way back in 1915, although with a different name. At that stage of the movement, this was hundred percent in the hands of the tribals. But as the time passed and the independence movement in India was intensifying, the tribals also began to visualise their separate political identity. It reached its highest zenith in 1938 under the name of Adivasi Mahasabha which turned into a full fledged political party in 1950 as the Jharkhand party.

Today, this party has been divided into many splinters, but has not given up its claim for a separate Jharkhand state. The struggle is on to achieve the dream of a separate state, in spite of the leaders being divided on the grounds of strategy and operation. Jharkhand, in this sense, is a political entity which encompasses social and cultural entity as well. Almost everybody residing in this area calls himself a Jharkhandi, although not all show the same sentiments of the Adivasis in the region. This can be seen in their difference of opinions and positions taken with regard to some of the regional issues - the most critical among them being the question of displacement. As a matter of fact, this serves as the touchstone of a real Jharkhandi.

Whether or not one is a real Jharkhandi at heart, almost every section of the society, including the immigrants, have joined in the rat race for power in the region. The sole objective of various factions either under the flag of Jharkhand or Vananchal is to capture the power structure. The local Adivasis, also known as the indigenous people, the real sons of the soil, however, are struggling to gain control over the local resources. The tug of war is going on for several decades between the local people and the government. The creation of the Jharkhand Autonomous Area Council does not empower very much for the development of the people in this region. It is still kept very much under

✓ the control of the State Government. IT is likened to a tiger without its teeth. Bargaining is again on for a greater share of power for Autonomous council. In the meantime, demand for a status of full Statehood by many political groups goes on ceaselessly.]

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Historical Background of Jharkhand

All that one knows about its leaders is that they want a Jharkhand state. Besides, apart from the tribals, there are Sadan and other non-tribals who are among the original inhabitants of the region. Political power has to be shared with them. The economy is in the hands of outsiders.

But one does not find among the Jharkhand leaders, a serious debate on how political power is to be shared and what control the local people will exercise over the economy. In other words, one does not find a political or economic ideology beyond the single demand. In the absence of an ideology, the leaders have often fallen for the tactics of the dominant classes and have been co-opted. One of its signs is that from the original ethnic movement, Jharkhand has today become a regional movement that tries to cater to all the inhabitants, including the exploiters, without clarity on its implications (Sen Gupta 1980-667).

That makes it possible for the outsiders to exploit the division that was built into the very origin of the movement. Most of its leaders were Christians. At a moment of crisis caused by the Zamindari system introduced by the British, Christianity gave the tribals a history and a myth required to form an identity. It also promoted education and medical care. The Chhotanagpur Catholic Co-operative Society was instrumental in keeping money-lenders at bay. While these services could be instrumental in raising their consciousness, the morality and education imparted accentuated private rights and the sense of being different from the rest (Singh 1985:197)

Education also created a new middle class among the tribals and the initial leadership came mainly from them. Most of them were Christians. An anti-Muslim element was introduced at the partition when Pakistan made a proposal to have a corridor linking the two halves of the country. It would have passed through Jharkhand (ganguly and Sinha 1987:35). The dominant classes used the religious element from the beginning to divide the tribals, but did not succeed initially. The party polled 7.6 lakh votes in 1952 and won 33 assembly and three Lok Sabha seats. But by 1967, the votes polled had come down to 1.8 lakhs that won them eight assembly seats and one seat in the parliament.

That is symbolic of the tribal leaders' failure to keep abreast of the developments of the region. During this decade of planned development, exploitation of their resources increased. According to the preliminary data of our ongoing study on 'Development-Induced Displacement in Jharkhand', at least 10 lakh acres have been acquired by development projects in Jharkhand during 1951 to 1995. They have deprived a minimum of 10 lakh tribals of their livelihood. Forests, destroyed in the name of industrialisation, deprived more tribals of their livelihood. Today, nearly half the tribals are landless. But the leaders had not analysed the implications of these developments. Their

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preoccupation during this decade was a share in power. Being mainly from the urban middle class, they had little understanding of the agrarian scene.

The congress exploited their power-sharing instinct. Its result was crisis in the Jharkhand Party that ended with its merger with the Congress in 1963 (Minj 1982:356-57). It was not accepted by all, but the party was weakened and it got only 1.8 lakh votes in 1967. On the other side, the communal elements worked on the religious factor. In 1965, Kartik Oraon founded the Akhil Bharatiya Adivasi Vikas parishad closely linked to the Congress. Its main objective was to get more benefits and jobs for non-Christian tribals, since being better educated, the Christians were cornering most of them. However, cultural revival could bring the tribals together into a new Jharkhand identity beyond individual tribes. That was a threat to the dominant classes that had to keep them divided in order to exploit their resources. The santhals and hos had begun to assert their distinctness in the party dominated by mundas and oraons. With a new leadership emerging, the religious division did not receive much attention. So the dominant classes began to play on inter-tribal rivalry. Separate leaders emerged from the santhals, oraons, hos and mundas (Singh 1985:200-01).

In the 1970s, the challenge came from the rural leadership. They shifted their focus away from political organisation to the agrarian question, recovering alienated land, better education, cultural revival, use of tribal languages and higher compensation for land acquired. It could have become a beginning in building an economic ideology. But the leaders shifted their priority to going back to the past rather than looking at the future. Thus one more opportunity was lost, of developing an ideology relevant to the movement. Obtaining a Jharkhand state remained the only priority. The 1980s were another decade of hope. Students captured the leadership. Inspired by Mahanta of Assam, they formed the All Jharkhand Students' Union in June 1986. Under pressure from them, the Jharkhand Co-ordination Council was formed to bring all the factions together. The union government was forced in 1989 to form a committee to study the issue. But the hope was short-lived. By now, the major player was the BJP, not the Congress. At a time, when the Jharkhand Party was being divided according to the tribe of the leaders, the national Left that could have provided an ideological base, all but ignored them (Sen Gupta 1980-664). Getting a Jharkhand state became the panacea for all ills. The leaders were ready to join any party that was prepared to grant it. The one who obtained it could become the main leader.

- {Source: EPW, Vol XXXIII No.44, October 31 - November 6, 1998}

Issues of Jharkhand

* One of the great sufferings endured by the tribals in the region, for generations, has been the alienation of their ancestral land of which they were masters from times immemorial. Land, to them

* Land And Forest-

is a 'part of their socio-cultural heritage'.

Like land, forest is also intimately connected with tribals life. Forest provides the tribals with food, fuel, fertilizer, fodder, farm implements and material equipment for family use.

In a memorandum submitted to the United Nations Working Group on Indigenous Populations in August 1987, Jharkhand leaders observed that land rights and ownership introduced by the British colonial power and adopted and implemented by the National government after independence, the forest laws, making land and forests as commodities for sale and purchase under the money economy and marketing system have enabled outsiders, money lenders and the Government, to grab adivasi land by fair and foul means".

In fact, transference of tribal land in the hands of outsiders, especially money lenders and absentee landlords, started much before the advent of the British into the region. British colonial rule further encouraged transfer of land from the original inhabitants to the outsiders and also they used to auction landed property of the tribal chiefs for failing to pay their dues in time. Thus, gradually, most of the fertile tribal lands were transferred to the 'diku' moneylenders and absentee landlords.

With the opening up of the area to mining and industry, at the turn of the nineteenth century, tribals were further displaced. Many of them became landless 'coolie' labourers. Some even were driven to begging. The Tata Iron and Steel company was set up at Jamshedpur and other industries like the Hindustan Copper Mines, the Indian Aluminium Company, the National Coal Development Corporation, and others, followed soon. Since Independence, with launching of the Five Year Plans, both the Central and State Governments established heavy industries in and around Ranchi, Rourkela, Bokaro and Hatia. Construction of dams and hydroelectric power project engulfed thousands and thousands acres of land, without providing adequate compensation to the owners or making arrangements for their proper rehabilitation. This, resulted in many of the former tribal landowners working as 'coolies' on their own land on poor wages. Along with the big industries, ancillary industries also developed, taking away more than 250 mines, situated in the Kolhan area of Singhbhum district, also caused large-scale displacement of tribals from arable land.

Besides, both Governments have taken away sizeable portion of forest land under the Indian Forest Act, in the name of scientific management of forests and economic development of the nation. Such schemes are generally denounced by tribal leaders as a part of the over-all policy to the Government to uproot the tribals and peasants from their own land, forcing them to earn their livelihood in the urban and industrial centres.

Immigration

The people of Chhotanagpur have witnessed steady flow of outsid-

ers to the region ever since the days of the Fourth Nagabanshi king, Pratap Rai, and subsequent rulers of Mughal dynasty. Rapid industrialisation and development of surface communication facilities under the British rule, further facilitated immigrants, in increased volumes, to come and settle in the region.

This large scale influx of outsiders, mainly from north and central Bihar, not only deprived the local people of the newly created job opportunities and training facilities but also practically forced them to leave their own land in search of menial jobs in far distant places like Punjab, Assam and others.

The steady influx of external population and gradual eviction of the local people made the tribals minority in their own land. In 1891, there were only 1,00,000 outsiders and today, immigrants from North and Central Bihar accounts for some 2.6 million people.

The immigrants, accounting for not more than fifteen percent of the total population of the region, thus, grabbed most of the lucrative jobs at the expense of the local Jharkhandis. This disproportionate representation of the local people in the industrial sector and their involvement in temporary, lowly paid and unskilled jobs clearly proves that apart from their lack of required skill and perhaps a preference for seasonal employment, tribals in general, were deprived of the educational and training facilities, mostly concerned by the privileged sections of the society. They were deliberately kept as a reserve work force of cheap, segregated, unorganised labourers in the interest of the industrialists and business houses. De-reservation of posts, on the plea of non-availability of qualified candidates, is a very common occurrence today, even when there are reservations for the tribals in training and jobs under the public sector. Besides, outsider non-tribals very often deprive the genuine scheduled tribe people by acquiring fake certificates through various unscrupulous means.

Cultural identity

So long as the tribals maintain a safe distance from the people of the plains, they retain their own identity and culture without much distortion. Thus, the Mundas in Chhotapanagpur have been able to maintain their traditional social structure and customs intact, as they are less accommodative in nature. But it is known that most of the tribal societies, today, are neither isolated from the surrounding non-tribal societies, nor are they free from influences of urban values and dominant religions. Improvement in communication facilities has made tribal pockets more vulnerable to outside influence. Such contacts with outside world have created a dilemma in the tribal life and culture, resulting into an identity crisis for the Jharkhandis. Neither are they able to acclimatise to the urban and alien values, nor are they in a position to preserve and pursue their own traditional rites, rituals and customs. Thus, we find the Oraons and Hos are gradually losing their identity because of their accommo-

Since independence the chotanagpur area has been one of the fastest-growing area in the country in terms of population growth. The industrial cities of Ranchi, Jamshedpur and Dhanbad and their peripheries have simply exploded with population. The influx of outsiders ^{has} just reversed the tribal-nontribal population ratio in the region over a period of thirty years.

native nature and readiness to mix with outsiders. In the process, tribal language, religion, customs and traditions are losing their purity and in some cases are being submerged under the influence of forces of modernisation.

Jharkhandis, generally, are worshippers of nature. But a large-scale devastation of forests owing to rapid industrialisation, urbanisation and unscientific mining and the consequent social forestry schemes, planting mostly non-indigenous, quick growing trees, have adversely affected their life pattern and religious beliefs. Traditional tribal religions such as animism, sarna dharam, nature worship are gradually being replaced by Christianity, Hinduism and others. Changes in adivasi food habits and festivals are also quite evident. Santhals, for instance, are abstaining from beef-eating and seem to be less interested in celebrating 'Itesh Bapla', 'Njrbolok Bapla', 'Sanga Bapla' and 'Bahador Bapla' as a result of their close proximity with the neighbouring Hindu society. Possessing a very rich tradition of their own, they are thus, not only denying themselves of a rich protein diet but also sacrificing their age old cultural heritage. Besides, the adivasi society, traditionally known for its egalitarianism, is being divided today on communal lines and even the hierarchical notions of caste and class are creeping in. Agriculture is made subservient to business and industry, literary and artistic pursuits are losing their participatory nature and becoming more passive and observation oriented.

As a matter of fact, the tribals, unable to cope with the external pressures from all sides, are a frustrated lot and as a natural consequence developing marks of a negative identity for themselves. They are being branded by the 'civilised' world as 'lazy bum', 'good for nothing', 'drunk' and 'criminal'. Some adivasis like the Lodhas of Bengal and sections of the Gond in Madhya Pradesh are even described as criminal tribes. Thus, the notions of a noble, savage and a healthy tribe are fast becoming a myth. These signs of cultural degradation, sometimes, generate among the tribals a common psychology of identity assertion, for their own survival.

The Jharkhand region abounds in minerals and provides a substantial portion of India's total requirements in the field. Chhotanagpur and Santhal Parganas though comprise only 2.5 percent of the total geographical area of our land, nevertheless, account for more than twenty five percent of the mineral production of the country. The Jharkhand region alone, comprises of one-fifth of the public sector enterprises of the country. No less than 14 large-scale industries, with investments of crores of rupees, are scattered around Singhbhum district only. These industries produce iron and steel, copper, aluminium, uranium, lead, mica, glass, cement and fertiliser which are essential as far as India's growth and all round developments are concerned. But, if one looks at the development of this region in particular, in respect of irrigation, rural electrification or road construction, its backwardness is more than evident.

The people of this hilly terrain of south Bihar feel discriminated against the plains of northern parts of the state. The Chhotanagpur plateau, enriched with mineral, forest and industrial resources, though contributes almost seventy per cent of the total revenue collection in Bihar, the expenditure of revenue made in this region is a paltry 20 percent. Only five percent of the total rural areas of south Bihar have electricity and only five kilometre road per thousand kilometre is paved. Thus, perpetual neglect of the Chhotanagpur region by the successive governments in Bihar, has led to mass discontent in the area.

The most disturbing feature of the development process in the region is that out of the meagre amount of money allotted, only a small portion reaches the actually needy. Thus, though the local people are known for their sincerity and hard work they are sliding down below the poverty line day by day. Many of them who are literally forced to leave the region in search for menial jobs, under the pressure of large-scale influx of immigrant job-seekers, nevertheless, find them in a precarious situation as they are not treated as scheduled tribes, eligible for the developmental benefits guaranteed under the Constitution of India. Thus, over a million tribal people from Chhotanagpur, who had migrated to the north-eastern region of the country and eventually settled there as tea plantation labourers, face an additional discrimination. This discrimination, however, is caused by their local tribal brethren who are not prepared to share the benefits granted to them, as scheduled tribes, under the Constitution. Those who still remain in their ancestral lands, as unskilled 'coolie' labourers, are gradually being sandwiched into slum areas of newly developed industrial and urban centres.

Besides, the tribals are still exploited by middle men who, most of the time, corner the fruits of meagre developmental activities carried out in the region. Sometimes, they take advantage of the distance of the collection centres of the Forest Development Corporation from the tribal villages and exploit the tribals by controlling the sale of 'tendu' leaves and 'Mahua' fruit. Tribals produce the best lac in the world on their host trees, apart from vegetables and fruits. But regarding the marketing aspect of their produce, they are practically at the mercy of the middle men.

The attack on the ecological balance of the region by greedy timber merchants as well as by unscrupulous miners, affect the tribal life in more than one ways. Apart from large-scale destruction of forests, unplanned mining activities, by hollowing the earth underground, seriously reduce the capacity of the soil to retain moisture, which in turn, affect the productivity of land, the large 'mono-crop' area of Jharkhand is gradually robbing its inhabitants of all the possible means of livelihood, turning them into a vast reserve of 'coolie labour'.

The Jharkhand movement is basically a protest movement against the exploitation of the indigenous tribal people by the outsider 'dikus'. to quote the election manifesto of the Jharkhand Mukti

✓ Morcha in 1980, "we want Jharkhand free from exploitation; a Jharkhand where those who work will eat and those who loot will go". The aim of the leaders is to emancipate the area from the clutches of exploiters, moneylenders, corrupt bureaucrats and vested interests. They describe the movement as a search for national identity in an environment of extreme exploitation and demand "the collective right of self-determination for economic, social, cultural and political identity of indigenous tribal people."

Source: 1. Sevartham, 'History of the Mission of Chotanagpur

2. E.P.W. vol xxvi NO 18 May 11 1991

3. Book titled 'The Jharkhand Question' by Arunabha Ghosh.

SOCIO-ECONOMIC, POLITICAL, CULTURAL AND HEALTH BACKGROUND OF BIHAR

A dossier compiled by the Community Health Cell
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for the
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for
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I. GENERAL INFORMATION

1. ORIGIN OF THE STATE

The origin of Bihar State can be traced back to the Vedic period. Bihar is mentioned in the Vedas, Puranas and epics. Bihar formed a part of Bengal presidency until a new province of Bihar and Orissa (combined) was created on 12th December, 1911. Between 1931 and 1941, there was yet another partition and Bihar and Orissa became two separate provinces. Some portions of Bihar were ceded to West Bengal as a result of the Bihar and West Bengal (Transfer of Territories) Act, 1956 (Office of the Registrar General and Census Commissioner, 1967).

2. PEOPLE, CULTURE, RELIGION AND LANGUAGE

Bihar has a glorious history which can be traced to Aryans who settled along the Indo-Gangetic plains. For over a thousand years, from the sixth century B.C. to the fifth century A.D., the history of India was much the history of Bihar (Diwakar, 1959). This period witnessed the rise and fall of the famous Maurya and Gupta empires in Bihar. The renowned ancient kingdoms of Videha, Magadha, and Anga were parts of Bihar. Pataliputra (present Patna) was the capital of Magadha for a long time and is best known in connection with the Maurya kings, Chandragupta and Ashoka. Mithila, which was an important centre for Sanskrit learning as early as 1,000 B.C., comprised three districts of Bihar, namely Darbhanga, Champaran and Muzaffarpur (The Imperial Gazetteer of India, 1908). Vaisali which was part of south Muzaffarpur district was a small kingdom known as the first republic, not only in India, but also in the world. The famous treatise, namely Arthashastra, is attributed to Kautilya (or Chanakya), who was Chandragupta Maurya's able minister (Smith, 1919).

Bihar was ruled by kings of the Gupta dynasty during the fourth and fifth centuries A.D. and flourished in several walks of life. It was a period known for economic prosperity, and for advancement in science, music, fine arts and literature. Architecture, sculpture and painting attained a high level of excellence during the Gupta rule. The Gupta regime was famous for its non-interfering, benevolent governance which provided health services, good roads and rest houses to pilgrims. The sciences of Mathematics, Astronomy and Astrology were cultivated with much success during the Gupta period. Aryabhata and Varahamihir, two famous scientists, worked during the Gupta regime. The reign of various kings of the Gupta dynasty from A.D. 320 to 480 is known in Indian history as the "Golden Age" (Smith, 1919).

Bihar is the land of Gautama Buddha and Mahavir Jain. In fact, Bihar derives its name from 'Vihar' which means a Buddhist monastery (Imperial Gazetteer, 1908). Bihar-Shariff, considered to be the second Mecca by many Muslims, and Gaya, with the temple of Vishnupada, considered to be one of the holiest places, are situated within 200 km of Patna. Patna, the birth place of Guru Govind Singh, is very sacred to the Sikhs (Srinivasan et al., 1982).

During ancient times, Bihar was very famous for its various seats of learning. The universities of Nalanda, Vikram Shila (now Bhagalpur) and Udaatpuri (now Bihar-Shariff) were highly regarded centres of higher learning, which students and scholars from India and various other countries visited. *Unfortunately, despite its glorious past history of learning, Bihar is now one of the most illiterate states of India.*

Bihar is also a land of many freedom fighters such as Veer Kaur Singh, Birsamunda, Tilka Manjhi, Maulana Mazharul Haque, and Abdul Bari. Mahatma Gandhi started his "Freedom Movement" from Champaran in Bihar.

According to the 1981 Census, the percentage distribution of population by religion is:

Hindus	82.42%
Muslims	14.81%
Christians	0.98%
Sikhs	0.09%
Buddhists	Negligible
Jains	0.03%

The main language of the people is Hindi which is also the official language of the state. Besides Hindi, a large percentage of Muslims speak Urdu. Bhojpuri, Magahi and Maithili are among the local dialects of the state.

3. GEOGRAPHIC FEATURES - PHYSICAL CHARACTERISTICS

Bihar is a land-locked state lying between 21 degree 58' 10" and 27 degree 31'15" north latitudes, and 83 degree 19'50" and 88 degree 17'40" east longitudes. It is bounded on the north by Nepal, on the east by West Bengal, on the west by Uttar Pradesh and Madhya Pradesh and on the south by Orissa.

According to the 1981 census, Bihar is divided on the basis of physical features into three regions, namely the Himalayan Foothills, the Bihar Plains and the Bihar Plateau. The Himalayan Foothills are located in the northern part of Paschim Champaran district. This region comprises the Dun and Sumeshwar ranges of the Siwalik hills which is a part of the Himalayan system. The Dun range is about 32 km in length and Sumeshwar range is 72 km long with an altitude of 450 metres.

The Bihar plateau is more popularly known as the Chotanagpur plateau and consists of a series of plateaus of different elevations. The entire Chotanagpur plateau is very rich in mineral deposits. The Ranchi plateau is the highest, with an elevation of about 1,100 metres (also known as the 'Pat' lands) and consists of Deccan lava. The area east of the Ranchi plateau is the Hazaribagh plateau which extends to the Rajmahal hills with an average height of 600 metres above sea level. It is formed by the debris of the streams descending down the hills. The southern part of this region, known as the Singhbhum plateau, has an altitude of 150 metres with many hill rocks of 300 metres or more. Dalma and Baghmundi are the main ranges in this plateau. The region slopes towards the southeast direction (Director of Census Operations, Bihar, 1981).

The life line of this state is the Ganga river which enters the State from the west and flows towards the east. A large number of rivers join the Ganga from the north and south. Ghaghara, Gandak and Kosi are the main tributaries of the Ganga. Kosi, called "the sorrow of Bihar", is the widest river and frequently changes its course causing devastation. The Son, Punpun, Mohane and Gumani rivers are the right-bank tributaries of the Ganga. Other rivers that form the southern drainage system in Bihar are the South Koel, Subarnarekha, Damodar and Barkar.

Forests in the state are mainly confined to the Chotanagpur plateau. The total area under forests in the state was 29,226.09 km² during 1985-86, which accounts for 16.8 percent of the total area of the State.

4. CLIMATE, RAINFALL AND SEASONS

The year in Bihar may be divided into three distinct seasons - winter from October to February, summer from March to mid-June and the monsoon from mid-June to September. Hot westerly winds begin in March and last until May. The temperature begins to rise in March, and the months of April and May are characterised by great heat and dryness. The monsoon sets in by around the middle of June, bringing in its wake a quick fall in the temperature and widespread rains ending in September. The cold season starts in November when both day and night temperatures drop rapidly. January is usually the coldest month (Office of Registrar General and Census Commissioner, 1967).

The temperature varies from region to region. The lowest temperatures are from 0 degree C to 4 degree C in Chotanagpur to 8 degree C to 11 degree C in other parts of the State. The mean maximum temperature in May varies between 35 degree C and 38 degree C in North Bihar and between 37 degree C and 41 degree C in South Bihar. Gaya is the hottest district in the State as well as in the country. The elevated portion of the Chotanagpur plateau has a relatively mild summer.

The state receives most of its rainfall from the southwest monsoon from June to September. The average rainfall is 1,200 mm and ranges from 1,000 mm to 2,000 mm.

5. AREA AND ADMINISTRATIVE DIVISIONS

The state of Bihar is 163,847 km² in area and ranks ninth among the States and Union Territories of India. Bihar is densely populated with only 5.3 percent of the area of the country and 10.58 percent of its people. Patna, the capital of Bihar, is situated on the bank of the Ganga river. The state was divided into 7 administrative divisions and 31 districts in 1981. The numbers rose to 10 and 55, respectively, in 1998. There were 587 community development blocks (C.D. Blocks) in 1981.

6. ECONOMY

Bihar is predominantly an agricultural state with about 87 percent of the population living in rural areas according to the 1991 Census. Agriculture is the single largest sector of the economy employing about 81 percent of the work force, 43.6 percent as cultivators and 37.1 percent as agricultural labourers (Office of the Registrar General and Census Commissioner, 1991a). Agriculture accounts for 40 percent of the State's income.

The state has 32.3 percent of the mineral resources of the country (the highest) and contributes 35 percent to the all-India production. The state's share of the national income from the mining sector was about 35 percent during 1960-61, and declined to about 25 percent during 1980-89. Although Bihar is rich in mineral resources, it is industrially not well developed. The state has a few

industries, including manufacture of cement, fertilizer, caustic soda, alloy steel and steel rope. In the core sector, the State has steel plants at Bokaro and Jamshedpur, a sponge iron project at Chaudil, a copper complex at Ghatsila, coal mining industries, heavy engineering and forging plants at Ranchi, a caustic soda plant at Garwha road (Palamu), a fertilizer factory at Sindri, an oil refinery at Barauni and an alloy steel plant at Patratu and Adityapur.

a) Agriculture

Bihar has a total geographical area of about 173.30 lakh hectare, out of which only 72.67 lakh hectare is the net cultivated area and gross cultivated area being about 94.97 lakh hectare. About 34.53 lakh hectare net area and 42.11 lakh hectare gross area receive irrigation from different sources. Principal foodgrain crops are paddy, wheat, maize, and pulses. Main cash crops are sugarcane, potato, tobacco, oilseeds, onion, chillies, jute and mesta. Forests cover about 29 lakh hectare which is almost 17 percent of the geographical area (1993-94).

Table 1: Household ownership of land, livestock and durable goods

Percentage of households owning agricultural land, livestock and various consumer durable goods according to residence, Bihar, 1993				
Item owned	Residence			
	Urban	Rural	Total	Backward districts
Agricultural land				
No land	71.7	40.7	45.4	47.3
Irrigated land only				
< 1 acre	4.0	11.7	10.5	10.2
1 – 5 acres	3.3	8.9	8.1	8.8
6+ acres	2.7	1.9	2.0	2.1
Non-irrigated land only				
< 1 acre	3.1	8.3	7.5	5.8
1 – 5 acres	5.8	12.0	11.1	5.9
6+ acres	2.3	2.7	2.6	0.7
Irrigated and non-irrigated land				
< 1 acre	1.2	5.1	4.5	6.7
1 – 5 acres	3.1	5.7	5.3	8.7
6+ acres	2.8	3.0	3.0	3.9
Total percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Livestock				
Bullock	6.8	33.9	29.8	30.7
Cow	12.3	29.2	26.6	30.0
Buffalo	5.5	18.8	16.8	22.3
Goat	7.9	19.9	18.1	18.5
Sheep	--	0.6	0.5	0.7
Camel	--	--	--	0.1
Other	1.2	2.4	2.2	3.2
No livestock	76.7	36.2	42.3	38.0
Consumer durables				
Sewing machine	35.8	5.5	10.1	6.1
Clock/watch	79.2	35.3	42.0	38.7
Radio	56.5	21.6	26.9	23.9
Television	48.5	3.7	10.6	5.0
Refrigerator	18.6	0.7	3.4	1.1
Bicycle	55.0	34.6	37.7	30.8
Motorcycle/scooter	25.2	2.8	6.2	2.5
Car	5.4	0.1	0.9	--
Bullock cart	1.1	3.0	2.7	0.7
Thresher	1.2	2.3	2.1	2.6
Tractor	1.0	0.5	0.6	0.3
Water pump	2.8	5.1	4.8	8.1
Number of households	723	4025	4748	686
-- Less than 0.05 percent				

Source: National Family Health Survey – Bihar - 1998

b) Industries & Minerals

Major industries are: two integrated steel plants, namely, Bokaro Steel and Tata Iron and Steel and a number of secondary steel making units with total established annual capacity of around 7.20 million tonnes, largest coal-based sponge iron plant at Chandil; area's largest rope making complex of Usha Martin Industries at Ranchi; India's largest heavy vehicles plant of Tata Engineering and Locomotives Company, Jamshedpur; heavy plant building complex of Heavy Engineering Corporation at Ranchi; taper bearing plant of Tata Tenkin at Jamshedpur; Ilumina Plant of India Aluminium Company at Muri; railway wagons plants at Bharat Wagon Limited at Muzaffarpur and Mokama; copper smelter complex at Hindustan Copper Corporation, Chatshila; uranium complex of Uranium Corporation of India at Jadugora; zinc smelter of Hindustan Zinc Limited, Dhanbad; oil refinery of Indian Oil Corporation at Barauni; three fertilizers manufacturing plants of HFCL at Barauni, FCI at Sindri and PPCL at Anjore; cement plants at Banjari, Jamshedpur, Sindri and Chaibasa with installed

capacity of around three million tonnes annually; communication cables unit of Usha Belton at Ranchi, and power cables unit of India Cable Company at Jamshedpur; largest steel glass unit of Indo-Asahi Pataratu and five large cotton spinning mills at Siwan, Pandaul, Bhagalpur, Mokama and Gaya. Besides, there are 13 sugar mills in private sector and 15 in public sector located in North Central Bihar with a total crushing capacity of 46,000 TPD, and a number of distilleries, tanning and leather finishing industries in north and central region of the State and three large jute mills at Katihar and Samastipur. New projects with approximate investment of Rs. 15,000 crore include zinc oxide and zinc ingots, expansion and modernisation of Bokaro Steel Limited, modernisation and expansion of TISCO, industrial alcohol and paper plants, copper concentrate, granite cutting and polishing, steel blast furnace crystal class, steel rolling mill, cold rolled steel complex, coal washeries, slag cement, alumina plants etc.

Bihar is renowned for its rich mineral resources. The mineral products are coal, iron ore, bauxite, lime stone, mica, pyrite, graphite, copper ore, gold, silver, manganese, chromite, sulphur pyrites, vanadium, apatite, barytes, asbestos and dolomite. Bihar has a monopoly in the production of uranium and pyrite.

7. IRRIGATION AND POWER

Bihar has an irrigation potential of 122.98 lakh hectare as estimated by the second Bihar State Irrigation Commission 1994. By the year 1994-95, the total area under irrigation through medium and major schemes was 27.46 lakh hectare. About 56.68 lakh hectare area is irrigated through minor irrigation schemes (including surface and ground water).

Major power projects under the state sector are Pataratu Thermal Power Station (840 MW), Barauni Thermal Power Station (320 MW), Muzaffarpur Thermal Power Station (220 MW), Subarnrekha Hydel Power Station (130 MW), Kosi Hydel Power (19.2 MW), under the Bihar State Electricity Board and Tenughat Power Station under Tenughat Vidyut Nigam Limited. Under the Central sector, the major power stations are Bokaro Thermal Power Station (830 MW), Chandrapura Thermal Power Station (750 MW) along with Tilaiya Hydel Power Station (4 MW), Maithon Hydel Power Station (60 MW), Panchet Hydel Power Station (80 MW) under the Damodar Valley Corporation and Kahalgaon Super Thermal Power Corporation. Besides this, Bihar receives its share of power from Farakka Super Thermal Power Station and Tacher Super Thermal Power Project under the National Thermal Power Corporation, Durgapur Thermal Power Station under DVC and Chukka Hydel Power Station under National Hydro-electric Power Corporation.

8. TRANSPORT

Roads - Upto March 1995, Bihar had 19,095 km of metalled road including 2,118 km of national highways, 4,192 of state highways and 12,785 km of other PWD road (MDR/ODR).

Railways - Bihar has a fairly good railway network. Communication in north Bihar is difficult as there is only one railway bridge at Mokamah. A few railway routes connecting important places like Muzaffarnagar, Samastipur-Barauni-Katihar and Muzaffarnagar-Chapra-Siwan have been converted into broad gauge.

The main rail junctions are at Patna, Dhanbad, Gaya, Muzaffarnagar, Katihar, Samastipur etc.

Aviation - There are airports at Patna, Ranchi, Jamshedpur and Gaya.

Table 2 : Distance from Nearest Town and Transportation Facility

Percent distribution of villages according to distance from the nearest town, railway station and bus stand, Bihar, 1993.

Distance	Nearest town	Nearest bus stand	Nearest railway station
< 5 km	25.2	17.8	56.0
5-9 km	20.4	22.6	26.0
10+ km	53.9	59.6	15.1
Don't know/missing	0.4	--	2.9
Total percent	100.0	100.0	100.0
Median distance	11.3	11.8	4.5

-- Less than 0.05 percent

Source : National Family Health Survey - Bihar - 1998

Given the known urban rural district-wise bias of services, this table indicates difficulties in access to services due to distance.

9. BASIC DEMOGRAPHIC INDICATORS

The basic demographic indicators for the state and for India are given in Table 3. **Bihar is the second most populous state (after Uttar Pradesh) with a population of 86 million.** The decadal population growth rate in the state during 1981-91 was almost the same as that for the nation as a whole (24 percent). **The population density (per sq. km.) in 1991 was 497 for the state compared to 273 for India.** There is a large variation in the population density among the districts of the state, ranging from 127 in the newly created district of Gumla to 1,130 in the Patna district.

Eighty-seven percent of the population of Bihar live in rural areas compared to 74 percent in India. The gender ratio of the population (number of females per 1,000 males) is 911 in Bihar and 927 for all India. The percentage of the population age 0-14 years (41 percent) is considerably higher than in the country (36 percent), reflecting a higher fertility rate in the state. In 1991, persons belonging to scheduled castes and scheduled tribes, constituted 14.6 and 7.7 percent of the population of Bihar, compared with 16.7 and 8.0 percent of India, respectively.

Bihar is known as one of the most educationally backward states in India. The literacy rate among the population are higher than the all-India crude birth rate of 29.2 and crude death rate of 10.1 as estimated by the Sample Registration System (SRS) in 1992. The total fertility rate of 4.4 children per woman in Bihar is also higher than the all-India fertility rate of 3.6 children per woman in 1991. The annual exponential growth rate for Bihar was 2.11 percent compared with 2.14 percent for the country during 1981-1991.

Table 3 also indicates that the infant mortality rate is lower in the state than in the country. The infant mortality rate estimated by the SRS was 73 per 1,000 live births in

Bihar compared to 79 in India for the year 1992. The life expectancy for males in the state (58.2 years) and the country (58.1 years) are the same, whereas for females it is lower in the state (57.0 years) than in the country (59.1 years). The couple protection rate (defined as the percentage of eligible couples effectively protected against pregnancy) was 25 percent in Bihar compared with 44 percent in India for the year 1992.

Major demographic trends in the state are displayed in Table 4. The total population of the state was 56.4 million in 1971, 69.9 million in 1981 and 86.4 million in 1991. As such, there was an addition of 30 million persons during the last twenty years. The decadal growth rate increased from 21.3 percent for the period 1961-71 to 24.1 percent for 1971-81 and then declined slightly to 23.5 percent during 1981-91. The density of population (per sq. km.) rose from 324 in 1971 to 405 in 1981 and 497 in 1991, **indicating rising pressure of population on the land.**

The percentage of urban population in Bihar increased from 10 percent in 1971 to 12.5 percent in 1981 and finally to 13.1 percent in 1991. The gender ratio declined from 954 in 1971 to 946 in 1981 and 991 in 1991. The gender ratio has declined greatly during the decade and is below the national level. This calls for intensified efforts to comprehensively improve women's health, including their access to care and to address gender inequalities. The percentage of the population age 0-14 declined by only 2 percentage points from 1971 to 1991 and the population age 65 years and above increased by less than 1 percentage point during the same period. The percentage of the population belonging to scheduled castes increased from 14.1 in 1971 to 14.6 in 1991, whereas the percentage belonging to scheduled tribes decreased from 8.8 to 7.7 percent during the same **period.**

Although the level of literacy during the period 1971-91 has increased, **the literacy rate of females in Bihar is still very low.** The percentage of males age 5 years and above who are literate increased by 7.5 percentage points compared with a 4.9 percentage point increase in female literacy during 1971-81, and increased 14.4 percentage points compared with 9.3 for females during 1981-91. According to the 1991 census, the literacy rate for males age 7 and above (53 percent) is more than double the literacy rate for females (23 percent).

Table 3 - Basic Demographic Indicators for Bihar and India, 1981-1992

Index	Bihar	India
Population (1991)	86,374,465	846,302,688
Percent population increase (1981-91)	23.5	23.9
Density (Population/sq.km) (1991)	497	273
Percent urban (1991)	13.1	26.1
Sex ratio (1991)	911	927
Percent 0-14 years old (1981)	41.7	39.6
(1991)	40.6	36.3
Percent 65+ years old (1981)	3.7	3.8
(1991)	3.8	3.8
Percent literate (1991)*		
Male	52.5	64.1
Female	22.9	39.3
Total	38.5	52.2
Crude birth rate (1992)	32.3	29.2
Crude death rate (1992)	10.9	10.1
Exponential growth rate (1981-91)	2.11	2.14
Total fertility rate (1991)	4.4	3.6
Infant mortality rate (1992)	73	79
Life expectancy (1986-90)		
Male	55.7	57.7
Female	53.6	58.1
Couple protection rate (1992)	24.7	43.5

*Based on the population aged 7 and above.

Source: Office of the Registrar General (1992, 1993a, 1994a, 1994b); Office of the Registrar General and Census Commissioner (1987); Ministry of Health & Family Welfare (1991, 1992)

The crude birth rate in the state declined from 39.1 per 1,000 population in 1981 to 30.7 in 1991. The total fertility rate declined from 5.7 children per woman in 1981 to 4.8 children per woman in 1991. The crude death rate declined from 13.9 per 1,000 population in 1981 to 9.8 percent per 1,000 population in 1991. There appears to be an acceleration in the improvement of demographic indicators during the past **decade**.

Table 4: Population (millions) - Bihar More Rural Than Most

	Rural	Urban	Total	% of Rural to Total
India	628.46	217.09	845.55	74.33
Uttar Pradesh	111.50	27.60	139.10	80.16
Kerala	21.40	7.70	29.10	73.54
Bihar	75.00	11.40	86.40	86.81

Source: Registrar General of India, Census of India, 1991

Table 5: Life Expectancy (1988-92)

India	58.7
Kerala (H)	71.3
Assam (L)	54.1
Bihar	57.5

H: Highest; L: Lowest
Source: Economic Survey 1995-96

Table 6: IMR, Death & Birth Rate

	IMR per 1,000	Death rate	Birth rate
India	73	9.2	28.6
Orissa (H)	103	11.1	28
Kerala (L)	16	6	17.3
Bihar	66	10.4	32.5

H: Highest; L: Lowest
Source: Economic Survey 1995 - 96

Table 7: S C/ST Population in Rural Areas – 1991 (in lakhs)

State	SC Population		ST Population	
	Number	%	Number	%
Bihar	114.00	15.30	61.50	8.20
Tamil Nadu	84.30	22.90	5.10	1.40

Source: CMIE, 1996

The exponential rate of growth of the population of Bihar increased from 1.93 during 1961-71 to 2.16 during 1971-81 and then declined slightly to 2.11 during 1981-91. **It is remarkable to note that Bihar experienced a rapid decline in infant mortality from the level of 118 per 1,000 live births in 1981 to 73 in 1991.** The life expectancy has increased considerably, by 3 years for males and 4 years for females from 1981-86 to 1986-91. **However, life expectancy for females remained considerably lower than life expectancy for males** during the same periods, contrary to the pattern observed in most other Indian states and other countries. Government statistics reveal that the percentage of couples effectively protected by various methods of family planning in Bihar rose steadily from 5.5 in 1971 to 12.3 in 1981 and finally to 24.7 in 1992.

{See also Appendix A}

Table 8 : Trends in Basic Demographic Indicators, Bihar, 1971-91

Index	1971	1981	1991
Population	56,353,369	69,914,734	86,374,465
Percent population increase (previous decade)	21.3	24.1	23.5
Density (population per sq.km)	324	405	497
Percent urban	10.0	12.5	13.1
Sex ratio	954	946	911
Percent 0-14 years old	42.6	41.7	40.6
Percent 65+ years old	3.2	3.7	3.8
Percent scheduled caste	14.1	14.5	14.6
Percent scheduled tribe	8.8	8.3	7.7
Percent literate			
Male	30.6	38.1	52.5
Female	8.7	13.6	22.9
Total	19.9	26.2	38.5
Crude birth rate	U	39.1	30.7
Crude death rate	U	13.9	9.8
Exponential growth rate	1.93	2.16	2.11
Total fertility rate	U	5.7	4.4
Infant mortality rate	U	118	69
Life expectancy			
Male	U	55.2	55.2
Female	U	52.9	53.6
Couple protection rate	5.5	12.3	24.7

U - Not available

Based on the population age 5 and above for 1971 and 1981 and population age 7 and above for 1991

1981-86

1986-90

1992

Source: Office of the Registrar General (1982, 1985, 1992, 1993a, 1994a, 1994b); Office of the Registrar General and Census Commissioner (1974, 1976, 1984b, 1987); Ministry of Health and Family Welfare (1989, 1991, 1992)

Table 9 : Population of Southern Districts of Bihar, 1998

Sl.No	District	Area (in sq.km)	Population
1.	Chatra	3,706	6,12,713
2.	Deoghar	2,479	9,33,113
3.	Dhanbad	2,086	19,49,526
4.	Dumka	5,158	14,95,709
5.	East Singhbhum	3,533	16,13,088
6.	Giridh	4,941	14,96,189
7.	Godda	2,110	8,61,182
8.	Gumla	9,077	11,53,976
9.	Hazaribagh	5,049	16,01,567
10.	Koderma	2,410	6,29,264
11.	Lohardagga	1,491	2,88,886
12.	Palamu	8,705	16,49,891
13.	Ranchi	7,698	22,14,048
14.	Sahebgunj	1,600	7,36,835
15.	West Singhbhum	9,907	17,87,955
16.	Pakur	1,805	5,64,253
		Total	1,95,88,185

Source: INDIA 1998, Ministry of I&B, Govt. of India

Table 10 : Population – Based on Projections for India and States (1996 – 2016)

1998	Projected population by age and sex (in '000)		
	Males	Females	Total
0 – 4	6377	6232	12609
5 – 9	7227	6816	14043
10 – 14	6802	5809	12611
15 – 19	5178	4200	9378
20 – 24	3869	3531	7400
25 – 29	3413	3509	6922
30 – 34	3211	3313	6523
35 – 39	2987	2889	5876
40 – 44	2668	2395	5063
45 – 49	2269	1936	4205
50 – 54	1842	1505	3346
55 – 59	1393	1192	2585
60 – 64	1114	1018	2132
65 – 69	840	743	1583
70 – 74	563	452	1015
75 – 79	268	220	488
80+	354	238	593
All ages	50,374	49,996	96,371

Source: Extrapolations from data given by the Regional Census Office, GOI, Bangalore

Table 11 : Selected Socio-Economic Indicators of India and Bihar

Sl. No.	Socio-Economic Indicators	Bihar	India
1.	Geographical area (lakh km ²)	1.74	32.87
2.	Density of population (per km ²)	497	274
3.	Sex ratio	911	927
4.	Percentage of scheduled caste and scheduled tribes to total population	22.22 (sc) 24.56 (st)	34.18
5.	Percentage of main workers to total population	29.66	38.99
6.	Percentage of agricultural workers to total population	74.	
7.	Female workers' participation rate	14.86	22.25
8.	<u>Literacy percentage</u> Males Females Total	52.49 22.89 38.48	64.13 39.29 52.21
9.	Percentage of urban population to total population	13.14	25.73
10.	Percentage of state population to all India population	10.30	100.0
11.	Decimal growth rate of population %	23.54	23.85
12.	Life expectancy at birth (in years)	57.5	58.7
13.	Birth rate (1996)	32.1	27.4
14.	Death rate (1996)	10.2	8.9
15.	Infant mortality rate (1996)	72	72
16.	No. of students in primary & secondary schools/1,000 population (30.9.96)	139	179
17.	Per capita income at current prices (Rs)- [1996]	4097	9578
18.	Net area sown / cultivator (per hectare)[1996]	0.7	1.3
19.	Total cereals yield/hectare (in kg) [1996]	1548	1730
20.	Total pulses	729	586
21.	Total food grains	1459	1516
22.	Cotton (lint)	340	249
23.	Sugarcane	42781	68972
24.	Food grain production /capita (kg)	138.5	206.8
25.	Consumption of fertilizers/hectare of cropped area (kg)[1995]	64.6	75.7
26.	Percentage of gross irrigated area to gross cropped area (provisional)	41.0	35.0
27.	Primary agri.co-op credit societies %age of borrowing members:total members[1995]	551	1059
28.	Per capita gross output in industries (Rs) [1995]	2059	5730
29.	Per capita value added in industries (Rs) [1995]	473	1200
30.	Domestic consumption of electricity per capita (kw)[1996]	8.9	57.1
31.	Industrial consumption of electricity per capita (kw)[1996]	74.3	114.5
32.	Motor vehicles/lakh of population (No.)[31.3.96]	1427	3587
33.	Total road length/100 km ² of area (km)[31.3.95]	51	67
34.	Number of fair price/ration shops per lakh of population[1993]	57	48
35.	No. of banking offices/lakh of population[31.3.97]	5.2	6.7
36.	Deposits per capita (Rs.) [31.3.97]	2238	5175
37.	Bank credit per capita (Rs.) [31.3.97]	682	2967
38.	Population below poverty line (lakh)	404.43	3,319.86
39.	Expenditure on medical care (as %age of total expenditure)	12.79	-

Source: Economic Survey of Maharashtra 1997-98,
State Planning Commission of Maharashtra

(NB: Statistics for Bihar and other states were given as a **comparison**)

Table 12 : Population below the poverty line (%)

Year	India	Orissa (H)	Punjab (L)	Bihar
1973-74	54.34	66.24	28.08	61.78
1987-88	39.04	55.61	12.70	53.37

H: Highest; L: Lowest
Source : CMIE, 1996.

Table 13 : Estimate of housing shortage in rural areas – 1991

Residential / partly census houses	11132870
Households	12255960
Difference between households and residential houses	1123090
Houseless households	7000
Kutcha houses	4601126
Housing shortage number	4095740
% shortage	3342

Source : CMIE, 1996.

Table 14 : Households having electricity, safe drinking water and toilet facilities – 1991 (% household having) in Bihar

Electricity	Safe drinking water	Toilet	Electricity and drinking water	Toilet water	Electricity and toilet	All these three facilities	None of the three facilities
T 12.57	58.76	11.75	8.94	8.78	9.30	7.13	36.80
R 5.57	56.55	4.96	3.30	3.31	2.91	1.96	40.48
U 58.77	73.39	56.54	46.14	44.87	51.43	41.22	112.54

Source : CMIE, 1996.

Table 15 : Per Capita Income

India	330 US\$	Rs.10,560
Punjab (H)	544 US\$	Rs.17,408
Bihar (L)	161 US\$	Rs.5,152
Orissa (SL)	213 US\$	Rs.6,816

Source: Registrar General of India, Census of India, 1991

10. CASTE AND BIHAR POLITICS

Extracts from Ravindra Kumar Verma ,EPW, , Vol XXVI No.18, May 4, 1991; "Caste and Bihar Politics", & May 21, 1991

“The strength of the total electorate in Bihar was 3,49,30842 which rose to 5.40 crores in 1989. Though the electorate may be classified on the basis of caste, religion, class, etc., caste considerations are of prime importance.

In Bihar, there are three basic caste groups which emerged after the introduction of reservation - forward castes, backward castes, scheduled castes and scheduled tribes.

The forward castes consist of Brahmins, Bhumihars, Rajput and Kayasthas. Land and other resources such as official positions, literacy, better economic conditions and social respect have been the privilege of the these castes which accounts for the **political dominance of these castes.**

Kayasthas

The **Kayasthas** constitute only a small portion (1 percent) of the total population of the State. Kayasthas acquired importance in Indian history since the Moghul period because they learnt Urdu (and later English in the British period) faster than other castes and were attached to rulers for assistance in governance. This caste has been politically significant even prior to Independence. Many national leaders such as Sachchidanand Sinha, Rajendra Prasad and Jai Prakash Narain belonged to this caste. **Since**

Independence, Kayasthas have played an active role, but, however, there has been a sharp decline of role of this caste in Bihar politics. The other factor that is making it politically defunct is that the majority of this caste is service oriented and is hence politically unrecognized and they are also not competitive. Nevertheless, this caste constitutes 5.5 percent of the representatives from Bihar in the ninth Lok Sabha.

Brahmins

Brahmins constitute nearly 7 percent of Bihar's total population. The Brahmins of Bihar are categorised, in terms of politics, into two major groups - the Maithils and non-Maithils (Kankuliya, Sarijupari, etc). Some important Brahmin leaders like Kedar Pandey, Ramanand Tewary, Jagannarain Trivedi, Bindeshwari Dubey, K.K. Tewari and Lal Muni Choube emerged in politics and they could not ensure Brahminical dominance of Bihar level politics.

The Maithil Brahmins power re-emerged in the early 70s with the rise of Lalit Narain Mishra. However, the most important mass political leader who emerged in 1975 as Chief Minister was Jagannath Mishra. When he assumed power in the State, the Maithil Brahmins acquired important positions in the political system. With the death of veteran socialist leader Karpoori Thakur, Raghunath Jha from the Non-Congress platform emerged as a likely chief ministerial candidate. **Brahmins have formed an important part of the bureaucracy, judiciary and political life in the State.** Nevertheless, of representatives from Bihar in the ninth Lok Sabha, 5.5 percent were from this caste.

Bhumihars

Among the upper castes, the Bhumihars have considerable landed property. Important among the leaders of the caste were Ganesh Dutta, Shri Krishna Sinha, Ram Dayal Singh. This caste has provided some women leaders like Krishna Sahi, Tarakeshwari Sinha and Usha Sinha. Shri Krishna Sinha remained in power for a considerable period in Bihar who have generated the resentment of other caste/communities against this caste. After the death of Sri Krishna Sinha, the Bhumihars could not retain their hold on Bihar politics to the same extent. However, in the Congress, Ramashraya Prasad Singh and L.P. Shahi and in the BJP, Kailashapthi Mishra are considered pillars of their parties. After the debacle of Congress in the 1989 general election, this caste's political hold has declined. In the 1989 Lok Sabha elections, the caste bagged 3 seats which is in the forefront of the anti-Mandal struggle.

Rajputs

The Rajputs have also been a land-owning community, active in Bihar politics. Anugrah Narain Sinha was active in the Congress. Other important leaders of the caste have been Nand Kumar Singh, S.N. Sinha, P.N. Singh, Deep Narain and Ambika Sharan Singh.

In the 1980s, the prominent Rajput leaders who emerged as significant leaders were Suraj Narain Singh, Chandra Shekhar Singh, Ram Dulari Sinha, Bhishma Narain Singh, Kishori Sinha and Manorama Singh. The caste bagged six seats in the 1989 Lok Sabha elections.

Backward Castes

The backward castes constitute nearly sixty percent of the total voters in Bihar. Till the early part of 1970, these castes were politically not significant. In the late

1930s, a Triveni Sangh was formed consisting of Yadavs, Kurmis, and Koeries - the three landed castes among the backward castes. The politically significant backward castes are Yadavs, Kurmis, Koeries, Baniyas, Kahars, Dhanuks, Nonias, Telis, Suris, Kanus, Lohars, Bindis, Hajams, etc among which Yadavs, Kurmis and Koeries are in the frontline. Yadavs are the political elite in the backward castes. Karpuri Thakur was a Hajam (barber). He represented the whole backward caste community.

The turning point in the organisation of these castes was in 1977 when Karpuri Thakur, the then Chief Minister, **introduced reservations for backward castes in Government services** and so backward castes have gained in all the fields. After the death of Karpuri Thakur, some new faces emerged. Important among them are Laloo Prasad Yadav, Nitish Kumar and Jai Prakash Yadav. It is important to note that the Yadavs have cornered the largest number of seats won by any single caste. During the 1989 Lok Sabha election, backward castes other than Yadavs bagged 17 seats which is 31 percent of the total seats. If we add the number of Yadavs, the percentage of seats won is over 48 percent.

Scheduled Castes

The scheduled castes in Bihar according to the 1991 census are 22.22 percent of the total population. The districts with sparse scheduled caste population are Singhbhum, Ranchi, Santhal Pargana and Bhagalpur. The major constituents of the scheduled castes are Chamar, Dusadh, Dholi, Dom, Posi and Musahar. Although there are 23 castes under this category, the most conspicuous in numerical terms are the above six castes (71 percent). **The political consciousness of the scheduled castes have no doubt been increasing since the introduction of general elections.**

The important scheduled caste leaders from Bihar are Ram Vilas Paswan, Meira Kumar, Mahabir Paswan, Dumar Lal Baitha and others. Jagjivan Ram was the first scheduled caste leader from Bihar who emerged at the National level.

Scheduled Tribes

The scheduled tribe population in Bihar is 58,10,867 according to 1981 census which constitutes 8.3 percent of the total population. The highest concentration of scheduled tribes are in the districts of Ranchi (54.4 percent), Singhbhum (44.1 percent) and Santhal Paragana (36.6 percent). The districts of Palamu, Giridh and Rohtas have also a sizeable strength amounting to 18.3 percent, 13 percent and 11.4 percent **respectively.**

The important tribes in Bihar are Mundas, Oraons, Ho, Bhumij, Kharia, Paharia, Thhana, etc. to these are added Santhals who reside mainly in Santhal Paraganas - administratively controlled by the districts at Bhagalpur, Santhal Paraganas, Deoghar, etc. **Exclusion of a large part of the tribal population from the benefit of economic and social progress and the marginalisation of their culture has led to the demand for a separate state.** The Jharkhand movement was started in the 1950s and since then has had fluctuating fortunes. Upto 1969, the most influential leader was Jaipal Singh who formed the Adivasi Mahasabha in 1946 and later the Jharkhand Party in 1950s which merged with the Congress party before the 1967 elections. Soon every tribal, organisation bore the name 'Jharkhand', such as the All India Jharkhand party, Hul Jharkhand Party, Bihar Prant Hul Jharkhand and so on. Of all the Jharkhand parties, the most forceful is Jharkhand Mukti Morcha born towards the end of 1972. There were five constituencies reserved for scheduled tribes and more than 60 constituents were

from the Jharkhand area from different political parties. BJP has shown great interest in tribal politics and was able to bag one reserved seat on the slogan of a separate "Vananchal state".

11. JHARKHAND

11.1 GEOGRAPHICAL, SOCIO-CULTURAL AND POLITICAL COMPONENTS OF JHARKHAND

{Source: Sevartham 22 (1997), 'Theologising in the Jharkhand context by Christopher Lakara sj & EPW, Vol XXXIII No.44, October 31 - November 6, 1998}

"Geographical

The geographical sense of the word Jharkhand refers to its physical confines. It is a territory with some dimensions and populations, located in the southern part of the state of Bihar. It **includes 16 districts of south**. Because of its special topography, this region is called Jharkhand which literally means the forest tract. Such a name was also given to this tract as Khokhra as far back as during the Moghul period. The presence of the Moghul empire was extended to this region already from 1585. The emperors had heard about precious diamonds and elephants available in the forest tract of this region.

Socio-Cultural

The main tribes inhabiting this region are the Santhals, Oraons, Mundas, Kharias and Hos.

There is another group of people in the Jharkhand region which is known as the Sadans. The group includes the Nagbansis, Rawatias and a number of socio-economically backward castes and communities whose destinies are also very much like those of the **tribals**.

In spite of the changes which have come in the Jharkhand social and cultural life, there is still a persistence of the tribal culture in the region. For this reason, the land is still known as the tribal heartland. After all, nearly 92 percent of the total number of tribals of Bihar are residing in the Jharkhand land, and only the remaining 8 percent are found scattered in some of the districts of North Bihar.

Political

It may be recalled that this dimension of the word Jharkhand needs little explanation more specially in the present day context. Jharkhand as a social-cultural movement had its origin way back in 1915, although with a different name. At that stage of the movement, this was hundred percent in the hands of the tribals. but as the time passed and the independence movement in India was intensifying, the tribals also began to visualise their separate political identity. It reached its highest zenith in 1938 under the name of Adivasi Mahasabha which turned into a full fledged political party in 1950 as the Jharkhand party.

Today, this party has been divided into many splinters, but has not given up its claim for a separate Jharkhand state. The struggle is on to achieve the dream of a separate state, in spite of the leaders being divided on the grounds of strategy and operation. Jharkhand, in this sense, is a political entity which encompasses social and cultural entity as well. Almost everybody residing in this area calls himself a Jharkhandi, although not all show the same sentiments of the Adivasis in the region. This can be seen in their difference of opinions and positions taken with regard to some of the regional issues - the most critical among them being the **question of displacement**. As a matter of fact, this serves as the touchstone of a real Jharkhandi.

The creation of the Jharkhand Autonomous Area Council does not empower very much for the development of the people in this region. It is still kept very much under the control of the State Government. It is likened to a tiger without its teeth. Bargaining is again on for a greater share of power for the Autonomous Council. In the meantime, demand for a status of full Statehood by many political groups goes on ceaselessly.

Background of Jharkhand

All that one knows about its leaders is that they want a Jharkhand state. Besides, apart from the tribals, there are Sadan and other non-tribals who are among the original inhabitants of the region. Political power has to be shared with them. **The economy is in the hands of outsiders**".

11.2 ISSUES OF JHARKHAND

{Source: Peter Tete, 1996, History of the Mission of Chhotanagpur – Facts and Challenges for Today – Sevartham; E.P.W., Vol XXVI, No.18, May 4, 1991 – Probing the Jharkhand question – Arunabha Ghosh}

"Land and Forest

One of the great sufferings endured by the tribals in the region, for generations, has been the alienation of their ancestral land of which they were masters from times immemorial. Land, to them is a 'part of their socio-cultural heritage'.

Like land, forest is also intimately connected with tribals life. Forest provides the tribals with food, fuel, fertilizer, fodder, farm implements and material equipment for family use.

In a memorandum submitted to the United Nations Working Group on Indigenous Populations in August 1987, Jharkhand leaders observed that *"land rights and ownership introduced by the British colonial power and adopted and implemented by the National government after independence, the forest laws, making land and forests as commodities for sale and purchase under the money economy and marketing system have enabled outsiders, money lenders and the Government, to grab adivasi land by fair and foul means"*.

In fact, transference of tribal land in the hands of outsiders, especially money lenders and absentee landlords, started much before the advent of the British into the region. British colonial ruled further encouraged transfer of land from the original inhabitants to the outsiders and also they used to auction landed property of the

tribal chiefs for failing to pay their dues in time. Thus, gradually, **most of the fertile tribal lands were transferred to the 'diku' moneylenders and absentee landlords.**

With the opening up of the area to mining and industry, at the turn of the nineteenth century, tribals were further displaced. Many of them became landless 'coolie' labourers. Some even were driven to begging. The Tata Iron and Steel company was set up at Jamshedpur and other industries like the Hindustan Copper Mines, the Indian Aluminium Company, the National Coal Development Corporation, and others, followed soon. Since Independence, with launching of the Five Year Plans, both the Central and State Governments established heavy industries in and around Ranchi, Rourkela, Bokaro and Hatia. **Construction of dams and hydroelectric power project engulfed thousands and thousands of acres of land, without providing adequate compensation to the owners or making arrangements for their proper rehabilitation.** This resulted in many of the former tribal landowners working as 'coolies' on their own land on poor wages. Along with the big industries, ancillary industries also developed, taking away more than 250 mines, situated in the Kolhan area of Singhbhum district, also caused large-scale displacement of tribals from arable land.

Besides, both Governments have **taken away sizeable portion of forest land under the Indian Forest Act**, in the name of scientific management of forests and economic development of the nation. Such schemes are generally denounced by tribal leaders as a part of the over-all policy to the Government to uproot the tribals and peasants from their own land, forcing them to earn their livelihood in the urban and industrial centres.

Immigration

The people of Chhotanagpur have witnessed steady flow of outsiders to the region ever since the days of the Fourth Nagabanshi king, Pratap Rai, and subsequent rulers of Mughal dynasty. Rapid industrialisation and development of surface communication facilities under the British rule, further facilitated immigrants, in increased volumes, to come and settle in the region.

This large scale influx of outsiders, mainly from north and central Bihar, not only deprived the local people of the newly created job opportunities and training facilities but also practically forced them to leave their own land in search of menial jobs in far distant places like Punjab, Assam and ~~others~~.

The steady influx of external population and gradual eviction of the local people made the tribals minority in their own land. In 1891, there were only 1,00,000 outsiders and today immigrants from North and Central Bihar accounts for some 2.6 million people.

Since Independence, the Chhotanagpur area has been one of the fastest growing area in the country in terms of population growth.

The industrial cities of Ranchi, Jamshedpur and Dhanbad and their peripheries have simply exploded with population. The influx of outsiders has just reversed tribal-non-tribal population ratio in the region over a period of thirty years.

The immigrants, accounting for not more than fifteen percent of the total population of the region, thus, grabbed most of the lucrative jobs at the expense of the local Jharkhandis. This disproportionate representation of the local people in the industrial sector and their involvement in temporary, lowly paid and unskilled jobs clearly proves that apart from their lack of required skill and perhaps a preference for seasonal employment, tribals in general, were deprived of the educational and training facilities, mostly cornered by the privileged sections of the society. They were deliberately kept as a reserve work force of cheap, segregated, unorganised labourers in the interest of the industrialists and business houses. De-reservation of posts, on the plea of non-availability of qualified candidates, is a very common occurrence today, even when there are reservations for the tribals in training and jobs under the public sector. Besides, outsider non-tribals very often deprive the genuine scheduled tribe people by acquiring fake certificates through various unscrupulous means.

Cultural identity

So long as the tribals maintain a safe distance from the people of the plains, they retain their own identity and culture without much distortion. Thus, the Mundas in Chhotapanagpur have been able to maintain their traditional social structure and customs intact, as they are less accommodative in nature. But it is known that most of the tribal societies, today, are neither isolated from the surrounding non-tribal societies, nor are they free from influences of urban values and dominant religions. Improvement in communication facilities has made tribal pockets more vulnerable to outside influence. Such contacts with outside world have created a dilemma in the tribal life and culture, resulting into an identity crisis for the Jharkhandis. Neither are they able to acclimatise to the urban and alien values, nor are they in a position to preserve and pursue their own traditional rites, rituals and customs. Thus, we find the Oraons and Hos are gradually losing their identity because of their accommodative nature and readiness to mix with outsiders. In the process, tribal language, religion, customs and traditions are losing their purity and in some cases are being submerged under the influence of forces of **modernisation**.

Jharkhandis, generally, are worshippers of nature. But a large-scale devastation of forests owing to rapid industrialisation, urbanisation and unscientific mining and the consequent social forestry schemes, planting mostly non-indigenous, quick growing trees, have adversely affected their life pattern and religious beliefs. Traditional tribal religions such as 'animism', 'sarna dharam' nature worship are gradually being replaced by Christianity, Hinduism and others. Changes in adivasi food habits and festivals are also quite evident. Santhals, for instance, are abstaining from beef-eating and seem to be less interested in celebrating 'Itesh Bapla', 'Njrbolok Bapla', 'Sanga Bapla' and 'Bahador Bapla' as a result of their close proximity with the neighbouring Hindu society. Possessing a very rich tradition of their own, they are thus, not only denying themselves of a rich protein diet but also sacrificing their age old cultural heritage. Besides, **the adivasi society, traditionally known for its egalitarianism, is being divided today on communal lines and even the hierarchical notions of caste and class are creeping in.** Agriculture is made subservient to business and industry, literary and artistic pursuits are losing their participatory nature and becoming more passive and observation oriented.

As a matter of fact, the tribals, unable to cope with the external pressures from all sides, are a frustrated lot and as a natural consequence developing marks of a

negative identity for themselves. They are being branded by the 'civilised' world as 'lazy bum', 'good for nothing', 'drunk' and 'criminal'. Some adivasis like the Lodhas of Bengal and sections of the Gond in Madhya Pradesh are even described as criminal tribes. Thus, the notions of a noble, savage and a healthy tribe are fast becoming a myth. These signs of cultural degradation, sometimes, generate among the tribals a common psychology of identity assertion, for their own survival.

The Jharkhand region abounds in minerals and provides a substantial portion of India's total requirements in the field. Chhotanagpur and Santhal Parganas though comprise only 2.5 percent of the total geographical area of our land, nevertheless, account for more than twenty five percent of the mineral production of the country. The Jharkhand region alone, comprises of one-fifth of the public sector enterprises of the country. No less than 14 large-scale industries, with investments of crores of rupees, are scattered around Singhbhum district only. These industries produce iron and steel, copper, aluminium, uranium, lead, mica, glass, cement and fertiliser which are essential as far as India's growth and all round developments are concerned. But, if one looks at the development of this region in particular, in respect of irrigation, rural electrification or road construction, its backwardness is more than evident.

The people of this hilly terrain of south Bihar feel discriminated against the people of the plains of northern parts of the state. The Chhotanagpur plateau, enriched with mineral, forest and industrial resources, though contributes almost seventy percent of the total revenue collection in Bihar, the expenditure of revenue made in this region is a paltry 20 percent. Only five percent of the total rural areas of south Bihar have electricity and only five kilometre road per thousand kilometre is paved. Thus, perpetual neglect of the Chhotanagpur region by the successive governments in Bihar, has led to mass discontent in the area.

The most disturbing feature of the development process in the region is that out of the meagre amount of money allotted, only a small portion reaches the actually needy. Thus, though the local people are known for their sincerity and hard work they are sliding down below the poverty line day by day. Many of them who are literally forced to leave the region in search for menial jobs, under the pressure of large-scale influx of immigrant job-seekers, nevertheless, find them in a precarious situation as they are not treated as scheduled tribes, eligible for the developmental benefits guaranteed under the Constitution of India. Thus, over a million tribal people from Chhotanagpur, who had migrated to the north-eastern region of the country and eventually settled there as tea plantation labourers, face an additional discrimination. This discrimination, however, is caused by their local tribal brethren who are not prepared to share the benefits granted to them, as scheduled tribes, under the Constitution. Those who still remain in their ancestral lands, as unskilled 'coolie' labourers, are gradually being sandwiched into slum areas of newly developed industrial and urban centres.

The Jharkhand movement is basically a protest movement against the exploitation of the indigenous tribal people by the outsider 'dikus'. To quote the election manifesto of the Jharkhand Mukti Morcha in 1980, "we want Jharkhand free from exploitation; a Jharkhand where those who work will eat and those who loot will go". The aim of the leaders is to emancipate the area from the clutches of exploiters, moneylenders, corrupt bureaucrats and vested interests. They describe the movement as a search for national identity in an environment of extreme exploitation and demand "the

collective right of self-determination for economic, social, cultural and political identity of indigenous tribal people."

12. STATE-BACKED CASTE-BASED SENAS IN BIHAR

{Source: Sinha A. and Sinha I., 1996, Bihar State, Class and Sena Nexus, EPW, XXX 1, 44, 2}

" If someone is alive in Bihar, it is because nobody is interested in killing him".

-People Union for Civil Rights

"The collapse of the state and its administrative machinery has resulted in a dual or parallel system in different spheres of Bihari social life. The collapse of the state-run education system has led thousands of private educational institutions to spring up throughout Bihar. Same is the fate of state-run health care system. The prime source of income for thousands of state employed doctors is their private clinics and nursing homes. The state-run hospitals have become death traps. Power supply in the state is equally ad hoc. Water of state-run water supply system is so contaminated, especially during the monsoon that it perpetually becomes a source of water-borne diseases. Even the big police force proves to be totally incapable of providing even the minimum safety and security to the citizens. Bihar tops in killings, kidnappings, custodial deaths in the country. In most places, police is in connivance with the criminals, gangsters, and mafia.

It is necessary to understand the twin formation of landlord's private senas and people's self-defence guerilla squads against this background. The landlords have been maintaining armed organisations since British days. The land owning classes utilised their local powers in strengthening their clout in the legal constitutional government and its administrative set-up after independence. This state of affairs was relentlessly opposed by common people and organised left-democratic forces in the **State**.

A new development that took place in post-emergency Bihar, and in central Bihar in particular, was the rise of middle castes in socio-economic and political hierarchy. Middle castes were organised in a big way by the Samyukta Socialist Party (SSP). Lohiaite ideology of caste-based reservations in education and government employment was big attraction for them. They shared political power for the first time in 1967 non-Congress government at the state level. It generated lust for more power. They got a bigger opportunity in 1977 in Karpoori Thakur government. The subsequent years saw tremendous consolidation and rise of Yadav, Kurmi, and Koieri castes. This newly emerged power elite was aggressive against the upper castes as well as against dalits and other underprivileged groups. Because of this, they came into direct confrontation with the rising movement of landless, poor peasants, mostly dalits, who were mobilised under the Naxalite leadership. It resulted in the infamous Belchhi massacre in 1978, which prodded Indira Gandhi to visit Belchhi in order to woo the dalits. The dalits, however, were not in a mood to relent. In Naxalism, they found an ideology and politics which matched their deep-rooted determination to fight for their liberation. Their struggle spread throughout central and south-central Bihar. The extra-constitutional domain of power of the ruling classes was grievously threatened by waves of militant peasant struggles led by

different Naxalite groups. Hundreds of landlords had to flee from their strongholds towards the cities in central Bihar. It was only a tactical retreat, not a total defeat. The state and its oppressive machinery was still intact; moreover, there was the political and economic support of the big capitalist class together with the foreign imperialist powers. Conspiracies were hatched by the ruling classes to finish off the rising peasant movements. The result was the formation state-backed caste-based senas: Bhumi Sena (kurmi), Lorik Sena (yadav), Brahmarshi Sena (bhumihar), Kunwar Sena (rajput), etc. Then began the deluge of murder, mayhem and **massacres**.

Central Bihar witnessed scores of massacres from Pipra onwards; but it was also destined to witness the strength and power of revolutionary egalitarian ideology as well. Those who did not have enough to eat and feed their children, succeeded in defeating and liquidating most of these senas, the Bhumi Sena being the most barbarous of them. In frenzy, the ruling classes threw away all norms of civility and constitutional functioning, and the state came out openly against the downtrodden, defending the rural rich. The blatant manifestation of this was Arwal massacre in 1986 by the police itself.

Rise of Ranveer Sena

It is not the first time that Bhojpur is experiencing the formation of senas. The forerunners of Ranveer Sena were Brahmarshi and Kunwar Sena which could not sustain for long. Then the local ruling classes were divided along caste lines. The Mandalisation of politics aggravated the conflict between the upper and the middle castes. But, once the Mandal forces got consolidated on the political map of Bihar, the upper caste landlords initiated the process of aligning with the Mandal forces to counter the challenge of the militant poor. This process got momentum after Jwala Singh, a dreaded rajput landlord and manager of Danwar Bihta carnage, joined Janata Dal. This strategy of the ruling classes culminated into the **formation of upper caste Ranveer Sena in 1994 with the full backing of the middle castes and local level district administration**. It is this formidable alliance which unleashed terror in Bathani Tola to wipe out Naxalism from Bhojpur.

The formation of Ranveer Sena is indicative of class polarisation from above. This is not a caste sena as happened to be the case with other private senas. The class aspect is fairly pronounced in Ranveer Sena's support base and functioning. Bhumihar and rajput caste people have never seen eye to eye and have a history of being mutual foes throughout Bihar. They have now joined hands to form Ranveer Sena. Further, it is the class interest which goaded the ruling stratum of the middle castes to extend support to the sena.

The same trend could be seen in Palamau, Patna, Gaya, Jehanabad, Aurangabad and Nalanda. There existed internecine fights between the pathan landlords and rajput, bhumihar and brahmin landlords in Palamau. But they forged an alliance under the Sunlight Sena (which was formed by the Pathans) when their economic interests and socio-political authority was challenged by peasants fighting under Naxalite leadership. An interesting feature of Palamau is the powerful presence of BJP, and yet it could not tamper with the class interests of Brahmin and other upper caste Hindu landlords of Sunlight Sena. By contrast, the poor and backward Muslim groups are united with the poor Hindu caste fellows and dalits under Naxalite leadership.

Similar is the case with the Kisan Sangha of Magadh range in central Bihar, which is an armed organisation composed of criminal elements and their political masters from yadav, kurmi, bhumihar and rajput castes. It was formed allegedly at the behest of ex-union minister for chemicals and fertilisers, Ram Lakhan Singh Yadav. Caste feuds have given way to class collaboration.

Table 16: Chronology of Massacres in Bhojpur District

Date	No. of deceased	Village (massacre took place)	Police Station	Deceased (belonged to)	Killers	Time
Nov 24, 1989	5 (M)	Danwar bihta	Tarai	Others	IPF	Day
Nov 24, 1989	17 (5F+C+M)	Danwar bihta	Tarai	IPF	Others	Night
June 23, 1991	14 (M)	Deo Sahiyara	Tarai	CPI-ML	Others	Night
Mar 17, 1994	7 (1F+6M)	Narhi	Sahar	CPI-ML	Police	Day
Apr 4, 1995	3 (M)	Khopira	Sandesh	CPI-ML	Ranveer Sena	Night
July 25, 1995	6 (M)	Sarathua	Udwantnagar	CPI-ML	Ranveer Sena	Night
Aug 3, 1995	6 (M) (Fishermen)	Nirpur	Krishnagarh	CPI-ML	Ranveer + Ganga Sena	Night
Feb 7, 1996	4 (M)	Gandi	Charpokhari	CPI-ML	Ranveer Sena	Night
Mar 9, 1996	3 (M)	Fitalpuri	Chauri	CPI-ML	Ranveer Sena	Night
Apr 22, 1996	5 ©	Nonaaur	Sahar	CPI-ML	Ranveer Sena	Night
May 4, 1996	9 (M)	Narhi	Sahar	Ranveer Sena	CPI-ML	Day
May 19, 1996	3 (2F+1M)	Narhi	Sahar	CPI-ML	Ranveer Sena	Day
May 25, 1996	3 (1C+2M)	Yarath	Udwantnagar	CP -ML	Ranveer Sena	Day
July 11, 1996	19 (10F+8C+1M)	Bathani	Tola Chauri	CP -ML	Ranveer Sena	Day
1997	-	Nahaur + Haibvaspur	-	Dalits	Ranver Sena	Day
Dec 1997	62	Bathe	-	Dalits	Ranveer Sena	Night
Jan 1998	9	Lakhmanpur	-	Ranveer Sena	CPI-ML	-
Jan 25, 1999	21	Shankarbigha	-	Dalits	Ranveer Sena	Night
Feb 10, 1999	12 (5F+3C+4M)	Narayanpur	-	Dalits	Ranveer Sena	Night

(besides four children traceless)

Note: F – Female, M – Male, C - Child

{Source: EPW, Vol. XXXI, No.44, Nov. 2, 1996}

“An estimated 281 people have been killed in Bihar so far in attacks by the Ranbir Sena”
- The Indian Express

13. POLITICAL ANALYSIS AND ELECTION TRENDS OF BIHAR BASED ON GENERAL ELECTIONS, 1996

{Source: Extract from Binoy S. Prasad ,EPW; Vol. XXXII No.47, November 22-28, 1997 }

Caste and social factions continue to play a major role in elections in Bihar. In the absence of concrete political agendas, these influences get further reinforced and elections have become a means of establishing a phoney social dominance by caste groups. This is also why no one pattern of alignment of social forces is clearly discernible as consistent. The distinct political culture of the state where the majority of voters are illiterate but politically alert, has contributed to the violent and corrupt nature of elections in Bihar.

There were a number of developments that provided an interesting backdrop to the 1996 Lok Sabha election in Bihar. Just a year before the election to the Vidhana

Sabha (the state legislative assembly) had established the chief minister of Bihar, Laloo Prasad Yadav as one of the strongest regional leaders of north India. With no great performance achieved by the government, the voters got yet another chance to make known their opinion on Laloo's administration which had been hit by the scandal which came to be known as the "fodder scam". Above all, the election of 1996 was a retrial of the political alliance of the social groups: the other backward casts (OBC), especially the yadavs, Muslims, and dalits so successfully forged under the leadership of Laloo. Evidently, with the kurmis and the OBCs breaking away from the alliance and their alignment with the BJP and other small forward caste parties, the political equation had changed considerably.

Alliance System and Election Trends

{Source: "Bihar State, Class and 'Sena' Nexus by Arvind Sinha and Indu Sinha, EPW, Vol XXXI, No.44, Nov. 2, 1996}

BJP-Samata Alliance

The major factor for the upset of the Janata Dal under Laloo's leadership was the alliance of the BJP and the Samata Party which claimed 24 out of 54 seats. In south Bihar, i.e., Chhotanagpur-Santhal Pargana area (also identified as the Jharkhand region), the BJP-Samata alliance had a clean sweep. It bagged 12 out of 14 Lok Sabha seats.

The BJP alliance had a positive swing of 12 percent votes in Bihar compared to its national swing of over 2.7 percent only. For the BJP, the national percentage of votes increased from 20.8 percent in 1991 to 23.5 percent in 1996. Despite national reverses of the Congress party and resurgence of the BJP, the national percentage of votes for the Congress still remained higher (28.1 percent) than the BJP (23.5 percent). In the 'first-past-the-post' election system, there is always an ambiguous relationship between the percentage of votes secured and the number of seats earned. In 1991, the BJP nationally added 40 seats to its total without further addition to its share of votes. This time around, the BJP was a beneficiary of an electoral system they had been criticising for so long.

The BJP's positive swing votes of 12 percent was largely on account of its ally, the Samata Party and voters' disillusionment with the Government of Laloo Prasad Yadav (hereafter mentioned as Laloo) and the main opposition in Bihar, the Congress. In triangular or multi-cornered contests, the alliance worked out by the BJP and the Samata paid rich dividends. The BJP was able to convert its own traditional votes into seats. Earlier, the BJP did not have enough strength on its own to claim as many number of seats. The alliance was a shot in the arm for the BJP and, therefore, it could spread its influence in the north and the central part of Bihar. In a sense, the national average of votes for the BJP (23.5 percent), worked out on the basis of votes secured nationally didn't present the whole picture about the BJP. For example, in its own belt, Maharashtra, Gujarat, Rajasthan, Delhi or Himachal Pradesh, the BJP and allies added 5 percent votes to their share of votes secured in 1991. That accounted for more seats for the BJP than the Congress.

JD-Left Alliance

In 1996, the JD-Left alliance had lost its momentum primarily because of the absence of National Front, a kind of joint front of non-Congress and non-BJP parties that they had in 1990. Secondly, the popularity of the Janata Dal under Laloo's presidentship had deteriorated a lot. Thirdly, it was clear that the party did not work hard to expand its base. All these affected the alliance. Out of the 44 Lok Sabha seats the Janata Dal contested, leaving eight seats to the CPI and two to the CPI(M), Laloo fielded 17 of his sitting MLAs including five cabinet ministers. As many as seven of the 17 MLAs were defeated.

The election of the 10 Janata Dal MLAs to the Lok Sabha rendered the Janata Dal government four seats short of a majority in the 324-member state legislative assembly. The Janata Dal had 169 MLAs. The immediate fallout was that like in the previous state legislature (1990-95), Laloo's government depended on alliance partners, the CPI and the CPI(M) which had 23 and six members respectively. The other evidence of the unpopularity of Laloo and the JD was that along with the 1996 Lok Sabha election, there were by-elections to four Assembly seats. The Janata Dal couldn't win a single seat.

Furthermore, in the by-elections held for 10 seats to the Vidhan Sabha (legislative assembly) that took place on October 11, 1996 (i.e, after the Lok Sabha elections), the BJP-Samata Party combine wrested four seats respectively. There were indications in some cases that Laloo could not secure votes of his own caste, yadav, for the Dal nominees belonging to the non-yadav castes. That clearly meant that for the first time after 1990, Laloo could not take the votes for yadavs for granted at least for non-yadav candidates sponsored by him. Three assembly seats had fallen vacant following departure of the three MLAs who were elected to the Lok Sabha in May 1996 and became prime minister Deve Gowda's union ministers also. They were Kanti Singh, Raghubansh Prasad Singh and Chandradeo Prasad Verma who represented Piro, Belsand and Paliganj assembly constituencies respectively. In none of these three assembly constituencies could Laloo's candidate win. Belsand and Paliganj seats went to BJP-Samata nominees and Piro was wrested by Shivanand Tiwari, the general secretary of the Samata Party, Lovely Anand, wife of Anand Mohan Singh, a Samata Party MP snatched the Navi Nagar assembly constituency from the Janata Dal. Laloo had put up Bhima Yadav as the JD candidate who was trounced by Lovely Anand with a comfortable margin of more than 7,000 votes.

Anand Mohan Singh, a rajput tough, was the founder of Bihar People's Party (BPP), largely a rajput outfit. The BPP later merged with the Samata party. An alliance could thus be seen emerging between (a) the forward castes and the tradesmen (usually the banias) represented by the BJP, (b) the non-yadav middle castes like koeri, kurmi and mahato under the Samata Party, and (c) a section of the rajputs represented by the Bihar People's party. In the assembly by-elections, a steady erosion in Laloo's electoral base was noticeable.

The alliance partners of the Janata Dal - the CPI and the CPI(M) - felt that Laloo conducted himself too much like a big brother and settled the adjustment of seats with a strong arm. The communist parties were extending support to Laloo's government before and after the 1996 election because their national leadership directed them to do so. The rank and file of the local party units were, however, very unhappy about Laloo's style of handling the alliance. In 1991, the CPI had won

eight Lok Sabha seats and the CPI(M) one. In 1996, they asked for more constituencies. In particular, the CPI was very keen on having Jamshedpur but was denied the constituency. The two communist parties were allotted eight and two seats **respectively**.

One could debate the merits of the claims and counterclaims of these adjustments of seats, the fact that the Janata Dal and the CPI supporters were not working in unison was manifested in five constituencies where the alliance lost. They were Buxar, Motihari, Munger, Hazaribagh and Nalanda. The winner in all these constituencies was the BJP-Samata Party alliance. Likewise, the CPI(M) lost Nawadah, the only seat to its account in 1991. The CPI(M) cadre also complained of non-cooperation on the part of the Janata Dal workers. The lack of effectiveness of local level alliance was usually because of the presence of rebel candidates or independent candidates cutting into the votes of the majority castes. As we will see later, the CPI and CPI(M) paid the price for insincerity and indifference on the part of the Janata Dal.

Janata Dal and CPI(ML)

The CPI(ML) led by Vinod Mishra, which had earlier extended support to the formation of Laloo's government in 1990, was also disillusioned by the chief minister because his administration had failed 'to curb violence and atrocities against its mass bases and cadres'. The CPI(ML), therefore, decided to switch its support to the Samata Party. From the ideological standpoint of the CPI(ML), the Samata Party was not fundamentally different from the Janata Dal in its political and social outlook. The Samata Party, with its support base among the kurmi and koeri castes, was just like Laloo's Janata Dal which had yadavs consolidated behind it. Koeris and kurmis along with the yadavs were all members of the OBCs and a vast segment of which was the most formidable upcoming section of the Bihar rural society. Their landed interest had been behind instigation and killings in some of the most infamous cases of political violence. Their movement up the socio-economic ladder had been at the expense of the landless harijans, tribal people or extremely backward castes (EBCs). The CPI(ML), therefore, should have maintained equal distance from both the Janata Dal and the Samata Party. But the exigencies of electoral politics demanded the CPI(ML) too had an alliance partner. In terms of seats, however, the CPI(ML) drew a blank.

Congress: No Alliances, Poor Performance

It is remarkable that the Congress did not have an alliance partner in 1996. In 1970s, the Communist Party of India always had seat adjustments with the Congress(I). Since the JD did not have an alliance with the Jharkhand Mukti Morcha, the Congress should have worked out a tactical alliance with the JMM, a party of the inhabitants of the Chhotanagpur-Santhal Pargana region. After all, the JMM MPs did vote for the motion supporting P.V. Narasimha Rao in 1992. In fact, before the 1996 election both the Congress and the JMM were discredited to a great extent. The Congress won Begusarai, the lone Lok Sabha seat and a woman MP in 1991. In 1996, Begusarai was lost to Ramendra Kumar, an independent.

In numerical terms, the Congress doubled its strength in 1996 by winning two seats. The credibility of the Congress as a national party was all time low since 38 of its 53 candidates in the field forfeited their deposit. Whereas in eight constituencies

(Buxar, Chapra, Siwan, Motihari, Bettiah, Barh, Hajipur and Kishanganj) the Congress had less than 10,000 votes. In Maharajganj, the party polled just a little over 2,000. Many leading stalwarts like Ram Lakhan Singh Yadav (Arrah), Krishna Sahi (Begusarai), Dhanik Lal Mandal (Jhanjharpur), Ramesh Thakur (Bhagalpur) and S.N. Sinha (Aurangabad) lost the election.

Compared to its performance in 1991, the Congress in Bihar achieved a negative swing of votes in 1996 which was around 13 percent. This was against the national negative swing of over 8 percent. The national percentage of votes for the Congress (28.1 percent) in 1996 was against 36.5 percent in 1991. The percentage of votes polled by the Congress was well below 30 in Bihar. Below the critical level of 30 percent mark, votes cannot easily be translated into seats unless there is a multi-cornered contest.

Bihar, therefore, joined Uttar Pradesh in the list of those states where the Congress had been marginalised. In Assam, Haryana, and Karnataka, the Congress was on the brink of being marginalised. In all, there were 92 Lok Sabha seats in 1991 where the Congress finished third or below. This time around, the number rose to 144. In almost every election held so far, split in non-Congress votes always helped the Congress. In 1996, the split factor did not favour the Congress except in Andhra Pradesh.

Laloo's Reverses: Some Explanations

The unprecedented victory of the JD at the assembly election of 1995 had created an invincible image of Laloo. That image was negated by the votes of Bihar within a year. One of the major reasons for the reverses of the JD was that in Bihar, with the change of parties in power, the repressive nature of the government had never changed. Laloo's government sought to survive on the ideology of 'social justice' which would have mobilised the OBCs, workers, dalits and women. But during the JD government the demands of the peasants continued to be ignored and their agitations were suppressed in the areas of Bhojpur, Gaya, Jehanabad, Aurangabad, and Palamau. There was no let up in the ongoing conflict between peasant organisations and land-owning class. Peasant-worker organisations were banned while the private armies of land-owning class were allowed to gain in strength.

Women who constituted almost half of the population of Bihar were ignored. The Women's Commission, which was set up with representation from various mass women's organisations never took off.

Laloo had to depend largely on his own charisma to rally people around himself or at best on the manipulation of caste equation, mainly the alliance of the Muslims and yadavs. Twelve out of 44 JD tickets were given to the candidates of the yadav caste alone. The share of the yadavs, therefore, worked out to a little more than 27 percent. The share of the yadavs in the population of Bihar is about 12.5 percent. In other words, more than one out every four Lok Sabha candidates of the Janata Dal was a yadav. Many of Laloo's handpicked candidates did not have a clean public image. At least 17 of them were members of the current legislative assembly who had not even sought party tickets.

Laloo's administration did not deal with the problem of violence on the weaker section. His first term did witness the 'Tiskhora massacre' near Patna where

criminals hired by yadav landlords killed 11 harijans. Laloo, who had earned the reputation of personally visiting the violence-affected areas, was found wanting in taking action against the culprits. Added to this was the poor economic performance of Laloo's government which was getting involved deeper in corruption, the animal husbandry scandal being the leading one.

PRESENT SITUATION AND EVENTS IN BIHAR

When Laloo was chargesheeted in the fodder scam by the CBI, he resigned from the post of chief minister and succeeded to make his wife the Chief Minister of Bihar.

In Laloo's Bihar, a cognizable offence is committed every four seconds, a murder every two hours, a kidnapping for ransom every three hours, and a rape every six hours, while looting of the treasury is a round-the-year activity. Sheer lack of governance has seen, among other things, extremists and private armies of feudal landlords establishing parallel administration in nine of the State's 55 districts. During the campaign for the last Lok Sabha elections, Samata party leader, George Fernandes and Nitish Kumar had exhorted voters to cast their ballots for the BJP-led alliance, saying "if the BJP-led alliance is voted to power, the RJD Government will be thrown out within 72 hours".

It has taken somewhat longer. On February 10, 1999, the news of the Narainpur massacre reached Delhi, the Union Cabinet decided that the time had finally come to sign the Rabri Government's death warrant. As in September last year, when the Central Government first recommended President's rule in the State - which President K.R. Narayanan had rejected in his recommendation. Soon after the massacre of Narainpur on 10 February 1999, the Union Cabinet decided to send a recommendation to the President seeking dismissal of the Rabri Government and since it is the second time of the Union Cabinet's recommendation, President K.R. Narayanan approved it, without any clarifications. On February 12th, 1999, the Rabri Devi government was dismissed and the Assembly kept under suspended animation. Now, Bihar is under President's rule.

Source: India Today, 22nd February, 1999

14. AVAILABILITY OF EDUCATIONAL FACILITIES

The availability of education is very important for the improvement of health and family welfare. Women with a high school education have fewer and healthier children than illiterate women.

Most of the sample villages in Bihar have access to some form of educational facility (see Table 17). The majority of villages (69 percent) have a primary school located within the village, and three-fourths (78 percent) of the villages have a middle school either within the village or within 5 km of the village. The median distance of villages from a secondary school is 4 km and from a higher secondary school is 6 km. However, colleges are located quite far from the villages, at a median distance of almost 13 km. Fifty-six percent of the villages are 10 or more km from the nearest college.

Table 17: Distance from nearest educational facility

Percent distribution of villages according to distance from nearest educational facility, Bihar, 1993					
Educational facility					
Distance	Primary school	Middle school	Secondary school	Higher secondary school	College
Within village	69.2	31.3	7.8	2.6	--
< 5 km	22.5	46.6	48.9	26.3	29.6
5-9 km	8.2	20.2	34.2	25.8	13.6
10+ km	0.1	0.3	9.1	28.5	56.3
Don't know/missing	--	1.6	--	13.8	0.4
Total percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Median distance	0.0	2.5	3.9	5.9	12.8
-- Less than 0.05 percent					

Source: National Family Health Survey of Bihar, 1998

Table 18 shows school attendance rates for the school-age household population, by age, sex and residence. The table focuses on children age 6-14, because the Indian Constitution established a goal of providing free and compulsory education for children through age 14. In the state as a whole, only 51 percent of children age 6-14 attend school. In backward districts, the school attendance rate is much higher for males than for females. School attendance rates by sex in the state as a whole are 64 percent for males and 38 percent for females age 6-14. School attendance is also higher in urban areas (77 percent) than in rural areas (47 percent) and backward districts (50 percent).

Table 18: School attendance

Percentage of the <i>de facto</i> household population age 6-14 years attending school by age, sex and residence, Bihar, 1993												
Male					Female				Total			
Age	Urban	Rural	Total	Backward districts	Urban	Rural	Total	Backward districts	Urban	Rural	Total	Backward districts
6-10	83.0	57.0	60.6	58.0	69.3	34.0	38.5	39.77	76.5	45.7	49.9	49.3
11-14	86.2	64.9	68.8	65.1	65.6	33.0	37.9	36.6	77.1	49.1	53.8	51.7
6-14	84.3	59.8	63.6	60.5	67.8	33.6	38.3	38.6	76.7	46.9	51.3	50.1

Source: National Family Health Survey of Bihar, 1998

Table 19 : Female Literacy Rate

India	39%
Kerala (H)	86%
Rajasthan (L)	20%
Bihar	23%

H: Highest; L: Lowest
Source: Registrar General of India, Census of India, 1991

15. AVAILABILITY OF HEALTH FACILITIES

The availability of health facilities either within or close to a village is critical to the health and well-being of village mothers and their children. Table 20 to 26 shows the distance of villages from the nearest health facility as well as the percentage of ever-married women in rural areas who have access to the facilities. Nearly 42 percent of all sample villages in Bihar have some form of health facility within the

village. Eighteen percent have a sub-centre within the village, the same percentage as have a hospital. Fifteen percent have a dispensary/clinic, but only 4 percent of villages have a Primary Health Centre within the village and 31 percent have the nearest one located at a distance of atleast 10 km. Seventy-three percent of the villages have a sub-centre within the village or within 5 km of the village. Forty-two percent of villages have the nearest hospital located 10 or more km away.

The median distance of villages to a sub-centre is almost 3 km, while the median distance to a Primary Health Centre is 7 km. The median distance of villages from a hospital is 7 km.

The percent distribution of ever-married women according to the distance to the nearest health facility mirrors the distribution of villages. Sixty-two percent of ever-married women have access to a health facility within their village and the most common facility is a sub-centre (43 percent). Most women (52 percent) would have to travel 10 or more km to a hospital.

Table 20 : Medical Practitioners registered – 1992

All India	410,875
Maharashtra (H)	51,895
Haryana (L)	685
Bihar	27,057

*H: Highest; L: Lowest
Source: CMIE, 1996*

Table 21 : Medical Facilities – 1991-92

	Hospitals	No. of hospital beds	Dispensaries	Dispensary Beds	Primary Health Centre
India	13,692	596,203	27,403	25,173	20,719
Maharashtra (H)	3,115	78,920	8,143	1,629	1,625
Orissa (L)	254	14,494	232	135	996
Bihar	328	29,090	427	96	2,207

*H: Highest; L: Lowest
Source : CMIE, 1997.*

Table 22 : Rural Primary Health Care Infrastructure and Average Population covered

Centre	No.	Population covered in '000
Sub-centre	14799	5.1
Primary Health Centres	2209	34.0
Community Health Centres	148	510

Table 23 : Number of training schools

ANM/MPW	33
LHV/AHA	21

Table 24 : Number of hospitals and beds to rural and urban areas, 1993

Total		Rural		Urban	
Hospitals	Beds	Hospitals	Beds	Hospitals	Beds
328	29090	100	3018	228	26072

Table 25 : Hospitals run by Private and Voluntary Organisations and Government Hospitals

Private/Voluntary Organisation Hospitals		Govt. run hospitals	
Hospitals	Beds	Hospitals	Beds
90	8519	237	20522

Source of Table 22 – 25: Health Monitor, 1995

Table 26: Distance from nearest health facility

Percent distribution of villages and ever-married women age 13-49, according to distance from nearest health facility, Bihar, 1993						
Health facility						
Distance	Primary Health Centre	Sub-centre	Either PHC / Sub-centre	Hospital	Dispensary / clinic	Any health facility
Villages						
Within village	3.7	17.7	18.5	18.6	14.8	41.9
< 5 KM	35.2	55.1	57.6	26.6	44.2	35.5
5-9 KM	29.7	20.9	22.2	13.3	19.1	21.8
10+ km	30.9	3.4	1.7	41.5	12.3	0.8
Don't know/missing	0.4	2.9	--	--	9.5	--
Total percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Median distance	7.3	2.5	2.4	7.2	2.9	1.5
Ever- Married Women						
Within village	6.4	43.3	44.3	11.8	27.7	62.0
< 5km	26.7	38.4	39.8	16.6	28.2	24.3
5-9 km	34.2	14.7	14.7	20.1	20.6	12.7
10+ km	32.8	2.8	1.1	51.5	17.9	1.0
Don't know/missing	--	0.8	--	--	5.7	--
Total percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Median Distance	7.5	1.2	1.1	10.4	3.1	0.8
-- Less than 0.05 percent						

Source: National Family Health Survey of Bihar, 1998

16. AVAILABILITY OF OTHER FACILITIES AND SERVICES

Health personnel are also very important for the provision of health services to mothers and their children. Table 27 indicates the availability of health personnel within the villages. Only 18 percent of the villages have a village health guide, on ly

15 percent have trained birth attendant, and less than 2 percent have a mobile health unit or have been visited by a mobile health unit.

Table 27 also details the availability of various other facilities and services in the villages. About one third of all the villages (32 percent) are electrified. Among the government rural development programmes in India, the most important is the Integrated Rural Development Programme, but it exists in only 35 percent of the villages in Bihar. Only 6 percent of the villages have National Rural Employment Programme (NREP), 5 percent have Training the Youth for Self-Employment (TRYSEM), and 2 percent have the Employment Guarantee Scheme (EGS). One in seven villages have an Anganwadi centre (a preschool child care centre under the Integrated Rural Development scheme), 9 percent have adult education classes, 8 percent have Jana Shikshana Nilayam (post-literacy adult education centre) and 6 percent have youth clubs. Only 1 percent of them have Mahila Mandal (women's club). One-fourth of the villages have some type of cooperative society. Shops or markets are more common, but are not available in most villages. A little less than one-fifth of villages (19 percent) have a fair price shop and 24 percent have a market or other type of shop. Only 10 percent have a bank and 25 percent have a post office.

Table 27 : Availability of facilities and services

Percentage of villages selected facilities and services, Bihar, 1993	
Facility/service	Percentage
Anganwadi	13.6
Adult education classes	8.7
Jana Shikshana Nilayam	7.6
Village health guide	18.3
Trained birth attendant	15.3
Mobile health unit	1.6
Electricity	31.8
Bank	10.2
Cooperative society	10.9
Agriculture cooperative society	12.5
Milk cooperative society	1.7
Post office	24.7
Market/shop	24.2
Fair price shop	19.2
Mahila Mandal	1.2
Youth club	5.8
Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP)	34.9
National Rural Employment Programme (NREP)	6.3
Training the Youth for Self-employment (TRYSEM)	4.7
Employment Guarantee Scheme (EGS)	2.0

Source: National Family Health Survey of Bihar, 1998

17. MORBIDITY

Table 28 shows the prevalence of the five health conditions among the household population living in each place of residence by age and by sex. Partial or complete blindness, with the highest incidence, affects 28 per 1,000 population. Malaria follows next, afflicting 14 per 1,000 population during the three months prior to the survey. Physical impairment of the limbs affects 7 per 1,000, 6 per 1,000 have tuberculosis and 1 per 1,000 have leprosy.

Table 28 : Morbidity

Number of persons per 1,000 usual residents in the household suffering from blindness, tuberculosis, leprosy, physical impairment of the limbs and malaria according to age, sex and residence, Bihar, 1993							
Number of persons per 1,000 suffering from:							
Demographic Characteristic	Blindness		TB	Leprosy	Physical Impairment of limbs	Malaria during the last three months	Number of usual residents
	Partial	Complete					
URBAN							
Age							
0 – 14	2.3	13.1	2.8	0.4	6.6	9.6	1718
15 – 59	19.4	2.2	5.3	1.7	5.6	6.5	2565
60 ⁺	150.8	7.1	4.7	1.3	6.9	7.4	4562
Sex							
Male	16.3	9.0	4.2	1.6	7.5	5.6	2410
Female	26.3	5.0	5.1	0.9	6.3	9.4	2152
Total	21.0	7.1	4.7	1.3	6.9	7.4	4562
RURAL							
Age							
0 – 14	3.1	6.2	1.7	0.4	7.2	12.0	10636
15 – 59	20.2	1.5	8.8	1.5	5.9	17.5	12576
60 ⁺	159.0	13.3	14.5	3.7	15.6	23.0	1822
Sex							
Male	21.5	4.0	7.1	1.8	8.5	16.4	12721
Female	24.6	4.7	5.2	0.6	5.7	14.6	12312
Total	23.0	4.4	6.2	1.2	7.2	15.5	25033
TOTAL							
Age							
0 – 14	3.0	7.2	1.8	0.4	7.1	11.6	12354
15 – 59	20.0	1.6	8.2	1.6	5.8	15.6	15140
60 ⁺	157.9	13.7	13.8	3.6	16.3	20.3	2102
Sex							
Male	20.6	4.8	6.6	1.8	8.4	14.77	15131
Female	24.9	4.8	5.2	0.7	5.8	13.8	14464
Total	22.7	4.8	5.9	1.2	7.1	14.3	29596
BACKWARD DISTRICTS							
Age							
0 – 14	4.1	4.5	1.7	0.8	8.6	12.2	1868
15 – 59	21.9	2.7	14.3	2.9	8.6	18.8	2250
60 ⁺	181.4	14.6	13.3	7.0	15.8	27.1	325
Sex							
Male	20.9	5.7	10.6	2.9	10.5	17.4	2277
Female	31.6	2.9	7.2	1.7	7.7	15.8	2166
Total	26.1	4.3	8.9	2.3	9.	16.6	4433

Source: National Family Health Survey, 1998

Partial and Complete Blindness

The overall prevalence of partial blindness is 23 per 1,000 population (Table 8.1), with slight variation by place of residence. Partial blindness increases sharply with age from 3 per 1,000 persons age 0-14 to 20 per 1,000 persons age 15-59 and 158 per 1,000 persons age 60 and over. The high prevalence among older persons, by far the largest differential displayed for any of these morbidity data, is particularly striking. Overall, females are substantially more prone to partial blindness than males despite the fact that there are proportionally more males than females in the older age groups where the prevalence of partial blindness is the highest. Overall, the prevalence for females is 25 per 1,000 compared with 21 per 1,000 for males.

The overall level of complete blindness is reported to be higher among urban residents (7 per 1,000) than rural residents (4 per 1,000). Females are slightly more prone to complete blindness than males in rural areas and less prone than males in urban areas. Complete blindness is more than eight times as prevalent among persons over age 60 as among persons age 15-59. Complete blindness is higher among persons age 0-14 than among persons age 15-59, and the difference is significant. The overall prevalence of partial blindness in backward districts is the highest among all areas (26 per 1,000), but the age-sex differentials are similar to those of the state as a whole.

Malaria

The overall level of malaria in the three months prior the survey was 14 per 1,000. The prevalence is substantially lower in urban areas (7 per 1,000) than in rural areas (16 per 1,000). In urban areas, the prevalence of malaria is higher for females (9 per 1,000) than for males (6 per 1,000) whereas slightly the opposite is true in rural areas (16 per 1,000 for males compared with 15 per 1,000 for females). The overall level of malaria in backward districts is 17 per 1,000.

There are more substantial but still rather small differences in prevalence among age groups. The prevalence of malaria is highest for those age 60 and over (20 per 1,000) and lowest for those age 0-14 (12 per 1,000). Since the prevalence of malaria is known to vary considerably by season, the NHFS estimates should not be taken to represent the typical level throughout the year. The fieldwork was conducted during the dry season when malaria rates are expected to be relatively low.

Tuberculosis

The overall prevalence of tuberculosis is 6 per 1,000, with some variation by place of residence and sex. Age differences are marked, with values of 2 per 1,000 for persons age 0-14, 8 per 1,000 for those age 15-59, and 14 per 1,000 for those age 60 and over. In backward districts, the overall prevalence of tuberculosis is higher at 9 per 1,000 than in the country as a whole.

Leprosy

The reported prevalence of leprosy is only 1 per 1,000. The prevalence is more than twice as high among males as among females and is higher among persons age 60 and over than among others.

Physical Impairment of the Limbs

The overall prevalence of persons with physically impaired limbs is 7 per 1,000. Female prevalence is 6 per 1,000 in all residence groups. Males have slightly higher prevalence, 8 per 1,000. There is little difference in prevalence by age under age 60, but those age 60 and over are more than twice as likely to have physically impaired limbs as others.

18. STATUS OF WOMEN

Although there has been some progress in education in recent years, the literacy rate and educational attainment of women age 13-49 is still low, with more than three-quarters of them illiterate. The education of women can play a major role in shaping the attitudes and behaviour of women. Educational attainment is strongly associated with every important variable considered in the NFHS, including age at marriage, fertility behaviour, current use of family planning, demand for family planning, ideal number of children, wanted fertility rate, utilization of antenatal care services, receipt of tetanus toxoid injections and iron and folic acid tablets, delivery in a health facility, delivery by trained attendants, vaccination of children against six serious but preventable diseases, knowledge and ever use of ORS packets, infant and child mortality and the nutritional status of children. The status of women in Bihar is quite low and there is ample evidence of discrimination against women in several respects such as lower female literacy, lower school attendance rate for girls age 6-14, sex ratio unfavourable to women, low level of female employment, relatively low age at marriage, higher female child mortality rates, and lower vaccination rates for female children. Thus programmes to elevate the status of women in Bihar are needed. In particular, increasing the school enrollment and educational levels of girls and young women is important for reducing fertility, increasing family planning use and improving maternal child health.”.

Table 29: Money spent for daughter's marriage

Percent distribution of ever-married women by the amount generally spent for a daughter's marriage (not including dowry) by background characteristics, Bihar, 1993)									
	Money spent on marriage (in rupees)								
Background characteristic	None	<5000	5000 <10000	10000 <14999	15000 <24999	25000 <49999	50000+	Don't know	Total percent
Residence									
Urban	0.2	6.2	9.7	14.1	13.6	15.5	31.7	9.1	100.0
Rural	0.2	11.3	20.1	20.3	13.9	10.5	10.0	13.8	100.0
Backward districts	--	13.2	23.1	20.2	12.6	10.4	9.8	10.7	100.0
Education									
Illiterate	0.1	12.5	21.7	21.3	13.3	9.3	7.1	14.6	100.0
Lit.<mid. Complete	0.4	4.7	9.0	13.8	18.4	18.5	28.3	6.9	100.0
Middle school complete	0.8	2.4	10.0	12.9	17.0	19.0	33.8	4.1	100.0
High school and above	0.2	2.2	3.9	10.1	11.5	17.8	44.1	10.1	100.0
Religion									
Hindu	0.2	11.5	18.7	18.3	12.9	11.3	14.1	12.9	100.0
Muslim	--	5.4	17.1	25.0	18.7	11.3	8.5	14.1	100.0
Other	2.1	12.0	24.7	17.8	12.1	7.9	9.0	14.4	100.0
Caste/tribe									
Scheduled caste	--	22.7	23.4	18.4	8.9	6.1	5.7	14.8	100.0
Scheduled tribe	0.8	18.9	27.3	20.5	7.6	3.5	3.1	18.3	100.0
Other	0.1	8.3	17.1	19.4	15.0	12.6	15.0	12.4	100.0
Total	0.2	10.6	18.6	19.4	13.8	11.2	13.1	13.1	100.0

Source: National Family Health Survey of Bihar, 1998

Table 29 also presents the distribution of ever-married women by the amount spent on the marriage of daughters by background characteristics of the respondents. Residents of urban areas and families of more educated women spend higher amounts on the marriage of daughters than others, and families of scheduled caste and scheduled tribe women spend less on the marriage of daughters than others.

Table 30 presents information on the cash paid as a dowry by background characteristics. A little more than one-tenth of ever-married women (11 percent) said that no cash is generally given as dowry in the daughter's marriage and 12 percent stated that they do not know. Among those who said that cash was given as a dowry, 32 percent gave less than Rs.10,000, 37 percent gave Rs.10,000 to 24,999 and 31 percent gave Rs.25,000 or more.

Urban residents (13 percent) and women with at least a high school education (14 percent) are more likely to state that no dowry is given than rural and less educated women. Among women of other religions and scheduled tribe women, two-thirds reported that no dowry is given. Urban residents (45 percent) and those with at least a high school education (58 percent) are also more likely to report that more than Rs.25,000 in cash is given as dowry in a daughter's marriage.

In addition to cash, it is also customary to present various commodities to a daughter as part of the dowry. Table 20 shows the percentage of ever-married women by the items generally given as dowry to the daughter at the time of marriage. The most common items given are radios or transistors (66 percent), cycles (65 percent) and utensils (64 percent). Twenty-nine percent said that generally in their families furniture such as cots, chairs, sofa sets, dining tables, and cupboards are given to daughters at marriage. Twelve percent said that items such as televisions, VCRs or VCPs are given and 11 percent stated that cars, scooters or motorbikes are given. Less than 50 grams or more of gold are given as dowry. The figures for silver are similar to those for **gold**.

The families in urban areas are more likely to give gold, silver, cars, scooters or motorbikes, televisions, VCRs or VCPs and furniture; and those in rural areas are more likely to give cycles, radios or transistors and utensils. The families of literate women are more likely than others to give expensive items such as gold and silver, cars, scooters or motorbikes, televisions, and VCRs or VCPs. Compared with Hindus, the Muslims are more likely to give less expensive items. Among scheduled caste households, cycles, radios and utensils are the most common items given. Thirty-two percent of women belonging to scheduled tribes report that no items are given as dowry.

Table30: Cash paid as dowry

Percent distribution of ever-married women by the amount of cash generally paid as daughter's dowry by background characteristics, Bihar, 1993									
	Cash paid as dowry (in rupees)								
Background characteristic	No dowry	<5000	5000 <10000	10000 <14999	15000 <24999	25000 <49999	50000+	Don't know	Total percent
Residence									
Urban	13.4	4.5	8.1	9.1	11.8	13.2	32.2	7.7	100.0
Rural	11.0	10.2	16.2	16.8	13.1	9.0	10.6	13.0	100.0
Backward districts	4.1	9.5	18.5	18.4	15.0	12.4	12.8	9.4	100.0
Education									
Illiterate	11.5	11.3	18.1	17.1	13.3	8.1	7.2	13.5	100.0
Lit.<mid. Complete	8.8	2.9	5.9	13.0	13.4	18.4	30.0	7.6	100.0
Middle school complete	10.3	1.1	3.5	15.7	14.2	12.2	38.5	4.4	100.0
High school and above	14.4	3.0	1.7	4.6	8.3	12.3	46.1	9.5	100.0
Religion									
Hindu	9.5	10.0	14.8	15.2	12.9	10.0	15.6	11.9	100.0
Muslim	15.0	6.9	17.3	19.2	14.2	8.3	4.6	14.5	100.0
Other	65.3	2.6	5.2	5.4	3.8	2.9	6.4	8.2	100.0
Caste/tribe									
Scheduled caste	4.5	17.9	23.4	16.9	11.8	6.5	3.4	15.6	100.0
Scheduled tribe	62.7	8.7	7.5	3.5	3.3	1.7	3.3	9.4	100.0
Other	7.1	8.4	14.8	16.7	14.0	10.8	16.0	12.1	100.0
Total	11.4	9.4	15.0	15.6	12.9	9.6	13.7	12.2	100.0

Source: National Family Health Survey of Bihar, 1998

Table 31: Items given as dowry

Percent distribution of ever-married women according to items given at the time of a daughter's marriage by background characteristics, Bihar, 1993													
	Items given as dowry												
Background characteristic	Gold		Silver		Land, house or flat	Car, scooter or bike	TV, VCR or VCP	Furniture	Utensils	Radio or transistor	Cycle	Other	None
	<50g	50g+	<50g	50g+									
Residence													
Urban	52.2	3.5	51.4	3.5	2.1	22.4	27.6	35.1	57.7	49.8	41.7	22.3	7.4
Rural	34.7	4.3	35.6	4.5	0.4	8.8	9.1	27.5	65.6	68.9	68.4	45.9	4.0
Backward districtss	43.5	4.0	45.7	4.9	1.1	5.7	8.4	22.6	72.6	69.1	69.6	41.2	1.0
Education													
Illiterate	32.7	3.9	34.0	4.2	0.4	5.7	5.9	25.6	65.1	70.4	70.9	45.8	4.4
Lit.<mid. Complete	55.1	4.7	55.1	4.3	1.1	23.5	28.3	39.8	68.4	56.6	48.5	36.8	1.8
Middle school complete	55.1	5.1	51.2	3.7	0.2	27.5	32.3	37.6	61.7	55.7	46.5	35.0	2.6
High school and above	51.8	6.0	48.5	5.9	3.2	36.6	40.0	39.8	54.1	41.8	30.2	20.3	10.3
Religion													
Hindu	36.9	4.1	37.6	4.1	0.7	11.6	12.7	29.0	65.8	65.7	63.5	41.6	4.2
Muslim	41.4	5.1	41.0	5.6	0.7	7.1	7.7	28.3	60.6	72.6	73.5	50.6	2.0
Other	20.8	3.0	25.5	3.0	1.0	5.6	4.5	11.4	33.9	31.3	32.8	11.0	42.7
Caste/tribe													
Scheduled caste	20.1	2.7	21.7	3.6	0.3	7.2	6.5	24.4	67.9	72.4	73.7	48.4	1.3
Scheduled tribe	9.5	0.9	12.7	1.2	--	3.0	1.4	13.6	49.8	48.7	50.6	20.7	32.0
Other	42.1	4.7	42.4	4.7	0.8	12.0	13.5	30.6	65.5	67.1	64.8	43.9	2.2
Total	37.3	4.2	37.9	4.4	0.7	10.8	11.8	28.6	64.4	66.2	64.5	42.5	4.5
NOTE: Total percent will not add to 100.0 due to multiple response.													
-- Less than 0.05 percent													

Source: National Family Health Survey of Bihar, 1998

Table 32: Place of delivery

Percent distribution of live births during the four years preceding the survey by place of delivery, according to selected background characteristics, Bihar, 1993								
Background characteristic	Place of delivery							
	Health facility/institution		Home		Other	Don't know/missing	Total percent	Number of live births ¹
	Public	Private	Own home	Parents' home				
Mother's age at birth								
< 20	5.3	4.6	69.1	19.6	0.7	0.7	100.0	760
20 – 34	6.3	7.2	76.4	9.6	0.4	0.2	100.0	2556
35+	2.6	2.1	93.6	1.2	0.4	--	100.0	245
Birth order								
1	8.9	10.3	61.1	18.7	0.6	0.4	100.0	842
2 – 3	7.0	7.1	72.9	12.2	0.5	0.3	100.0	1316
4 – 5	3.3	3.2	85.6	7.3	0.5	0.1	100.0	860
6+	2.3	3.1	91.6	2.8	0.1	0.1	100.0	544
Residence								
Urban	18.1	23.3	49.6	8.0	0.5	0.4	100.0	470
Rural	4.0	3.7	80.0	11.6	0.5	0.2	100.0	3092
Backward districtss	5.8	2.7	75.5	15.3	0.4	0.3	100.0	540
Education								
Illiterate	2.6	2.1	84.0	10.7	0.4	0.2	100.0	2822
Lit.<mid. Complete	15.6	12.2	58.2	13.3	0.4	0.3	100.0	359
Middle school complete	18.0	19.3	49.3	11.8	1.5	-	100.0	98
High school and above	21.3	36.2	28.0	12.9	0.8	0.8	100.0	283
Religion								
Hindu	6.6	7.1	74.1	11.4	0.5	0.3	100.0	2792
Muslim	2.7	3.1	83.5	10.2	0.3	0.2	100.0	703
Other	7.7	7.7	76.9	7.7	--	--	100.0	68
Caste/tribe								
Scheduled caste	4.1	3.3	77.1	14.4	0.1	0.1	100.0	357
Scheduled tribe	2.5	1.4	83.2	12.9	--	--	100.0	272
Other	6.4	7.1	75.2	10.6	0.5	0.2	100.0	2934
Antenatal care visits								
None	1.8	1.4	84.9	11.2	0.3	0.4	100.0	2227
1 – 3 visits	9.8	9.5	68.0	11.9	0.7	0.1	100.0	1035
4+ visits	22.7	32.9	36.5	7.2	0.8	--	100.0	290
Total	5.8	6.3	76.0	11.1	0.5	0.2	100.0	3562
~~Less than 0.05 percent								
¹ Births in the period 1-47 months prior to the survey. Total includes 19 births for whom the information about antenatal care visits is missing, which are not shown separately.								

Source: National Family Health Survey of Bihar, 1998

BIHAR: A PROFILE ON HEALTH

Source: Government Data

1. General Information

Bihar is in North India and shares common borders with Nepal to the North, West Bengal to the east, Orissa in the South-east, Madhya Pradesh in the South-west and Uttar Pradesh to the West. It has an area of 173,877 km² and a population of 86,374,465 (1991 census). The official language of the State is Hindi although there are many Urdu and Bengali speakers. Besides, these three well-known Indian languages, a host of Adivasi languages are spoken. Bihar recognises 30 scheduled tribes and 9 primitive tribes.

2. Three areas of Bihar

Geopolitically, Bihar divides into three distinct areas. The Northern part of the state is extremely poor and depends mainly on agriculture. It has feudal characteristics with bonded labour as a feature. Child bonded labour is prevalent in the carpet industry of Northern Bihar. This area is also prone to rapid onset monsoon flooding.

Bihar's central belt is dominated by the state capital, with Patna located on the south bank of the Ganges. The central belt benefits from fertile land, the river, the concentration of administrative power and the revenue from Bihar's mineral resources.

The southern part of Bihar, known to many as Jharkhand is an area rich in both mineral and forest resources. It is the home of almost all of Bihar's Adivasi people. Through rapid industrialisation, the vast mineral wealth of the area flows out of the state capital, to central government and out of India via multinational corporations. The extreme poverty of the Adivasi people is a distinct feature of this area

Bihar and its interesting figures

3. Bihar is the 2nd most populous state in India
 - 2 out of three children are underweight in Bihar
 - Only one out of 2 habitations in Bihar has primary school
 - Every third person in the state lives below the poverty line
 - With an excise duty collection of Rs.1832 crores and income tax collection of 1449 crores in 1995-96, Bihar is the second biggest tax payer in the country (Ministry of Finance/UNIIT/Augusts 18, 1995)

2. On an average, every 3 minutes, two children under five die in Bihar, mostly of preventable causes resulting in a daily death toll 977 children and annual death toll 3,56,485 children (Census).
(Yet, in 1994, only one out of 3 children were fully immunized, NHFS)
 - Only 3 children out of four enroll in school.
 - On an average, everyday three rape cases are reported in Bihar.
3. More than 4 million (40 lakhs) women are 'missing' in Bihar. With a sex ratio of 911, Bihar has 45,202,091 men,, but only 41,172,374 women (census).
 - Every 4th person in Bihar is a dalit (Based on census figures).
 - The National Family Health survey (92-93) estimates the total fertility rate (the average of number of children women will bear during their life time at the rate of current child bearing) of Bihar to be 4. The desired number of children 3.2
 - On an average, every 4 hours, a kidnapping is reported in Bihar (HT/UNIT, Aug. 9,, 1996 quoting and official report of the 64,085 cognisable offences reported between Jan. and June 1996).
4. Every 5 minutes, 5 children are born in Bihar.
5. Only one out of 7 births in rural Bihar is attended by trained health personnel (NHFS).
 - Only 7% of births in rural areas are institutional deliveries (NHFS)
 - 7 out of ten malnourished children belong to Bihar
 - 7 out of ten children in the age group of 10-14 years in Bihar have not completed their primary school.
 - Bihar produces 7 percent of the food grains produced in the country.
6. Out of 10 girls in the age group of 10-14 years in Bihar have not completed their primary school.
 - Every 8th illiterate woman in India lives in Bihar.
7. More than 9 percent of rural habitations in Bihar do not have even a single source for drinking water.
8. With a population of more than 96 million (8.6 crores) every 10th Indian is from Bihar crude death rate of Bihar is little less than 10 (9.6)
 - There are 10 universities and 10 medical colleges in Bihar but only 7 nursing schools.
9. The crude death rate of rural Bihar is 11. Three states in India have a higher crude death rate (rural). These are Madhya Pradesh (13.9), Orissa (13.1) and U.P (12.2)
 - Less than 11 percent (10.7) children in the age group 12 months to 24 months in Bihar were found fully immunised by the National Family Health Survey.
 - With 470 maternal deaths per 100,000 births, Bihar ranks 11th among the 16 major states. The states which have a higher maternal mortality rate are Assam (544), Rajasthan (550), U.P.(624), M.P.(711) and Orissa (738). Kerala has the lowest maternal mortality rate 87 deaths per 100,000 live births.
 - Every 13th person in Bihar belongs to a scheduled tribe.

- Only 13 percent of people in Bihar live in towns and cities as against the national average of 25 percent.
 - The Central Social Welfare Board supports just 13 institutions to run 50 creches for children of working and ailing mothers and spent just Rs.10 lakh in the state. In Maharashtra, the Board supports 256 institutions to run 1024 creches at the cost of 152 lakhs. In Andhra Pradesh, 420 institutions run 1018 creches at the cost of Rs.148 lakh.
10. Nearly 14 percent of Bihar rural habitations have only been partially covered by sources of drinking water.
- There are more than 14 thousand households in Bihar living in 67,503 villages.
11. Every 15th infant born in Bihar dies before his or her first birthdays (IMR66)
- Among the 15 major states of India, Bihar with a total fertility rate ranks 15th. Only U.P. has a higher fertility rate 5.2. The Indian average is 3.6 while Kerala has the lowest fertility rate 1.7.
12. Bihar ranks 16th among 16 major states of India, with 62 percent of girls in the age group of 6-14 not attending school in India.
13. Girls in Bihar get married by the age of 18 (singular mean age at marriage). Among other states, only MP has a lower age 17.4. Rajasthan 18.4, India 20.
- Only 18 percent of 6-9 months old children receive breast milk and solid/soft foods.
14. Age specific fertility rate of girls who are 19 or less (1519) is 75.5. Only four states have a higher fertility rate for the same age group. Andhra Pradesh (121.5), Madhya Pradesh (119.1), Rajasthan (100.2) and West Bengal (79.9). The average for India is 74.4, for Punjab (19.9) and Kerala (24.1). The marital fertility group for the same age group in Bihar is 190.4.
- All but 19 percent of the people in the state are dependent on Agriculture for their livelihood while the corresponding national figure is 33%.
15. Only 20 percent of primary school teachers in Bihar are women as compared to 67.3 percent in Kerala and 58.5% in Punjab.
- The age specific death rate of boys in the age group of 0-4 is almost 21 (20.9) while that of girls is almost 25 (24.8), according to SRS 91.
16. Every hour of the day, 22 infants (below one year) die in Bihar. One infant in less than three minutes.
- 22 percent of surviving children below five suffer from severe or moderate wasting.
17. Only 23 percent of children in Bihar receive either ORS or a recommended home solution in 92-93. Diarrhoea is a major killer of young children and oral rehydration therapy has been around for the last 25 years. In West Bengal, 75 percent of children with diarrhoea received ORT.
- Less than 23 percent (22.89) women are literate in Bihar. The 1991 figure for men is 52.49. The only state with a lower female literacy rate is Rajasthan 20.44
 - Men in Bihar get married when they are 23 (singular mean age at marriage), five years later than women. Only in Rajasthan and MP, men marry earlier.

- 23 castes have been identified as scheduled castes for constitutional privileges. The most notable among these castes are Bhumij, Chamar, Mochi, Dhobi, Dom, Dusadh, Nat and Past.
18. Bihar is 24th among 24 large states in India in the capability poverty measure (CPM) according to UNDP. CPM is a simple but multidimensional index composed of three indicators that reflect the percentage with capability and capacity in three basic dimensions of human development. The three indicators are:
- i) The percentage of children under five who are underweight
 - ii) The percentage of births unattended by trained health personnel
- If ranked with other developing countries, Bihar will be in the company of Ethiopia, Nigeria, Afghanistan and Bangladesh.
 - Of all the 51 districts in Bihar, only Siwan has more women than men. In Siwan, women outnumber men by 24,000. In all other districts, men exceed women.
19. Bihar has only a total of 25 juvenile/observation/special care homes whereas Maharashtra has 15.2 such homes.

{Source: Indo-German Social Service Society, New Delhi, vide letter to CHC from Ms. Bisht, 11/8/98}

castes and scheduled tribes, constituted 14.6 and 7.7 percent of the population of Bihar compared with 16.7 and 8.0 percent of India, respectively.

*Check the
is wrong?* Bihar is known as one of the most educationally backward states in India. The literacy rate among the population are higher than the all-India crude birth rate of 29.2 and crude death rate of 10.1 as estimated by the Sample Registration System (SRS) in 1992. The total fertility rate of 4.4 children per woman in Bihar is also higher than the all-India fertility rate of 3.6 children per woman in 1991. The annual exponential growth rate for Bihar was 2.11 percent compared with 2.14 percent for the country during 1981-1991.

Table 1.1 also indicates that the infant mortality rate is lower in the state than in the country. The infant mortality rate estimated by the SRS was 73 per 1,000 live births in Bihar compared to 79 in India for the year 1992. The life expectancy for males in the state (58.2 years) and the country (58.1 years) are the same, whereas for females it is lower in the state (57.0 years) than in the country (59.1 years). The couple protection rate (defined as the percentage of eligible couples effectively protected against pregnancy) was 25 percent in Bihar compared with 44 percent in India for the year 1992.

Major demographic trends in the state are displayed in Table 1.2. The total population of the state was 56.4 million in 1971, 69.9 million in 1981 and 86.4 million in 1991. As such, there was an addition of 30 million persons during the last twenty years. The decadal growth rate increased from 21.3 percent for the period 1961-71 to 24.1 percent for 1971-81 and then declined slightly to 23.5 percent during 1981-91. The density of population (per sq. km.) rose from 324 in 1971 to 405 in 1981 and 497 in 1991, indicating rising pressure of population on the land.

*7.8
pl 2.911* The percentage of urban population in Bihar increased from 10 percent in 1971 to 12.5 percent in 1981 and finally to 13.1 percent in 1991. The ^{gender} sex ratio declined from 954 in 1971 to 946 in 1981 and 991 in 1991. The percentage of the population age 0-14 declined by only 2 percentage points from 1971 to 1991 and the population age 65 years and above increased by less than 1 percentage point during the same period. The percentage of the population belonging to scheduled castes increased from 14.1 in 1971 to 14.6 in 1991, whereas the percentage belonging to scheduled tribes decreased from 8.8 to 7.7 percent during the same period.

Bdd Although the level of literacy during the period 1971-91 has increased, the literacy rate of females in Bihar is still very low. The percentage of males age 5 years and above who are literate increased by 7.5 percentage points compared with a 4.9 percentage point increase in female literacy during 1971-81, and increased 14.4 percentage points compared with 9.3 for females during 1981-91. According to the 1991 census, the literacy rate for males age 7 and above (53 percent) is more than double the literacy rate for females (23 percent).

The gender ratio has declined greatly during the decade & is below the national level. This calls for intensified efforts to comprehensively improve women's health including their access to care and to address gender inequalities

CHAT Membership in Bihar.

CHA-BI

Given by Mr. Thomas K.
16/1/99

DIOCESE-WISE MEMBERSHIP AS ON 14/01/99

44:18.

DIOCESES	HEALTH CENTRES	HOSPITALS	NURSING SCHOOL	DSSS	ASSOCIATE	TOTAL
PORT BLAIR	3	1	0	0	0	4
BHAGALPUR	26	6	0	1	3	36
DALTONGANJ	16	3	0	3	0	22
DUMKA	22	0	0	2	0	24
JAMSHEDPUR	10	2	1	1	1	15
MUZAFFARPUR	21	1	0	1	0	23
PATNA	24	5	0	1	4	34
GUMLA	21	4	0	1	1	27
RANCHI	13	5	0	1	2	21
SINDEGA	17	3	0	0	0	20
KHUNTI	10	2	0	0	0	12
HAZARIBAGH	7	1	0	0	5	13
TOTAL	190	33	1	11	16	251

STATE-WISE MEMBERSHIP AS ON 14/01/99

STATE	HEALTH CENTRE	HOSPITALS	NURSING SCHOOL	DSSS	ASSOCIATE	TOTAL
ANDAMANS	3	1	0	0	0	4
ANDHRA PRADESH	168	87	3	15	28	301
ARUNACHAL PRADESH	1	0	0	1	0	2
ASSAM	57	5	0	4	9	75
BIHAR	187	32	1	11	16	247
DAMAN-DIU	1	0	0	0	0	1
GOA	18	8	0	0	6	32
GUJARAT	58	9	0	1	4	72
HARYANA	10	2	0	0	1	13
HIMACHAL PRADESH	3	1	0	0	0	4
JAMMU & KASHMIR	9	1	0	1	0	11
KARNATAKA	125	44	0	11	54	234
KERALA	146	204	13	28	73	464
MADHYA PRADESH	218	37	0	10	17	282
MAHARASHTRA	82	30	1	8	30	151
MANIPUR	19	2	0	1	1	23
MEGHALAYA	48	3	1	1	0	53
MIZORAM	4	0	0	0	0	4
NAGALAND	20	1	0	2	0	23
NAGAR HAVELI	3	0	0	0	0	3
NEW DELHI	8	2	0	1	8	19
ORISSA	94	10	0	4	4	112
PONDICHERRY	0	1	0	1	2	4
PUNJAB	20	5	0	1	1	27
RAJASTHAN	19	15	1	2	1	38
SIKKIM	1	0	0	0	0	1
TAMIL NADU	276	102	1	16	24	419
TRIPURA	7	1	0	1	0	9
UTTAR PRADESH	96	36	2	8	15	157
WEST BENGAL	64	14	0	6	8	92
TOTAL	1765	653	23	134	302	2877

BR-322
DIOCESAN HEALTH SERVICE HAZARIBAG
CATHOLIC ASHRAM
HAZARIBAG P.O & DIST
BIHAR-825 301
(DIOCESE: HAZARIBAGH)

AN-101
PILAR HEALTH CENTRE
ASHA NIKETAN
LABSA LINES, JUNGLIGHT P O
PORT BLAIR
ANDAMANS-744 103
(DIOCESE: PORT BLAIR)

AN-102
URSULINE DISPENSARY
URSULINE CONVENT
WIMBERLYGUNJ PO
PORT BLAIR
ANDAMANS-744 206
(DIOCESE: PORT BLAIR)

AN-103
NIRMALA NIKETAN DISPENSARY
SUNDERGARH
PO. ORALKATCHA,
BARATANG
ANDAMANS-744 210
(DIOCESE: PORT BLAIR)

AN-104
DEEN BANDHU DHAM
C/O FRANCISCAN MISSIONARY OF MARY
ADAJIG PO
BARATANG ISLAND DT
ANDAMANS-744 210
(DIOCESE: PORT BLAIR)

ASM-149
PROVINCIAL
SCN PROVINCIAL HOUSE
EAST BORING CANAL ROAD
PO BOX 219, PATNA - 81-
BIHAR-800 001
(DIOCESE: PATNA)

BR-216
ST JOSEPH'S DISPENSARY
C/O ST JOSEPH'S CONVENT
BANKIPUR P O
PATNA DISTRICT
BIHAR-800 004
(DIOCESE: PATNA)

BR-215
TRIPOLIA HOSPITAL
GULZARBAGH ROAD
GULZARBAGH P O
PATNA DISTRICT
BIHAR-800 007
(DIOCESE: PATNA)

BR-205
NISHKALANKA HEALTH CENTRE
MATA SAHAYAKA SADAN
PADRI-KI-HAVELI
PATNA CITY
BIHAR-800 008
(DIOCESE: PATNA)

BR-213
KURJI HOLY FAMILY HOSPITAL
SADAQUAT ASHRAM P O
PATNA DISTRICT
BIHAR-800 010
(DIOCESE: PATNA)

BR-006
BIHAR WATER DEVELOPMENT SOCIETY
SEWA KENDRA
P.O. SADAQUAT ASHRAM
PATNA
BIHAR-800 010
(DIOCESE: PATNA)

BR-192
ASHA DEEP
MEDICAL MISSION SISTERS
C/O. KURJI HOLY FAMILY HOSPITAL
PATNA
BIHAR-800 010
(DIOCESE: MUZAFFARPUR)

BR-227
DAYA SAGAR HEALTH CENTRE, SHERPUR
C/O. SACRED HEART CONVENT
SADAQUAT ASHRAM P.O.
PATNA
BIHAR-800 010
(DIOCESE: PATNA)

ASM-250
SUPERIOR GENERAL
SISTERS OF THE SACRED HEART
SACRED HEART CONVENT
PATNA, SADAQUAT ASHRAM PO
BIHAR-800 010
(DIOCESE: PATNA)

BR-206
DISPENSARY
C/O XAVIER'S TEACHER TRAINING INSTITUTE
P O DIGHA GHAT
PATNA DISTRICT
BIHAR-800 011

ASM-080
PROVINCIAL SUPERIOR
PROVINCIAL RESIDENCE, HOLY CROSS CONVENT
FAIRFIELD COLONY
DIGHAHAT P.O., PATNA
BIHAR-800 011

(DIOCESE: PATNA)

(DIOCESE: PATNA)

ASM-198
PROVINCIAL SUPERIOR
NOTRE DAME PROVINCIALATE
PATLIPUTRA
PATNA
BIHAR-800 013
(DIOCESE: PATNA)

BR-226
ST JOSEPH'S DISPENSARY
C/O CATHOLIC CHURCH
P O BUXAR
BHOJPUR DISTRICT
BIHAR-802 101
(DIOCESE: PATNA)

BR-222
VIMALA HEALTH CENTRE
ITARHI P O
BHOJPUR DISTRICT
BIHAR-802 123
(DIOCESE: PATNA)

BR-219
MARY WARD HEALTH CENTRE
PURANA BHOJPUR P O
BHOJPUR DISTRICT
BIHAR-802 133
(DIOCESE: PATNA)

BR-300
ST XAVIER'S DISPENSARY
WARD NO. 12
JAGDISHPUR
BHOJPUR
BIHAR-802 158
(DIOCESE: PATNA)

BR-211
MISEREOR HOSPITAL
SHAHPUR PATTI
BHOJPUR DISTRICT
BIHAR-802 165
(DIOCESE: PATNA)

BR-299
PUSHPA HEALTH CENTRE
PIRO PO
BHOJPUR DIST
BIHAR-802 207
(DIOCESE: PATNA)

BR-224
ST URSULA HEALTH CENTRE
C/O. CATHOLIC HIGH SCHOOL
ARA P.O.,
BHOJPUR DIST
BIHAR-802 301
(DIOCESE: PATNA)

BR-318
CHETANALAYA HEALTH CENTRE
BLOCK MORH
RAJGIR PO
NALANDA DT
BIHAR-803 116
(DIOCESE: PATNA)

BR-210
COMMUNITY HEALTH CENTRE
BHAKTIARPUR P O
PATNA DISTRICT
BIHAR-803 212
(DIOCESE: PATNA)

BR-324
NAVJEEVAN HEALTH CENTRE
CATHOLIC CHURCH
BAKHITARPUR PO
PATNA DIST
BIHAR-803 212
(DIOCESE: PATNA)

BR-220
ST JOSEPH'S DISPENSARY
C/O CATHOLIC CHURCH
P O BARH
PATNA DISTRICT
BIHAR-803 213
(DIOCESE: PATNA)

BR-209
NAZARETH HOSPITAL
MOKAMA P.O.
PATNA DISTRICT
BIHAR-803 302
(DIOCESE: PATNA)

BR-208
VIMALA DISPENSARY
C/O CATHOLIC CHURCH
MARIAPARA, JEHANABAD P O
GAYA DISTRICT
BIHAR-804 408
(DIOCESE: PATNA)

BR-218
NIRMAL PUBLIC HEALTH SERVICE
NAWADAH P O
NAWADAH DISTRICT
BIHAR-805 110
(DIOCESE: PATNA)

BR-182
ST JOSEPH'S HEALTH CENTRE
VARDHAMAN NAGAR
P O MARWA, VIA NAWADAH
GAYA DISTRICT
BIHAR-805 211
(DIOCESE: PATNA)

(DIOCESE: PATNA)

BR-217
SACRED HEART DISPENSARY
P O BARBIGHA
MUNGER DISTRICT
BIHAR-811 101
(DIOCESE: PATNA)

BR-214
SHEETHAL SWASTHYA KENDRA
MARIA ASHRAM DISPENSARY
SHEIKHPURA P O
MUNGER DISTRICT
BIHAR-811 105
(DIOCESE: PATNA)

BR-223
KRIST RAJA HEALTH CENTRE
VIJAYNAGAR
BARIARPUR
MUNGER DIST
BIHAR-811 211
(DIOCESE: PATNA)

BR-207
NOTRE DAME DISPENSARY
ALBERT ROAD
MUNGER P O
MONGHYR DISTRICT
BIHAR-811 214
(DIOCESE: PATNA)

BR-104
SACRED HEART HOSPITAL
CHAKAI PO
MONGHYR DT
BIHAR-811 303
(DIOCESE: BHAGALPUR)

BR-112
NAZARETH HEALTH CENTRE
SOKHO VILLAGE
P.O. GARHI
JAMUI DIST
BIHAR-811 307
(DIOCESE: BHAGALPUR)

BR-113
ST JOSEPH'S DISPENSARY
JHAJA PO
MONGHYR DT
BIHAR-811 308
(DIOCESE: BHAGALPUR)

BR-127
ST MARY'S HEALTH CENTRE
BHALUA P.O.
BANDAH,
MONGHYR DIST
BIHAR-811 308
(DIOCESE: BHAGALPUR)

BR-106
CATHOLIC HOSPITAL
MARIAMPAHARI P.O.
CHARKAPATHAL VIA SONO
MONGHYR DT
BIHAR-811 314
(DIOCESE: BHAGALPUR)

BR-221
PUSHPA SWASTHY KENDRA
SIKANDRA P.O.
MUNGER DISTRICT
BIHAR-811 315
(DIOCESE: PATNA)

BR-001
BHAGALPUR SOCIAL SERVICE CENTRE
CHANCERY OFFICE
PB 61, NAWAB COLONY
BHAGALPUR
BIHAR-812 001
(DIOCESE: BHAGALPUR)

ASM-043
PROVINCIAL SUPERIOR
CHF ARUNODAY VICE PROVINCIAL HOUSE
HOLY FAMILY CONVENT
TILKAMANJHI, PO & DT BHAGALPUR
BIHAR-812 001
(DIOCESE: BHAGALPUR)

ASM-114
PROVINCIAL
FRANCISCAN ASHRAM
13 MAHATMA GANDHI PATH
BHAGALPUR
BIHAR-812 001
(DIOCESE: BHAGALPUR)

ASM-292
PROVINCIAL
CONGREGATION OF TERESIAN CARMELITES
AVILA BHAVAN, 1 T.N. SINGH ROAD
COURT AREA, BHAGALPUR
BIHAR-812 001
(DIOCESE: BHAGALPUR)

BR-118
HOLY FAMILY HEALTH CENTRE
THILAKAMANJHI
PO THILAKAMANJHI
BHAGALPUR DT

BR-102
ST CAMMILLUS HEALTH CENTRE
HARIMOHRA
P.O. SUKHIA BARHAIT
BANKA DIST

(DIOCESE: BHAGALPUR)

(DIOCESE: BHAGALPUR)

BR-116
ST JUDE'S DISPENSARY
DUMARIA
PO CHUVAPANI
VIA BOUNSI, BHAGALPUR
BIHAR-813 104
(DIOCESE: BHAGALPUR)

BR-111
FR ROBERT H MEMORIAL HEALTH CENTRE
BHAIROGANJ PO
VIA KATORIA
BHAGALPUR DT
BIHAR-813 106
(DIOCESE: BHAGALPUR)

BR-108
MERCY HEALTH CENTRE
C/O CATHOLIC CHURCH
BASMATA PO
VIA BELHAR BHAGALPUR DT
BIHAR-813 202
(DIOCESE: BHAGALPUR)

BR-130
ST ELIZABETH'S DISPENSARY
MIRZACHOWKI PO
VIA GOKHLA
BHAGALPUR DT
BIHAR-813 208
(DIOCESE: BHAGALPUR)

BR-132
ST THERESA'S DISPENSARY
BACCHA VILLAGE
SIRIPUR PO
VIA MIRZACHOWKI, SAHIBGANJ DT
BIHAR-813 208
(DIOCESE: BHAGALPUR)

BR-105
ST JOSEPH'S DISPENSARY
LEELA PO MANDRO
VIA MIRZACHOWKI
SAHIBGANJ DT
BIHAR-813 208
(DIOCESE: BHAGALPUR)

BR-110
URBAN DISPENSARY
MANGRA
BOARIJORE PO
SANTAL PARGANAS
BIHAR-813 230
(DIOCESE: BHAGALPUR)

BR-171
ST JOSEPH'S DISPENSARY
GUHIAJORI P.O.
DUMKA - DIST
BIHAR-814 101
(DIOCESE: DUMKA)

BR-159
DISPENSARY
C/O SISTERS OF CHARITY
DUDHANI MISSION,
DUMKA PO & DIST
BIHAR-814 101
(DIOCESE: DUMKA)

BR-003
SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT CENTRE
DHUDANI
DHUMKA PO & DIST
BIHAR-814 101
(DIOCESE: DUMKA)

BR-311
ASHA SADAN
KANJWE
BATTORIA
DUMKA
BIHAR-814 102
(DIOCESE: DUMKA)

BR-169
FATIMA DISPENSARY
JIAPANI
AMARAPARA P.O.
SAHIBGANJ DIST
BIHAR-814 111
(DIOCESE: DUMKA)

BR-123
ST VINCENT DE PAUL DISPENSARY
C/O. HOLY FAMILY CONVENT
CHARKAPATHAR P.O.
VIA B DEOGRAH, BHAGALPUR DIST
BIHAR-814 114
(DIOCESE: BHAGALPUR)

BR-115
KRIST RAJA HEALTH CENTRE
GODDA PO
GODDA DIST
BIHAR-814 133
(DIOCESE: BHAGALPUR)

BR-124
GOGO MARIA HEALTH CENTRE
C/O ST FRANCIS SCHOOL
KATIBARI, HARIARI PO
GODDA DIST
BIHAR-814 122

BR-126
HOLY CROSS DISPENSARY
PO: CHANDANAHAT
VIA: SUNDERPAHADY
DIST: GODDA
BIHAR-814 122

(DIOCESE: BHAGALPUR)

(DIOCESE: BHAGALPUR)

BR-117
ST FRANCIS HEALTH CENTRE
JASIDIH PO
B DEOGHAR DT
BIHAR-814 142
(DIOCESE: BHAGALPUR)

BR-306
NAVJIVAN HEALTH CENTRE
C/O PRESENTATION SISTERS
SULTANA TIKKAR PO,
VIA NUNIHAT, DUMKA
BIHAR-814 145
(DIOCESE: DUMKA)

BR-101
ST ALPHONSA'S HD HOSPITAL
BAROMASIA PO
VIA PATHARGAMA
SANTALPARGANAS DT
BIHAR-814 147
(DIOCESE: BHAGALPUR)

BR-131
MERCY HOSPITAL
POREYAHAT PO
SANTAL PARGANAS DT
BIHAR-814 153
(DIOCESE: BHAGALPUR)

BR-119
FR JACOB'S MEMORIAL DISPENSARY
VIA POREYAHAT, DAMRUHAT P.O.
GODDA DT
BIHAR-814 153
(DIOCESE: BHAGALPUR)

BR-120
ST JOSEPH'S HEALTH CENTRE
PO DEODAND AGIAMUR
GODDA DT
BIHAR-814 153
(DIOCESE: BHAGALPUR)

BR-128
ST LUKE'S DISPENSARY
DAKAITA LALMATIA PO
VIA MAHAGAMA
SANTHAL PARGANAS DT
BIHAR-814 154
(DIOCESE: BHAGALPUR)

BR-109
ST THOMAS DISPENSARY
SUNDERMUR
SARONI BAZAR PO
GODDA - DIST
BIHAR-814 156
(DIOCESE: BHAGALPUR)

BR-295
G D BAGARIA MATRI SEVA SADAN
BORO, PECHAMBA PO
GIRIDIH DT.
BIHAR-815 301
(DIOCESE: BHAGALPUR)

BR-122
MARIA HEALTH CENTRE
CHORIMAHVA
P.O. GANDEY
DIST: GIRIDIH
BIHAR-815 312
(DIOCESE: BHAGALPUR)

BR-129
HOLY CROSS HOSPITAL
BELATANR
GHORANJI PO
GIRIDIH DIST
BIHAR-815 314
(DIOCESE: BHAGALPUR)

BR-103
HOLY CROSS DISPENSARY
TILKI MORON
CHANDAURI P.O., VIA TISRI
GIRIDIH DISTRICT
BIHAR-815 314
(DIOCESE: BHAGALPUR)

BR-121
MERCY HEALTH CENTRE
KATKOKO P.O.
VIA TISRI
GIRIDIH DIST
BIHAR-815 317
(DIOCESE: BHAGALPUR)

BR-168
NIRMALA HEALTH CENTRE
JAMTARA PO
DUMKA DIST
BIHAR-815 351
(DIOCESE: DUMKA)

BR-161
LITTLE FLOWER DISPENSARY
CARMEL CONVENT
MADHUPUR P O
DEOGARH DIST
BIHAR-815 352

BR-160
HOLY CROSS DISPENSARY
SITAPAHAR, P O PATHANA
VIA BARHARWA
SAHIBGANJ
BIHAR-815 353

(DIOCESE: DUMKA)

(DIOCESE: DUMKA)

BR-162
COMMUNITY HEALTH CENTRE
KUNDLI
PANCHKATHIA P O
SAHIBGUNJ DISTRICT
BIHAR-816 102
(DIOCESE: DUMKA)

BR-164
JISU JAHER DISPENSARY
SOHORGHATTI
PADERKOLHA P O, VIA HIRANPUR
SAHIBGANJ DIST
BIHAR-816 104
(DIOCESE: DUMKA)

BR-011
PAHARIA SAMAJ SEVA KENDRA
SATIA VILLAGE
LITTIPARA PO
PAKUR DT
BIHAR-816 104
(DIOCESE: DUMKA)

BR-167
CARMEL HEALTH CENTRE
HATHIMARA,
MAHESHPUR RAJ PO
SAHIBGUNJ DIST
BIHAR-816 106
(DIOCESE: DUMKA)

BR-156
ST XAVIER'S OUTDOOR DISPENSARY
SAHIBGANJ P O
SAHIBGANJ DIST
BIHAR-816 109
(DIOCESE: DUMKA)

BR-310
ST RITA'S CONVENT DISPENSARY
SHIKARIPARA PO
SANTAL PARGANAS TQ
DUMKA DT
BIHAR-816 118
(DIOCESE: DUMKA)

BR-212
NAVJEEVAN DISPENSARY
SASSARAM P.O.
NEW AREA (GAYATRI NAGAR)
ROHTAS DISTRICT
BIHAR-821 115
(DIOCESE: PATNA)

BR-007
SARWANGIN GRAM VIKAS KENDRA
SHIVAJI MAIDAN AREA
DALTONGANJ PO
PALAMAU DIST
BIHAR-822 101
(DIOCESE: DALTONGANJ)

BR-009
SANJEEVNI SEVA KENDRA
C/O BISHOP'S HOUSE
DALTONGANJ
PALAMAU DT
BIHAR-822 101
(DIOCESE: DALTONGANJ)

BR-137
DEEPTI HEALTH CENTRE
VIA RAJCHAINPUR
NOADIH PO
PALAMAU DT, DALTONGANJ
BIHAR-822 110
(DIOCESE: DALTONGANJ)

BR-150
DHORI MATA HEALTH CENTRE
MORWAIKALA P.O.
PALAMAU DIST
BIHAR-822 111
(DIOCESE: DALTONGANJ)

BR-140
ST PAUL'S DISPENSARY
GARHWA PO & DISTRICT
GARHWA TOWN
BIHAR-822 114
(DIOCESE: DALTONGANJ)

BR-143
CARMEL HOSPITAL
MAHUADANR
PALAMAU DISTRICT
BIHAR-822 119
(DIOCESE: DALTONGANJ)

BR-141
NAZARETH HEALTH CENTRE
C/O NAZARETH NILAYA
DURUP PO, MAHUADANR
PALAMAU DIST
BIHAR-822 119
(DIOCESE: DALTONGANJ)

BR-154
FR HARRISON HEALTH CENTRE
ORSA-AMBAKONA P.O.
CHIROPAT
PALAMAU DIST
BIHAR-822 119

BR-148
HOLY CROSS HEALTH CENTRE
NAYAKHAR
PO NAGARUNTARI
PALAMAU - DT
BIHAR-822 119

(DIOCESE: DALTONGANJ)

BR-135
ST AGATHA DISPENSARY
KANJIA PO
VIA GARWHA
PALAMAU DT
BIHAR-822 125
(DIOCESE: DALTONGANJ)

BR-133
VIJAYA NIKETAN HEALTH CENTRE
VIJAYA NIKETAN
CHIANKI P O
PALAMAU DISTRICT
BIHAR-822 133
(DIOCESE: DALTONGANJ)

BR-301
JEEVAN JYOTI HEALTH CENTRE
C/O ST IGNATIUS SCHOOL SAMPURNA
VIKAS SAMITI GAYATRINAGAR
AURANGABAD PO & DT
BIHAR-824 101
(DIOCESE: PATNA)

BR-146
HOLY CROSS DISPENSARY
SITARGARHA P O
HAZARIBAGH DISTRICT
BIHAR-825 301
(DIOCESE: HAZARIBAGH)

ASM-083
PROVINCIAL SUPERIOR
HOLY CROSS INSTITUTE
PB NO 59
HAZARIBAGH
BIHAR-825 301
(DIOCESE: HAZARIBAGH)

ASM-132
MEDICAL CO-ORDINATOR
C/O. HOLY CROSS INSTITUTE
HAZARIBAGH P.O. & DIST
BIHAR-825 301
(DIOCESE: HAZARIBAGH)

BR-151
DAYA RANI DISPENSARY
DUDHMO VILL,
KONAR DAM PO
BOKARO
BIHAR-825 315
(DIOCESE: DALTONGANJ)

BR-297
SANTHAL SWASTHYA SEWA
SAMAJ DISPENSARY
PO CHARHI
HAZARIBAGH DT
BIHAR-825 336

(DIOCESE: DALTONGANJ)

BR-138
KIRAN HEALTH CENTRE
BISHRAMPUR P O
VIA RANKARAJ
PALAMAU DISTRICT
BIHAR-822 125
(DIOCESE: DALTONGANJ)

BR-303
JEEVAN VIHAR
C/O ST THOMAS CHURCH
KATARI, HILL ROAD
BODH GAYA PO, GAYA DT
BIHAR-823 001
(DIOCESE: PATNA)

BR-114
ST JOSEPH'S DISPENSARY
CHIRKEE
PIRTAND PO
GIRIDIH DT
BIHAR-825 108
(DIOCESE: BHAGALPUR)

ASM-084
REGIONAL SUPERIOR
CARMEL HOUSE
HEARUNGUNJ
HAZARIBAGH PO
BIHAR-825 301
(DIOCESE: HAZARIBAGH)

ASM-019
PROVINCIAL
LOYOLA CENTRE
POST BOX 6
HAZARIBAGH
BIHAR-825 301
(DIOCESE: HAZARIBAGH)

BR-314
HEALTH AND WOMEN DEVELOPMENT CENTRE
KANAHARI HILL ROAD
HAZARIBAGH PO
HAZARIBAGH DIST
BIHAR-825 301
(DIOCESE: HAZARIBAGH)

BR-145
NAZARETH HEALTH CENTRE
MANDAIR VILLAGE, REHAM PO
TANDWA,
CHATRA DIST.
BIHAR-825 321
(DIOCESE: DALTONGANJ)

BR-319
AYURVEDIC JADI BUTI VAIDYA SHALA
C/O CATHOLIC ASHRAM
CHATRA PO
CHATRA DT
BIHAR-825 401

(DIOCESE: HAZARIBAGH)

(DIOCESE: HAZARIBAGH)

BR-134
HOLY FAMILY HOSPITAL
KODARMA PO
HAZARIBAGH
HAZARIBAGH DISTRICT
BIHAR-825 410
(DIOCESE: HAZARIBAGH)

BR-178
DAMIAN SOCIAL WELFARE CENTRE
GANDHI BHAVAN, POLYTECHNIC ROAD
POST BOX NO. 47,
DHANBAD DIST
BIHAR-826 004
(DIOCESE: JAMSHEDPUR)

BR-147
ST XAVIER'S DISPENSARY
C/O ST XAVIER'S SCHOOL
BOKARO STEEL CITY PO
DHANBAD DT
BIHAR-827 001
(DIOCESE: DALTONGANJ)

BR-315
HOLY CROSS MAHILA VIKAS KENDRA
BOKARO STEEL CITY
BOKARO
BIHAR-827 010
(DIOCESE: HAZARIBAGH)

BR-298
MARIA SADAN DISPENSARY
GADI TUNDI
TUNDI PO, RATHANPUR TQ
DHANBAD DIST
BIHAR-828 142
(DIOCESE: JAMSHEDPUR)

BR-152
ASHA SEVA KENDRA
I E P O GOMIA
BOKARO DIST
BIHAR-829 112
(DIOCESE: DALTONGANJ)

BR-142
DHORI MATHA SAMARITAN SEVA KENDRA
JARANDIH P.O.
GIRIDIH DIST
BIHAR-829 113
(DIOCESE: DALTONGANJ)

BR-144
ASSISSI BHAVAN HEALTH CENTRE
RAMGARH CANTT.
HAZARIBAGH DISTRICT
BIHAR-829 122
(DIOCESE: HAZARIBAGH)

ASM-305
SR MERCIA KAKKANATT
ST ANN'S CONVENT
BJ 122 BIJULIA
RAMGARH CANTT, HAZARIBAGH - DT
BIHAR-829 122
(DIOCESE: HAZARIBAGH)

BR-002
CATHOLIC CHARITIES-DALTONGANJ
P.O. CHANDWA
DIST PALAMAU
BIHAR-829 203
(DIOCESE: DALTONGANJ)

BR-153
NIRMALA HEALTH CENTRE
CHANDWA P.O.
PALAMAU DIST
BIHAR-829 203
(DIOCESE: DALTONGANJ)

BR-136
ST LUKE'S DISPENSARY
C/O CATHOLIC ASHRAM
CHIPPADOHAR PO
PALAMAU DT
BIHAR-829 204
(DIOCESE: DALTONGANJ)

BR-139
PREM ASHRAM DISPENSARY
MAYAPUR VILLAGE
BARSENAR P.O.
PALAMAU DIST
BIHAR-829 204
(DIOCESE: DALTONGANJ)

BR-239
SEVA MARG HEALTH CENTRE
MACKLUSHINGANJ
RANCHI DIST
BIHAR-829 205
(DIOCESE: RANCHI)

BR-149
CARMEL DISPENSARY
LATHEHAR P.O.
PALAMAU DIST
BIHAR-829 206

BR-107
NIRMALA DISPENSARY
C/O NIRMALA CONVENT
MAHESHMUNDA PO
GIRIDIH DT
BIHAR-829 001

(DIOCESE: BHAGALPUR)

ASM-252
PROVINCIAL
JAMSHEDPUR JESUIT SOCIETY
LOYOLA HALL, P.B. 153
JAMSHEDPUR
BIHAR-831 001
(DIOCESE: JAMSHEDPUR)

BR-051
JEEVAN JYOTHI SCHOOL OF NURSING
TELCO TOWN
TELCO PO
JAMSHEDPUR, SINGHBHUM DIST
BIHAR-831 004
(DIOCESE: JAMSHEDPUR)

BR-179
MERCY HOSPITAL
BARIDIH P.O.,
JAMSHEDPUR
BIHAR-831 017
(DIOCESE: JAMSHEDPUR)

BR-180
ST JOSEPH'S DISPENSARY
BUNGLOW NO. 9
MOSABONI MINES P O
SINGHBHUM
BIHAR-832 104
(DIOCESE: JAMSHEDPUR)

BR-004
CATHOLIC CHARITIES
PATEL BAGAN
SUNDERNAGAR
JAMSHEDPUR
BIHAR-832 210
(DIOCESE: JAMSHEDPUR)

BR-175
CLAVER SOCIAL WELFARE CENTRE
AMDA P.O.,
SINGHBHUM
BIHAR-833 101
(DIOCESE: JAMSHEDPUR)

BR-183
NIRMALA HEALTH CENTRE
AMDA P.O.
SINGHBHUM DIST
BIHAR-833 101
(DIOCESE: JAMSHEDPUR)

BR-181
ST ANGELA'S HOSPITAL
CHANDMARI ROAD
P.O., CHAKRADHARPUR
SINGHBHUM DIST
BIHAR-833 102
(DIOCESE: JAMSHEDPUR)

BR-323
ST JOHN'S DISPENSARY
TEPASAI PO
SARJOUHATTU
CHAKRADHARPUR VIA, WEST SINGHBUM - DIST.
BIHAR-833 102
(DIOCESE: JAMSHEDPUR)

BR-294
ST ANNE'S CONVENT DISPENSARY
ANANDPUR, RAJ ANANDPUR P O
VIA MANOHARPUR
SINGHBHUM DISTRICT
BIHAR-833 104
(DIOCESE: KHUNTI)

BR-177
ST XAVIERS DISPENSARY
CHAIBASA P.O.,
POST BOX NO. 10
SINGHBHUM DISTRICT
BIHAR-833 201
(DIOCESE: JAMSHEDPUR)

BR-184
SWASTHYA KENDRA
LUPUNGUTU, POST BOX NO 30
CHAIBASA P O
SINGHBHUM DISTRICT
BIHAR-833 201
(DIOCESE: JAMSHEDPUR)

BR-176
ST IGNATIUS HEALTH CENTRE, RENGRA
C/O. ST. XAVIER'S HIGH SCHOOL
LUPUNGUTTU, PB 10,
CHAIBASA
BIHAR-833 201
(DIOCESE: JAMSHEDPUR)

BR-173
ST PAUL'S HEALTH CENTRE
VIA JAGANNATHPUR,
MALUKA P.O.
SINGHBHUM DIST
BIHAR-833 203
(DIOCESE: JAMSHEDPUR)

BR-237
URSULINE DISPENSARY
PURULIA ROAD
PATHALPUDWA P O
RANCHI DISTRICT
BIHAR-834 001

BR-008
CATHOLIC CHARITIES RANCHI
POST BOX NO. 5
PURULIA ROAD
RANCHI
BIHAR-834 001

(DIOCESE: RANCHI)

(DIOCESE: RANCHI)

BR-291
URSULINE HEALTH CENTRE, SUNDIL
C/O. URSULINE CONVENT
PURULIA ROAD
P.B. 3, RANCHI
BIHAR-834 001
(DIOCESE: RANCHI)

ASM-276
PROVINCIAL
MISSIONARY SRS OF QUEEN OF THE APOSTLES
PRERITON KI RANI SADAN
PANCHWATI, RLY COLONY
BIHAR-834 001
(DIOCESE: RANCHI)

BR-263
ST JOSEPH'S SCHOOL DISPENSARY
HESAG,
HATIA P.O.
RANCHI DIST
BIHAR-834 003
(DIOCESE: RANCHI)

ASM-203
PROVINCIAL
URSULINE PROVINCIALATE
KANKE ROAD
273/303, RANCHI DIST
BIHAR-834 008
(DIOCESE: RANCHI)

BR-280
ST VINCENT'S DISPENSARY
C/O CHESHIRE HOME
BARIATU P O
RANCHI DISTRICT
BIHAR-834 009
(DIOCESE: RANCHI)

BR-257
ST ANN'S HEALTH CENTRE
RAJ ULHATU P O
RANCHI DISTRICT
BIHAR-834 010
(DIOCESE: RANCHI)

BR-236
SHANTI RANI HEALTH CENTRE
BARA GHAGHRA
VIA NAMKOM
RANCHI DISTRICT
BIHAR-834 010
(DIOCESE: RANCHI)

BR-269
BHARAT MATA HOSPITAL
CATHOLIC ASHRAM
CHOTA MURI P O
RANCHI DISTRICT
BIHAR-835 101
(DIOCESE: RANCHI)

BR-240
SEVA NILAYA HEALTH CENTRE
MAHILONG P O
ARA - GATE
RANCHI DISTRICT
BIHAR-835 103
(DIOCESE: RANCHI)

BR-296
ST FRANCIS HEALTH CENTRE
C/O. YESU BHAVAN
HESAI P.O.
BHAIYA VILLAGE, TATISILWAI, RANCHI DT
BIHAR-835 103
(DIOCESE: RANCHI)

BR-255
ST VINCENT HEALTH CENTRE
C/O CATHOLIC CHURCH
BANKI P O
GUMLA DISTRICT
BIHAR-835 201
(DIOCESE: SIMDEGA)

BR-270
ST ANNS DISPENSARY
C/O ROMAN CATHOLIC MISSION
KUTUNGIA P.O, THANA KOLEBIRA
GUMLA DISTRICT
BIHAR-835 201
(DIOCESE: SIMDEGA)

BR-286
ST ANNE'S HEALTH CENTRE
LACHRAGARH P.O.
GUMLA DISTRICT
BIHAR-835 201
(DIOCESE: SIMDEGA)

BR-241
ASHA KIRAN HEALTH CENTRE
BUNDU P O
RANCHI DISTRICT
BIHAR-835 204
(DIOCESE: KHUNTI)

BR-249
URSULINE CONVENT CHARITABLE DISPENSARY
TONGO P O
GUMLA DISTRICT
BIHAR-835 206
(DIOCESE: GUMLA)

BR-253
NIRMALA DISPENSARY
C/O ST ANN'S GIRLS HIGH SCHOOL
P O CHAINPUR
GUMLA DISTRICT
BIHAR-835 206

(DIOCESE: GUMLA)

BR-256
ST ANNE'S DISPENSARY
KATKAHI P O
VIA CHAINPUR
GUMLA DISTRICT
BIHAR-835 206
(DIOCESE: GUMLA)

BR-233
ST ANNE DISPENSARY
BHIKHAMPUR P O
GUMLA DISTRICT
BIHAR-835 206
(DIOCESE: GUMLA)

BR-248
ST JOSEPH'S HEALTH CENTRE
DUMBARPATH P.O.
GUMLA DIST
BIHAR-835 206
(DIOCESE: GUMLA)

BR-251
ST CHARLES DISPENSARY
KERENG
CHAINPUR PO
GUMLA DT.
BIHAR-835 206
(DIOCESE: GUMLA)

BR-287
ST GEROSA HEALTH CENTRE
SISTERS OF CHARITY
PARSA, LAWABAR VIA
GUMLA DISTRICT
BIHAR-835 206
(DIOCESE: GUMLA)

BR-304
HEERA BARWAY LIEVENS HEALTH CENTRE
RAMPUR VILLAGE
CHAINPUR PO
GUMLA DISTRICT
BIHAR-835 206
(DIOCESE: GUMLA)

BR-289
URSULINE DISPENSARY & HOSPITAL
GUMLA P O
GUMLA DISTRICT
BIHAR-835 207
(DIOCESE: GUMLA)

BR-273
ST ELIZABETH CHARITABLE DISPENSARY
AMGAON P O
VIA GUMLA
GUMLA DISTRICT
BIHAR-835 207
(DIOCESE: GUMLA)

BR-274
JYOTI NIWAS DISPENSARY
AGARMA P O
GUMLA DISTRICT
BIHAR-835 207
(DIOCESE: GUMLA)

BR-279
SEVA ASHRAM DISPENSARY
KACHABARI
BINGAON P O
RANCHI DISTRICT
BIHAR-835 207
(DIOCESE: KHUNTI)

BR-265
ST ANNE'S HEALTH CENTRE
SOSO P.O.,
GUMLA DISTRICT
BIHAR-835 207
(DIOCESE: GUMLA)

ASM-207
REGIONAL SUPERIOR
ST ANNE'S CONVENT
SISAI ROAD
GUMLA P.O., GUMLA DIST
BIHAR-835 207
(DIOCESE: GUMLA)

BR-010
GRAM UTTHAN KENDRA
COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT CENTRE
CATHOLIC CHARITIES C/O CATHOLIC CHURCH
GUMLA PO & DIST.
BIHAR-835 207
(DIOCESE: GUMLA)

BR-321
NAZARETH HEALTH CENTRE
C/O BISHOP'S HOUSE
GUMLA PO
GUMLA DT
BIHAR-835 207
(DIOCESE: GUMLA)

BR-285
HOLY SPIRIT DISPENSARY
BEMERLA, JOKARI P.O.
SATO VIA
GUMLA DISTRICT
T AR-835 208

BR-235
ST JUDE'S HEALTH CENTRE
NAUDIHA
GHAGHRA P O
GUMLA DISTRICT
BIHAR-835 208

(DIOCESE: GUMLA)

(DIOCESE: GUMLA)

BR-275
URSULINE DISPENSARY
MARANGHADA P O
RANCHI DISTRICT
BIHAR-835 210
(DIOCESE: KHUNTI)

BR-283
URSULINE DISPENSARY
KHUNTI P O
RANCHI DISTRICT
BIHAR-835 210
(DIOCESE: KHUNTI)

BR-259
ST PAUL'S DISPENSARY
GANGUTOLI
KONMERLA P O
GUMLA DISTRICT
BIHAR-835 211
(DIOCESE: SIMDEGA)

BR-260
ST VINCENT'S HOSPITAL
DIVYA NIKETAN
BARWADIH, KOLEBIRA P O
GUMLA DISTRICT
BIHAR-835 211
(DIOCESE: SIMDEGA)

BR-282
ST MONICA'S DISPENSARY
JITUTOLI P O
GUMLA DISTRICT
BIHAR-835 211
(DIOCESE: SIMDEGA)

BR-288
SNEHALAY DISPENSARY
TURBUNGA,
LASEA PO
GUMLA DIST
BIHAR-835 211
(DIOCESE: GUMLA)

BR-317
ST DOMINIC'S DISPENSARY
DALMADI
BASIA TQ, LASIA PO
GUMLA DT
BIHAR-835 211
(DIOCESE: GUMLA)

BR-250
ST JOSEPH'S DISPENSARY
C/O CATHOLIC CHURCH
TAINSER P O, VIA KURDEG
GUMLA DISTRICT
BIHAR-835 212
(DIOCESE: SIMDEGA)

BR-254
ST TERESA'S DISPENSARY
KURDEG P O
GUMLA DISTRICT
BIHAR-835 212
(DIOCESE: SIMDEGA)

BR-284
ST CHARLES DISPENSARY
JANGI, LAWAGAIN P O
KURU,
LOHARDAGA DIST
BIHAR-835 213
(DIOCESE: RANCHI)

BR-244
HOLY FAMILY HOSPITAL
MANDAR P O
RANCHI DISTRICT
BIHAR-835 214
(DIOCESE: RANCHI)

BR-281
ST JOSEPH'S DISPENSARY
KARONDABERA
PALKOT P O
GUMLA DISTRICT
BIHAR-835 220
(DIOCESE: GUMLA)

BR-242
SACRED HEART DISPENSARY
OBIRA PO
SUNDARPUR
GUMLA DISTRICT
BIHAR-835 220
(DIOCESE: GUMLA)

BR-230
OUR LADY OF FATHIMA DISPENSARY
C/O SISTERS OF CHARITY
HULHUNDU P O
RANCHI DISTRICT
BIHAR-835 221
(DIOCESE: RANCHI)

BR-246
BETHANY CONVENT DISPENSARY
McMANDRO
P O RATU
RANCHI DISTRICT
BIHAR-835 222

BR-245
ST ANGELA'S DISPENSARY
RENGARIH P O
VIA SUNDEGA
GUMLA DISTRICT
BIHAR-835 223

(DIOCESE: RANCHI)

BR-247
ST MARTHA'S DISPENSARY
SAMTOLI, GOTRA P O
VIA SIMDEGA
GUMLA DISTRICT
BIHAR-835 223
(DIOCESE: SIMDEGA)

BR-277
ST ANNE'S DISPENSARY
TUMDEGI P O
VIA SIMDEGA
GUMLA DISTRICT
BIHAR-835 223
(DIOCESE: SIMDEGA)

BR-293
ST RAPHEL HEALTH CENTRE
C/O. ST ANN'S CONVENT
BANABIRA PO KULUBIRA
GUMLA DIST
BIHAR-835 223
(DIOCESE: SIMDEGA)

BR-267
SACRED HEART DISPENSARY
ROSHANPUR
SISAI P O
GUMLA DISTRICT
BIHAR-835 225
(DIOCESE: GUMLA)

BR-262
ST ANN'S CATHOLIC DISPENSARY
SAMSERA P O
GUMLA DISTRICT
BIHAR-835 226
(DIOCESE: SIMDEGA)

BR-290
HOLY CROSS HEALTH CENTRE
BHUKUMUNDA
TARGA P.O.
GUMLA DIST
BIHAR-835 226
(DIOCESE: SIMDEGA)

BR-231
ST JOSEPH'S DISPENSARY
KUDA, POKLA P.O.
GUMLA DIST
BIHAR-835 227
(DIOCESE: KHUNTI)

BR-266
ST AGNES DISPENSARY
C/O CATHOLIC CHURCH
TAMRA P O, VIA SIMDEGA
GUMLA DISTRICT
BIHAR-835 228

(DIOCESE: SIMDEGA)

BR-252
ST RAPHAEL'S DISPENSARY
KHANJALOYA
KEONDIH P O
GUMLA DISTRICT
BIHAR-835 223
(DIOCESE: SIMDEGA)

BR-232
HOLY CROSS DISPENSARY
KATUKONA
KONBEGI PO,
GUMLA DIST
BIHAR-835 223
(DIOCESE: SIMDEGA)

BR-308
ST ANTONY'S DISPENSARY
NANESARA, KOCHDEGA
SIMDEGA
GUMLA DIST
BIHAR-835 223
(DIOCESE: SIMDEGA)

BR-278
ST ANNE DISPENSARY
VIJAIGIRI P.O.
RANCHI DISTRICT
BIHAR-835 225
(DIOCESE: KHUNTI)

BR-264
ST ANNE'S DISPENSARY
SALGAPOS
TARABOGA P O
GUMLA DISTRICT
BIHAR-835 226
(DIOCESE: SIMDEGA)

BR-272
URSULINE CONVENT HEALTH CENTRE
DORMA P O
KHUNTI VIA
RANCHI DISTRICT
BIHAR-835 227
(DIOCESE: KHUNTI)

BR-307
ST THERESA HEALTH CENTRE
C/O ST ANNE'S CONVENT
TORPA PO
RANCHI DT
BIHAR-835 227
(DIOCESE: KHUNTI)

BR-234
ST URSULA HOSPITAL
KONBIR
NOATOLI P O
GUMLA DISTRICT
BIHAR-835 229

(DIOCESE: SIMDEGA)

(DIOCESE: GUMLA)

BR-229
ST ANNE'S HEALTH CENTRE
MAMERLA P O
GUMLA DISTRICT
BIHAR-835 229
(DIOCESE: GUMLA)

BR-312
HOLY FAMILY HEALTH CENTRE
NOADIIH PO
GUMLA DT
BIHAR-835 230
(DIOCESE: GUMLA)

BR-276
URSULINE HOSPITAL
BANARI P O
GUMLA DISTRICT
BIHAR-835 231
(DIOCESE: GUMLA)

BR-271
ST RAPHAEL'S DISPENSARY
MAJHATOLI P O
GUMLA DISTRICT
BIHAR-835 232
(DIOCESE: GUMLA)

BR-243
JAGAT RANI HOSPITAL
MAHUGAON P O
RANCHI DISTRICT
BIHAR-835 234
(DIOCESE: KHUNTI)

BR-238
ST URSULA HOSPITAL
LOHARDAGA P O
LOHARDAGA DISTRICT
BIHAR-835 302
(DIOCESE: RANCHI)

BR-292
ST BERNARD DISPENSARY
R C MISSION MIDDLE SCHOOL
P O SAPARAM, VIA PISKA NAGRI
RANCHI DISTRICT
BIHAR-835 303
(DIOCESE: RANCHI)

BR-258
JYOTHI NIKETAN HEALTH CENTRE
PATRACHAULI
RANCHI DIST
BIHAR-835 303
(DIOCESE: RANCHI)

BR-228
ST ANNE'S HEALTH CENTRE
SARAWADA P.O.,
RANCHI DIST
BIHAR-835 516
(DIOCESE: KHUNTI)

BR-313
PUSHPA NIVAS DISPENSARY
DOLDA
SARWADA PO
SARWADA, RANCHI - DT
BIHAR-835 516
(DIOCESE: KHUNTI)

BR-325
CECILIA HEALTH CENTRE
DIGHIA, TUKO P.O.
VIA BERO
RANCHI
BIHAR-835202
(DIOCESE: RANCHI)

BR-261
ST ELIZABETH DISPENSARY
P O JAMPANI
VIA SIMDEGA
GUMLA DISTRICT
BIHAR-836 226
(DIOCESE: SIMDEGA)

BR-199
ST JOSEPH'S HEALTH CENTRE
KHALPURA P O
GULTIANGANJ VIA
SARAN DISTRICT
BIHAR-841 211
(DIOCESE: MUZAFFARPUR)

BR-201
MATHA MARIA HEALTH CENTRE
CATHOLIC CHURCH, P B NO 17
CHOTTPUR VILLAGE
SIWAN P O & DISTRICT
BIHAR-841 226
(DIOCESE: MUZAFFARPUR)

BR-198
NIRMALA DISPENSARY
THIRUBIRUVA
YADAVPUR ROAD
GOPALGANJ P O & DISTRICT
BIHAR-841 428

BR-190
PRABHAT TARA HEALTH CENTRE
MUZAFFARPUR P O
MUZAFFARPUR DISTRICT
BIHAR-842 001
(DIOCESE: MUZAFFARPUR)

(DIOCESE: MUZAFFARPUR)

BR-196
PAROO PRAKHAND SAMAGRA VIKAS PARIYOJNA
GOKHULA P O
VIA DEORIA
MUZAFFARPUR DISTRICT
BIHAR-843 120
(DIOCESE: MUZAFFARPUR)

BR-302
SHANTI NIWAS
DHENG - PAKADI
ARUNALAYA
RAJOPATTI SITMARHI
BIHAR-843 302
(DIOCESE: MUZAFFARPUR)

BR-200
NISHKALANKA DISPENSARY
RAMNAGAR
W. CHAMPARAN DIST
BIHAR-845 106
(DIOCESE: MUZAFFARPUR)

BR-202
SACRED HEART DISPENSARY
BARA BARIARPUR VILLAGE
BARIARPUR PO, VIA MOTIHARI
EAST CHAMPARAN
BIHAR-845 401
(DIOCESE: MUZAFFARPUR)

BR-203
SNEHA SADAN HEALTH CARE CENTRE
CANOSSIAN SISTERS
PATAURA P.O., MOTIHARI
EAST CHAMPARAN
BIHAR-845 401
(DIOCESE: MUZAFFARPUR)

BR-188
HOLY CROSS DISPENSARY
C/O. HOLY CROSS CONVENT
BETTIAH P.O.,
CHAMPARAN DIST
BIHAR-845 438
(DIOCESE: MUZAFFARPUR)

BR-191
SACRED HEART HEALTH CENTRE
FAKIRANA
BETTIAH P.O. BOX NO. 14
CHAMPARAN DIST
BIHAR-845 438
(DIOCESE: MUZAFFARPUR)

BR-005
SEWA KENDRA
CATHOLIC CHURCH, DUSSAIYA
BETTIAH PO
WEST CHAMPARAN DT.
BIHAR-845 438
(DIOCESE: MUZAFFARPUR)

BR-194
VICTORIA MISSION HEALTH CENTRE
GAHIRI
C/O. CATHOLIC CHURCH
BETTIAH PO, WEST CHAMPARAN
BIHAR-845 438
(DIOCESE: MUZAFFARPUR)

BR-309
NOTRE DAME HEALTH CENTRE, SINGHPUR -
C/O CATHOLIC CHURCH
BETTIAH PO,
WEST CHAMPARAN DT
BIHAR-845 438
(DIOCESE: MUZAFFARPUR)

BR-189
FR FARREL'S HEALTH CENTRE
P.O. CHANPATIA
CHAMPARAN DIST
BIHAR-845 449
(DIOCESE: MUZAFFARPUR)

BR-186
ST FRANCIS XAVIER DISPENSARY
RAMPUR
CHAUHATTA P O
CHAMPARAN DISTRICT
BIHAR-845 455
(DIOCESE: MUZAFFARPUR)

BR-195
ST JOSEPH'S HEALTH CENTRE
SUGAULI
NEAR RAILWAY CROSSING
EAST CHAMPARAN DIST
BIHAR-845 456
(DIOCESE: MUZAFFARPUR)

BR-204
NIRMAL HEALTH CENTRE
CIC SISTERS
ALLAL PATTI
DMC PO, DARBHANGA DIST
BIHAR-846 003
(DIOCESE: MUZAFFARPUR)

BR-193
MARIA SADAN HEALTH CENTRE
MURIARO
DADHIA ASDHAR
SAMASTIPUR
BIHAR-848 34

BR-185
MATHA SAHAYIKA HEALTH CENTRE
SUSHIL NAGAR
SINDGUL P.O.
DIST. BEGUSARAI
BIHAR-851 134

(DIOCESE: MUZAFFARPUR)

(DIOCESE: MUZAFFARPUR)

BR-197
ST ANTONY'S DISPENSARY
KHORIAH, JARAILA P O
VIA TRIBENIGANJ
SAHARSA DISTRICT
BIHAR-852 122
(DIOCESE: MUZAFFARPUR)

BR-187
SACRED HEART HOSPITAL
LATOMAH
TRIBENIGANJ P.O.,
SAHARSA DIST
BIHAR-852 139
(DIOCESE: MUZAFFARPUR)

BR-320
VIMAL HRIDAYA HEALTH CENTRE
C/O GIRJA COLONY
KATIHAR PO
KATIHAR - DT
BIHAR-854 105
(DIOCESE: DUMKA)

BR-166
MARY IMMACULATE DISPENSARY
SISTERS OF MARY IMMACULATE
CHENGA GOPALPUR
MOHUAR PO, MAHADEVPUR VIA
BIHAR-854 116
(DIOCESE: DUMKA)

BR-316
VIMALA HRIDAYA HEALTH CENTRE
GANGELI MORE
BISHUNPUR DUTT
BANMANKHI, PURNEA
BIHAR-854 202
(DIOCESE: DUMKA)

BR-158
COMMUNITY HEALTH CENTRE
URSULINE CONVENT
PURNEA PO
PURNEA DISTRICT
BIHAR-854 301
(DIOCESE: DUMKA)

BR-163
AMALA HEALTH CENTRE
PURNEA P O
PURNEA DISTRICT
BIHAR-854 301
(DIOCESE: DUMKA)

BR-165
SATMI HEALTH CENTRE
C/O CATHOLIC CHURCH
PURNEA P O
PURNEA DISTRICT
BIHAR-854 301
(DIOCESE: DUMKA)

BR-305
MARIA RANI HEALTH CENTRE
C/O URSULINE CONVENT
INDORPUR BARHARA
PURNEA
BIHAR-854 334
(DIOCESE: DUMKA)

BR-170
ST ANNES HEALTH CENTRE
RUIDHASA
KISHANGANJ P O
BIHAR-855 107
(DIOCESE: DUMKA)

BR-172
DAYA-DAN HENSEN'S CENTRE
MISSIONARIES OF CHARITY (BRO)
KHAGRA, KISHNAGANJ PO
KISHNAGANJ DIST.
BIHAR-855 107
(DIOCESE: DUMKA)