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POLITICIZATION OF STUDENTS' UNIONS: A STUDY IN BHUBANESWAR, ODISHA

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ABSTRACT

The study aimed to find out whether student leaders were drawn from politicized families and whether participation or non-participation of their parents in politics had any bearing on the emergence of student leadership. Also, the study also examined their roles and responsibilities of being leaders and look at how far the patron-client relationships exists between the political leaders and students' union. The sample consists of 120 students representing from 14 different colleges of Bhubaneswar. 73 (60.8%) are 1st-year students; 27 (22.5%) are 3rd year and 13 (10.8%) are 1st-year students; 5 (4.2%), NA and 2 (1.7%). The findings of this study on students' opinions on social justice have been presented given participants' socio-political, economic and cultural backgrounds. This study has shown that students thought socio-economic status and political views were two factors most likely to expose an individual to injustice in India. The study recommends that the future research should focus on a specific aspect of benefits such as social movement or social justice.

KEYWORDS

Odisha, politicization, student leaders.

INTRODUCTION

Students, as a social category, constitute an essential element in the economic and political development in many of the countries. Social students observe student as prospective members of the elite (Hazari, 1982; Lipset, 1967) of their countries and as an "incipient elite" or an "emerging elite" (Aitbach, 1966), as they hold a significant position in any discussion of the social movement. By virtue of their exposure to education and intellectual trends, youthful idealism and unbounded energy, comparative freedom from a job, family responsibility and acute political awareness, they present a readily mobilizable compact mass which when harnessed, has generated a considerable force that has produced an immediate impact on society and influenced the pace of social change. Evidence across the world, had showed that student's movement have played a crucial role in anti-authoritarianism movements particularly among the developing and developed communities in their national liberation movements in the recent past in different parts of the world such as in Germany and Austria, England, the US and Chinese revolution in 1848 (Dutta, 1998).

India is rather unique among Asian countries in having less (e.g. refugee movement in Arunachala Pradesh (Prasad, 2007) or no massive student movement of an all India dimension after Independence (e.g. Gandhi's non-cooperation movement). However, student strikes and agitations have from time to time, rocked many Universities and shaken many State governments. While student protest politics of various kinds and intensity, related mostly to campus-oriented issues occur in every state, some of the States have been affected by significant student agitations concerning broader political issues (Hazary, 1988). As potential members of the elite, their political behaviour and orientation have far-reaching significance for the emerging political culture of their societies. Student politics is becoming an increasingly critical component of national politics (Hazary, 1988). The present paper explores the characteristics of student union leader and their motivating factor for their participation in the student union and further it also clarified the roles and responsibilities of the student's union leader along with the benefit they provide as a student leader focusing on Odisha State.

The paper is structured as follows: The first section sets the theoretical background for the study by critically analysing the theories behind the student politicization. This is followed by the brief explanation of the past studies that have conducted earlier which would enable the researcher to identify the gap and need for the study. The section focused on the methodology while third on results and finally the section concludes with discussion and conclusion.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK: HOW STUDENTS POLITICIZED?

Liberal education theory explains students' politicization by focusing on the values disseminated by universities as liberal institutions (Rootes, 1980, 1986, 1995). The main reason behind student radicalism is to be found in the transformation which occurred in higher education during the 1970s. It was the introduction of Marxist theory and political concepts such as class and social justice into the university curriculum that had the effect of neutralizing much of the hostility bourgeois socialization has toward political ideas, and to create the demand for a less constrained political debate (Rootes, 1980). This theory label why students at the University, preferably than secondary students and youth in general, are copious in protests (an aspect overlooked by generational gap theory). Political concepts get amalgamated amongst the students at the university during their exposure to such instances. This is especially witnessed in students pursuing social science and humanities who are advocated liberal and critical thinking at learning tenure. This theory is further supported by Marsh's (1977), who dealt with comparing students based on views, and activities on various perspectives of the university. The politicization taking place at universities seems to have long-term effects. Sherkat and Blocker (1997) compared activists in the 1960s and early 1970s with their non-activist counterparts at two points in time and found that former protesters, besides more highly educated, tend to be (and remain over time) more liberal than non-protesters. The vast majority of activists involved in British direct action networks interviewed by Doherty *et al.* (2003) were 'high educational achievers'. Although these studies do not provide any evidence of the long-term impact of higher education, they imply a sustained correlation between higher education, liberal values, and radical political participation. However, knowledge and critical thinking skills do not necessarily lead to 'politicization', let alone getting involved in social movements. Sometimes students rebel in support of non-liberal agendas or contexts. For example, in Iran students have been at the forefront of pro-democracy protests, and they emerged in an illiberal educational context (though, in relative terms, universities are more liberal than other contexts in the Iranian society). Conversely, Islamic extremist groups in western campuses can be considered to embody non-liberal values. According to Munson (2010), university campuses in the US have played a crucial role in the rise of conservative movements over the last 40 years.

Liberal education theory can be supplemented with political engagement theory. This argues that without political interest and information, individuals will not participate in political activity (Putnam, 2000; Schussman and Soule, 2005; Verba *et al.*, 1995) and those with liberal or progressive political views tend to protest disproportionately (Dalton, 2002). Since the 1990s, direct action has been considered not only a radical tactic used at protests but sometimes even a defining feature of a social movement (Doherty *et al.*, 2003). It is radical because it often involves illegal and confrontational actions leading to arrests such as spilling fake blood in contested banks though physically harming violence is rarely used. The emphasis is on creativity, symbol and humour. The association between left-wing values/tactics and protest might be due to a general left-wing bias in the selection of protests (Corrigall-Brown, 2011) and this should be acknowledged. While political interest and knowledge alone do not translate into politicization and mobilization, the reverse can be true (Downton and Wehr, 1977; McAdam, 1986, 1988). Many people, for example, become committed activists after attending a protest by chance. Since universities are still liberal and reflexive institutions (Delanty, 2001), with social sciences and sociology in particular mostly remaining critical disciplines (Bourdieu, 1993) at the service of the public (Bourdieu, 2005), if liberal education plays a role in student radicalism, we should still find evidence today.

The majority of the defence of activism and politicization of students descend into one of two, in the same manner, camps and problematic. Few focus on youth psychology, asserting that young people have problems that find declaration in protest of politics (Smelser, 1968). The problem with these explanation types is

that they pertain to young individuals in common when the confirmation suggests that it is students in specific who are disproportionately politically active. Some other defence indicates that the impact of the value of liberal education and the inculcation of a critical thinking capacity within the context of University (Marsh, 1977). The issue with this kind of defence that the students do not invariably mobilize around the causes of liberal or in contexts where the values of liberal and critical thought are persuaded. They have deployed around differently in illiberal forms of politics such as Islamic fundamentalism, national socialism and have contexts of education such as Iran and China (Crossley, 2008; Ibrahim, 2010). Moreover, a study by Crossley (2008) has made a comparison with behaviours and political inclinations between undergraduates and sixth formers in examining important group membership and political activity. Their study revealed that no significant difference in political attitudes and identities. In addition, studies also recommend that opaque networks individually when actors are fastened to one other in various ways (multiplexity) and cause support, trust, solidarity and incentives (Bott, 1957; Coleman, 1988, 1990; Gould, 1993, 1991; Mcadam, 1982; Milroy, 1987).

PAST STUDIES ON POLITICIZATION STUDENT UNION

A study by Crossley and Ibrahim (2012) explored the role of critical mass and social network in the generation of collective action among students where they found that students strong tie likely to relate to student politics which gives rise to critical mass per se. Further, student union plays a significant role where members are networked and allows like-minded actors to find one another from the bonds that will support collective action. Similarly, other studies are being conducted in Ghana (Finlay, 1968), and Malaysia (Silverstein, 1970).

There are few studies have been carried out in India. For instance, Sayeed (1973) examined the Lucknow University student's union motivational factors to take part in Unionism with the sample size of 26 students. The findings showed that student leadership is not a natural phenomenon as only 23 percent leaders came from politicized families while majority enter incidentally which illustrates that it was only a conglomeration of chance and circumstances. Further, the findings showed that majority of the leaders had no record of political participation when they entered the university, and departmental associations and the Youth organisation had a significant role in evoking and developing the interest of the students in political activities. Later, Syed (1975) studied the characteristics of student leadership among a survey of 220 student leaders from Lucknow University, and findings showed that majority stay at home, have contact with village regularly (Syed, 1975). Similarly, the profile of the student political elites in Odisha was conducted by Hazary (1982) where the findings showed that majority belongs to the middle-class family background while majority came from rural areas, literate families, and Hindus, which was consistent throughout 1938-1969. Further, the study showed that student leaders need not necessarily belongs to parents whose primary occupation is politics or an independent vocation. But other 43.7% of students belong to apoliticized family which could be a stimulating factor. Students who belong to arts do involve in the student union and those students who stayed in hostels did show higher involvement. However, concerning academic performance, and quality of leadership did not show any conclusive evidence.

The majority of the studies in contemporary social science had focused on campus activism (Jayaram, 1979) or more descriptive papers (Sinate, 2009) that discusses student union in particular university (Karat, 1975). However, the nature of student government and politics is rarely studied. There are few studies have been conducted with the focus on the politicization of student union, but those studies are limited to India. The majority of the studies have been focused on Western context and others in African Countries. Studies conducted in India had methodological limitations where Sayeed (1973) looked at only the motivational factors to take part in the student union with less than thirty sample size. While the study by Hazary (1982) confined to one institution and its limitation accruing from the lack of comparison with other educational institution of the state. Oommen (1974) analysed the institutional context in which student politics takes place, the process of recruitment of leaders and their socio-economic background among students confined to Delhi University for the academic year 1968-69. Findings showed that the student participates in decision-making activity, and only a few students on the campus take an active interest in these political organisations unless of course they aspire to become political leaders. The role of political parties in the University Union elections had an unhealthy influence on University student politics, not because of the role of ideology in elections, but because of the monetary help that they extend to some candidates.

On the one hand, the winning candidate has to accept dictation from the party that provides financial support while the parties, in turn, must treat the President as a VIP to keep him under their influence. Particularistic factors such as religion, caste, language, region, etc., do not seem to affect substantially. Andersen and Pant (1970) looked at the social composition of Allahabad University and its effect on student politics. The findings showed similar profile where the majority of the students belong to Hindu, urban background but political connections as they tend to mobilize outside support either official or non-official against the administration. On the other, few studies did focus on the role played by a student organization to benefit the community especially in the matter of Chakma and Hajong refuge problem in Arunachal Pradesh. Sheth and Jain (1968) studied the status of local union leaders (Hazelrigg, 1970) and their characteristics.

Our study is different from the previous studies for the purpose of this paper is to add to these interpretations by examining the politicization of students' union and their roles and responsibilities to the betterment of community and society as a whole. In specific, the paper aimed to find out whether student leaders were drawn from politicized families and whether participation or non-participation of their parents in politics had any bearing on the emergence of student leadership and further looked what interested them in getting into politics and unionism, whether a natural inclination towards politics or any forces which stimulated them to take part in active politics at the University stage. The study also examined their roles and responsibilities of being leaders and look at how far the patron-client relationships exists between the political leaders and students' union and finally, whether being as student union leader benefit individual students, institutions and community as a whole.

Although no methodological justification lies behind attempting this study at this particular point in time, viewing it retrospectively, researcher feels the period of the survey is crucial. At present, membership in Odisha University Student's union is a matter of option for a given college affiliated with the University. However, a new measure is being conned templated and discussed both at the teachers' and students' bodies, according to which membership in the Union would be compulsory for all colleges affiliated with the University. This would change the structure of the union regarding its composition, for the "prestige colleges", hitherto not affiliated with the union may become members. Secondly, the proposal to elect the union executives directly, by the entire student body, is gaining ground. If the proposal is implemented, the mode of functioning of the Union may change. However, there is an important substantive reason for undertaking this study at the present juncture.

Odisha has witnessed some major student agitations despite a general atmosphere of peace on the campuses. The anti-fee rise strike in 1951 and student participation in the movement against the SRC report in 1956 demanding the merger of two Oriya speaking regions with Odisha were the highlights of the 1950s. The Odisha student agitation in 1964 against the Ministry represents the high watermark of student political activism in Odisha. Students with the support of the opposition politicians and sympathy of the general public sought to focus attention on the alleged corrupt administration by the State Chief Minister and succeeded in forcing an investigation which ultimately led to the resignation of the Chief Minister causing considerable embarrassment to the Congress government. But these instances of effective, but sporadic and diffuse protest action by students did not result in an on-going student movement

Broadly speaking, student association in Odisha University can be divided into two types: voluntary and non-voluntary. The OSU is the official student body recognized by the University authorities as the spokesman for student interests. All the Unions in colleges affiliated with Odisha University are not affiliated with the OSU. Thus, in 1968-69 only 28 of the 48 colleges affiliated with OSA University were the student unions affiliated. However, students of member colleges of the Union have no option to stay out of the Union. In contrast to this, a voluntary student association is one initiated by the students and membership in it is a matter of personal preference. Student voluntary associations can be divided into three main types: political, cultural and social service associations. We will confine our discussion to political associations and those cultural associations with a political orientation.

METHOD

The study addresses the following research questions: 1) What is the socio-economic background of the student's union leaders; 2) How the process of political affiliations occurs among students; 3) How it works membership in organization in before and after Std. union functionary? The sample consists of 120 students representing from 14 different colleges of Bhubaneswar (73 (60.8%) are 1st year students; 27 (22.5%) are 3rd year, 13 (10.8%) are 1st year students; 5 (4.2%) are NA and 2 (1.7%) are ex-academic students, where 67.5% belongs to arts. While 18.3% are science students, followed by 8.3% and 5.8% are commerce and law students. The majority of the participants were male (61.7%), and the female was only represented one-third (38.3%) where 55% of them were 20-22 years' age group, 22.5

percent are below 20 years while other 27% belongs to 22+ years. This level of percentage does not change between genders. In Odisha education systems, the student placement examination is carried out by high school and students who are successful in the test can start university at the ages of 20-22 years (+3 educational qualification), which is the reason for the high mean age of the participants. Most of the students are of urban origin (75%) and live with their parents (95%) with a monthly income of 20000-40000 INR (41%) while the other had 40,000-50,000 INR (26.67%).

FINDINGS

The study findings are summarized by the socio-economic background of the student's union leaders, the association between sex and membership in the political organisation, further association between native place, education, present place of stay and type of membership. Additionally, second part covers the association between native place, education, present place of stay and year of membership, thirdly covers the association between membership in the political organization and socio-economic variables.

THE SOCIO-ECONOMIC BACKGROUND OF THE STUDENT'S UNION LEADERS

TABLE 1: SOCIO-ECONOMIC & DEMOGRAPHICAL DETAILS OF STUDENT UNION MEMBERS

Socio-Economic & Demographical	Frequency (n)	Percent (%)
Gender		
Male	74	61.7
Female	46	38.3
Age group		
Below 20	63	52.5
20-22	42	35.0
22-24	10	8.3
Above 26	5	4.2
Educational qualification		
+3	111	92.5
PG	9	7.5
Education background		
Arts	82	68.3
Commerce	10	8.3
Law	7	5.8
Science	21	17.5
Religion		
Hindu	117	97.5
Muslim	3	2.5
Caste		
General	45	37.5
OBC	58	48.3
SC	10	8.3
ST	7	5.8
Native place		
Rural	31	25.8
Urban	89	74.2
Present place of stay		
Hostel	32	26.7
With Parents	88	73.3
Membership in Political organization		
No	49	40.8
Yes	71	59.2
Position Holding		
Corporator	3	2.5
Sarpancha	11	9.2
Youth worker	6	5.0
Ward member	5	4.2
Jilaparisad	1	0.8
Samti member	5	4.2
NA	89	74.2

Table 1 presents the socio-economic and demographical features of student union members. Out of 120 members, the most of the members were males (62%) compared to females (38%). The majority of the student union committee members were in the age group below 20 years. The average ages of the members was 23 years. Only small amount of the members had the age 26 years and above. 93 percent of the members' educational qualification was +3 and rest of the members' educational level was post-graduation. Among the total of 120 members, 68 percent were art students, 18 percent were science students, eight percent were commerce students and 6 percent were law students. When considered the religion of student union members, most of the members were Hindus and three members are Muslim. The findings showed that none of the members belonging to the Christian faith. The reasons might be (i) Christian students were not interested in participating student union elections, (ii) Christian students were poorly integrated with the wider student community, (iii) Christian students were less politicized than non-Christian students and so on. Also, the most of the members were OBC and general category. The majority of the respondents from urban (74%) and rural with (26%). When the present place of stay is considered the majority of the respondents (73%) stay with parents while 27% stay in Hostel. 59 percent of the respondents are membership in the political organisation while 41 percent are not membership in the political organisation. When position holding is considered, 9 percent of respondents with Sarpanch position followed by 5 percent have a youth worker and least 1 percent has Jilaparisad.

TABLE 2: ASSOCIATION BETWEEN SEX AND MEMBERSHIP IN POLITICAL ORGANIZATION

Sex	Membership in Political Organization		Chi-Square (p value)
	No (n=49) n(%)	Yes (n=71) n(%)	
Male	37 (75.5)	37 (52.1)	6.714, p=0.010
Female	12 (24.5)	34 (47.9)	

Table 2 presents the association between sex and membership in a political organisation using chi-square test. The frequency distribution clearly indicates that a 52 percent of the male are membership in the political organisation while 48 percent of the female are membership in the political organisation. From the observed chi-square value 6.714 and p-value 0.010 which is less than 0.05, hence there is an association between sex and membership in the political organisation.

ASSOCIATION BETWEEN NATIVE PLACE AND TYPE OF MEMBERSHIP

TABLE 3: ASSOCIATION BETWEEN NATIVE PLACE AND TYPE OF MEMBERSHIP

Native place	Type of membership			Chi-Square (p value)
	Youth (n=64) n(%)	Youth president (n=7) n(%)	NA (n=49) n(%)	
Rural	11 (17.2)	5 (71.4)	15 (30.6)	10.676, p=0.005
Urban	53 (82.8)	2 (28.6)	34 (69.4)	

Table 3 presents the association between native place and type of membership using chi-square test. The frequency distribution clearly indicates that a 71 percent of respondents from rural areas are youth president while 83 percent of respondents from urban areas are youth from the observed chi-square value 10.716 and p-value 0.005 which is less than 0.05, hence there is an association between native place and type of membership.

ASSOCIATION BETWEEN EDUCATION AND TYPE OF MEMBERSHIP

TABLE 4: ASSOCIATION BETWEEN EDUCATION AND TYPE OF MEMBERSHIP

Education	Type of membership			Chi-Square (p value)
	Youth (n=64) n(%)	Youth president (n=7) n(%)	NA (n=49) n(%)	
+3	60 (93.8)	4 (57.1)	47 (95.9)	13.583, p=0.001
PG	4 (6.2)	3 (42.9)	2 (4.1)	

Table 4 presents the association between education and type of membership using chi-square test. The frequency distribution clearly indicates that a 94 percent of respondents with +3 educations are youth while 43 percent of respondents with PG education are youth president. From the observed chi-square value 13.583 and p-value 0.001 which is less than 0.05, hence there is an association between education and type of membership.

ASSOCIATION BETWEEN PRESENT PLACE OF STAY AND TYPE OF MEMBERSHIP

TABLE 5: ASSOCIATION BETWEEN PRESENT PLACE OF STAY AND TYPE OF MEMBERSHIP

Present place of stay	Type of membership			Chi-Square (p value)
	Youth (n=64) n(%)	Youth president (n=7) n(%)	NA (n=49) n(%)	
Hostel	12 (18.8)	4 (57.1)	16 (32.7)	6.274, p=0.043
With Parents	52 (81.2)	3 (42.9)	33 (67.3)	

Table 5 presents the association between present place of stay and type of membership using chi-square test. The frequency distribution clearly indicates that a 57 percent of respondents who stay in the hostel are youth president while 81 percent of respondents stays with parents are youth. From the observed chi-square value 6.274 and p-value 0.043 which is less than 0.05, hence there is an association between present place of stay and type of membership.

ASSOCIATION BETWEEN NATIVE PLACE AND YEAR OF MEMBERSHIP

TABLE 6: ASSOCIATION BETWEEN NATIVE PLACE AND YEAR OF MEMBERSHIP

Native place	Year of membership				Chi-Square (p value)
	<=3 (n=11) n(%)	4-6 (n=34) n(%)	>=7 (n=26) n(%)	NA (n=49) n(%)	
Rural	5 (45.5)	10 (29.4)	1 (3.8)	15 (30.6)	9.582, p=0.022
Urban	6 (54.5)	24 (70.6)	25 (96.2)	34 (69.4)	

Table 6 presents the association between native place and year of membership using chi-square test. The frequency distribution clearly indicates that a 46 percent of respondents from rural areas with <=3 year of membership while 96 percent of respondents from urban areas with >=7 year of membership. From the observed chi-square value 9.582 and p-value 0.022 which is less than 0.05, hence there is an association between native place and year of membership.

ASSOCIATION BETWEEN EDUCATION AND YEAR OF MEMBERSHIP

TABLE 7: ASSOCIATION BETWEEN EDUCATION AND YEAR OF MEMBERSHIP

Education	Year of membership				Chi-Square (p value)
	<=3 (n=11) n(%)	4-6 (n=34) n(%)	>=7 (n=26) n(%)	NA (n=49) n(%)	
+3	11 (100.0)	27 (79.4)	26 (100.0)	47 (95.9)	12.221, p=0.007
PG	0 (0.0)	7 (20.6)	0 (0.0)	2 (4.1)	

Table 7 presents the association between Education and year of membership using chi-square test. The frequency distribution clearly indicates that a 100 percent of respondents with +3 education with >=7 year of membership while 21 percent of respondents with PG education with a 4-6 year of membership. From the observed chi-square value 12.221 and p-value 0.007 which is less than 0.05, hence there is an association between Education and year of membership.

TABLE 8: ASSOCIATION BETWEEN PRESENT PLACE OF STAY AND YEAR OF MEMBERSHIP

Present place of stay	Year of membership				Chi-Square (p value)
	<=3 (n=11) n(%)	4-6 (n=34)	>=7 (n=26)	NA (n=49)	
Hostel	4 (36.4)	3 (8.8)	9 (34.6)	16 (32.7)	7.802, p=0.050
With Parents	7 (63.6)	31 (91.2)	17 (65.4)	33 (67.3)	

Table 8 presents the association between present place of stay and year of membership using chi-square test. The frequency distribution clearly indicates that a 36 percent of respondents who stay in a hostel with <=3 year of membership while 91 percent of respondents stays with parents are the 4-6 year of membership. From the observed chi-square value 7.802 and p-value 0.050 which is less than 0.05, hence, there is an association between present place of stay and year of membership.

ASSOCIATION BETWEEN MEMBERSHIP IN POLITICAL ORGANIZATION AND SOCIO-ECONOMIC VARIABLES USING BINARY LOGISTIC REGRESSION

TABLE 9: ASSOCIATION BETWEEN MEMBERSHIP IN POLITICAL ORGANIZATION AND SOCIO-ECONOMIC VARIABLES USING BINARY LOGISTIC REGRESSION

Independent variables	Dependent variables β (SE)		
	Membership in Political Organization		
Sex			
Male	-1.101** (0.432)		
Native place			
Urban	0.669 (0.558)		
Religion			
Hindu	0.837 (1.272)		
Caste			
ST	-0.537 (1.160)		
SC	0.241 (0.987)		
General	-0.355 (0.983)		
Education			
PG	1.970* (0.931)		
Present place of stay			
Hostel	-0.431 (0.515)		
Person motivated			
Yes		1.340* (0.589)	
Party Affiliated to			
Yes			1.489 (1.097)

Table 9 reveals the logistic regression to assess the impact of a number of factors on the likelihood that respondents would report with membership in the political organization. The model contained six independent variables (Sex, Native place, Religion, Caste, Education and Present place of stay). The model as a whole explained between 12% (Cox and Snell R square) and 16% (Nagelkerke R squared) of the variance in membership in the political organisation and correctly classified 73% of cases. In above table 9, two independent variables statistically significant contribution to the model. The strongest predictor of reporting to membership in a political organization with PG education (β=1.970, p=0.034<0.05, OR=7.17). This indicated that respondent whose education with PG were 7.17 times more likely to report membership in the political organisation than with education +3. The negative predictor of reporting membership in the political organisation was male (β=-1.101, p=0.01, OR=0.33). This indicated that respondents who are male were 0.33 times less likely to report membership in the political organisation. The strongest predictor of reporting to membership in a political organisation with person motivated (β=1.340, p=0.023<0.05, OR=3.82). This indicated that respondents who motivated were 3.82 times more likely to report membership in the political organisation.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Politicization of student unions is a general phenomenon of our national political culture. However, it suffers from a variety of problems, such as uneven growth, and small size. India's large student population diffused over all parts of the country might at some point play a critical role in national or regional politics. Developing societies impose the student community the incipient elites a unique responsibility which is a concomitant of their unique power. Student political activism must, however, be duly tempered with a sense of responsibility. It is hoped that student protest politics will, in coming years, dispense with its mostly anomic character and transform itself into a constructive instrument to make a worthwhile contribution to India's progress and modernization. In conclusion, this study has examined the student's union leader role, characteristic and their benefits offered to the society and state general with particular focus in Odisha. In this respect, it is a pioneering study; but it does have some limitations, including not being able to reveal the relationship between student characteristics such as political view and ethnic and religious background and their attitude towards student's union. Further, future study should focus on aparticular aspect of benefits such as social movement or social justice.

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