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## **UNIT 11: GENDER MAINSTREAMING**

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## 11.1 INTRODUCTION

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Women's movements all over the world have been concerned with institutionalizing women's interests in all organizations and policies at every level including international institutions such as the United Nations. Gender mainstreaming has evolved as a strategy for taking up this issue relevant for countries and public institutions. It is the responsibility of national mechanisms for ensuring that gender mainstreaming agendas are implemented and public policy continues to focus on aspects of gender equality. The Beijing Platform for Action (1995) and ECOSOC Agreed Conclusions (1997) endorsed agreements on these issues.

The strategy of mainstreaming is defined in the ECOSOC agreed conclusions, 1997/2, as:

*"...the process of assessing the implications for women and men of any planned action, including legislation, policies or programmes, in all areas and at all levels. It is a strategy for making women's as well as men's concerns and experiences an integral dimension of the design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of policies and programmes in all political, economic and societal spheres so that women and men benefit equally and inequality is not perpetuated. The ultimate goal is to achieve gender equality-"* with the aim of changing structures of inequality (UN/DAW 1998 : 4)

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## 11.2 OBJECTIVES

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After studying this Unit, you should be able to:

- Explain the need for gender mainstreaming;
- Describe how to incorporate gender mainstreaming principle in policy analysis;
- Examine the effort taken by the United Nations to mainstream gender in all activities;

- Analyze some of the mainstreaming strategies in Asian countries.

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### 11.3 GENDER EQUALITY AS THE GOAL – GENDER MAINSTREAMING AS THE STRATEGY

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Gender equality is a goal that has been accepted by governments and international organizations. It is enshrined in international agreements and commitments. There are many ongoing discussions about what equality means (and does not mean) in practice and how to achieve it. It is clear that there are global patterns of inequality between women and men. For example, women tend to suffer violence for diverse reasons; women's political participation and their representation in decision-making structures is much less as compared to men; women and men have different economic opportunities; women constitute a greater proportion of the poor; and women and girls make up the majority of people trafficked and involved in the sex trade. These issues – and others – need to be addressed for the promotion of gender equality.

It is inevitable then that progress towards achieving greater equality between women and men will require changes at many levels, including changes in attitudes and relationships, changes in institutions and legal frameworks, changes in economic institutions, and changes in political decision-making structures. Thus, what is common to mainstreaming in all sectors or development issues is *that a concern for gender equality is brought into the 'mainstream' of activities* rather than dealt with as an 'add-on'.

The steps involved in any mainstreaming strategy will be an assessment of how and why gender differences and inequalities are of relevance in the particular context, identifying where there are opportunities to narrow these inequalities and deciding on the approach to be taken.

### Check Your Progress Exercise 1

**Note:** i. Use the space given below to answer the questions.

ii. Compare your answer with the one given at the end of this Unit

1. Is there any difference between gender mainstreaming and gender equality: Explain why?

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### **11.4 GENDER MAINSTREAMING STRATEGY: THE SYSTEMATIC TASKS**

Although the specific questions and approach will differ depending on the issue and the requirement of the institution, several general starting points can be identified. To begin with, there is a need for :

**1. Seeking information about the responsibilities, activities, interests and priorities of women and men, and the manner In which their experience of problems differ.**

Consider possible differences and inequalities between women and men and how they could be relevant to the issue. While each situation or issue should be examined on its own merits, the process should begin with an understanding on the gender factors that could relate to the problem or issue i.e. how and why gender differences and inequalities are relevant) and that therefore require further investigation. This is examined in the next section.

**2. Questioning assumptions about “families”, “households” or “people” that may be implicit in the way a problem is stated or a policy is formulated.**

The importance of clarifying the assumptions about these terms and assessing whether they are valid has been demonstrated by research in the last two decades. Studies have shown, for example, that “people” respond to economic changes in gender-specific ways because gender is an influence on their access to resources and responsibilities. Research has also shown that resources are not necessarily distributed equitably among household members, nor is there equitable decision-making with respect to the use of these resources. Ignoring these factors may result in incorrect analyses of issues.

**3. Obtaining information so that the experiences and situation of both women and men can be analyzed.**

Sex-disaggregated data should be preferably used for a more informed understanding of an issue or situation and to allow gender differences and inequalities to be identified and addressed. For example, there is a better basis for developing agricultural policy and targeted programmes if there is information that goes beyond the number of “farmers” and what they produce. Disaggregating this data by sex, and being informed about who produces what, would not only provide information on the number of women and men farmers, but would also help in making assessments of whether there are differences and inequalities between women and men in the crops they produce and the work they do.

**4. Seeking the inputs and views of women as well as men about decisions that will affect the way they live.**

At times, there are significant differences between women and men on what is termed as *priorities*. For example, in a post-disaster situation, women may be immediately concerned with clean drinking water and shelter while men may prioritize the re-establishment of

economic activities. While all these aspects are of importance, there should be an awareness (obtained through specific investigation) of the potential differences between women and men. This helps in better handling of a situation. It is also to be noted that since women's participation in decision making is generally lower than that of men, specific strategies are generally required to ensure that women's voices are heard.

**5. Ensuring that activities which are women dominated (including domestic work) receive attention.**

Although there is, in recent times, increased recognition of the productive input of the domestic and 'caring' work done by women, these activities are still often not measured or valued. Similarly, women's agricultural tasks have also received less attention than those of men in policies and programme to improve productivity.

**6. Understanding that all women or all men do not share the same needs and perspectives.**

It is well known that women and men are not only different in several ways, there are differences among women and among men that relate to class, religion, age, ethnicity and other factors. It is important not to generalize across diverse populations, but rather to consider the ways that needs and perspectives of individuals are influenced by a range of factors, including gender.

**7. Need for an analysis of the issues and proposed policy options for implications from a gender perspective.**

There is a need to identify means of formulating directions that support an equitable distribution of benefits and opportunities, due to the fact that gender differences do exist in societies. From this it is evident then, that women and men will neither have equal opportunities for participation nor will benefit equally from development inputs. Special

attention is thus needed to ensure that initiatives are not assumed to affect all people in the same manner, as this could increase gender inequality.

### **Check Your Progress Exercise 2**

**Note:** i. Use the space given below to answer the questions.

ii. Compare your answer with the one given at the end of this Unit

1. What are the tasks required for formulating a gender mainstreaming strategy?

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### **11.5 INCORPORATING GENDER PERSPECTIVES IN POLICY ANALYSIS**

A few key examples are provided to understand the manner in which policy analysis can include a gender dimension :

a. Whether or not various policy options will affect women and men differently-- for example, how would diverse approaches to water pricing affect poor women in comparison with poor men? What methods would have the most equitable distribution of costs and access?

b. Another example could be taken through an assessment of different choices in fiscal policy. A gender perspective would lead to questions about the gender equality implications of elements of fiscal policy such as:

- Choices of revenue-raising methods – Methods such as user fees and consumption taxes can have different implications for women and men.
- Structure of taxation – Various policy choices relating to individual or family income tax structures, indirect taxes, and balance between income, consumption and taxes on production can all have gender dimensions.
- Budgetary allocations for social sector infrastructure and programmes – Choices about investments in health care: urban/rural?), education (primary or secondary system? investments in reframing the curriculum so as to eliminate gender biases? investments in teacher training?) and social insurance (who is covered? what benefits are offered?). These policy questions, when analyzed can have different benefits and costs for women, girls, boys and men.

Here, it is worthwhile to note that the role of political parties in gender mainstreaming is important as multi-party governance becomes increasingly the form of political governance. In this regard, it is worthwhile to mention the examples of Australia, Canada, South Africa and Philippines where all government departments and agencies prepare budget documents that disaggregates expenditure in terms of their gendered impact.

The issues are analyzed further:

#### **11.5.1 General Issues and Trends**

Although each situation within each country/region/sub-region must be considered on its own merits, there are broad themes which warrant attention. Gender is an issue as a result of the fundamental differences and inequalities between women and men. These differences and inequalities may manifest themselves in different ways in specific countries or sectors but there are some broad patterns that point to questions that should always be considered. The

elements below could be taken as starting points to explore how and why gender differences and inequalities are relevant in a specific situation.

**a. Inequalities in political power (access to decision-making, representation, etc.)**

There are few women involved in political processes throughout the world. It is important to look at and understand gender differences in power within formal decision-making structures (such as governments, district committees, and policy-making institutions). Given the underrepresentation of women and the low visibility of women's perspectives, the fact that women often have different priorities, needs and interests than men is often not clear. National, regional or sub-regional priorities, or even the specific needs and priorities of a community, are often defined without meaningful consultations with women.

The UN Atlas of Women in Politics (2000) shows that women comprise 13.4 percent of parliament members worldwide. It is the Nordic States which lead in this respect, where women constitute 38.8 percent of members of both houses of Parliament, while the Arab States have only 3.5 percent (UN 1999). An analysis of data reveals that there is no positive correlation between women's presence in public bodies and economic performance. The figures for women's representation in Parliament are 13.4 percent for European countries, not including the Nordic countries, 11.7 percent for Sub-Saharan Africa, 14.3 percent in Asia and 15.3 percent in the Americas. It is in view of the slow improvement in women's participation in the public sphere that this goal is being actively taken up by international institutions, civil society groups as well as the national machineries themselves.

**b. Inequalities within households**

Even within households there are Inequalities in negotiating and decision-making possibilities and access to resources. This has led to questions about both research and policy which is based on the assumption that households function as units where each member benefits equally. The investigation of differences and inequalities at the household level is

required for understanding of a range of key issues, including the ability of women and men to respond to economic incentives, the formulation of effective strategies for HIV/AIDS prevention, and equitable social security policies.

### **c. Differences in legal status and entitlements**

Despite national constitutions and international instruments that state publicly equal rights for women and men, there are many areas in which women are denied equal rights to personal status, security, land, inheritance and employment opportunities in practical life. While it is essential to address the resulting constraints for women, it is also essential for formulating effective national strategies for increasing economic productivity and growth, reducing poverty and achieving sustainable resource management. It is the responsibility of the international community as a whole to ensure that these basic differences in legal status and access to resources between men and women are bridged.

### **d. Gender division of labour within the economy**

In most countries, women and men are engaged differently across manufacturing sectors, between formal and informal sectors, within agriculture, and among other occupations. Women are also more likely than men to be in low-paid jobs and “non-standard” work (part-time, temporary, home-based), in addition to having less access than men to productive assets such as education, skills, property and credit. Such a distribution of work means that economic trends and economic policies are likely to have different implications for women and men. As an example, trade liberalization has had uneven impacts by sector, with consequences for both gender equality and economic growth that have only recently become the subject of investigation.

### **e. Inequalities in the domestic/unpaid sector**

In most countries it is women who shoulder most of the responsibilities and tasks related to the care and nurturing of the family (including laundry, food preparation, childcare, care of

the sick, elderly and cleaning). In many countries in the South, women also make an important contribution to family, food production, water and firewood provision. These tasks add to women's workload and are often an obstacle to engaging in political action or expanding economic activities. Recent research has tried to show the relationships between this "reproductive work" and the "productive" sector of the economy – in particular, the dependence of all productive activities on the maintenance of a healthy labour force through this work at the household level, and the way in which the reproductive sector can be impacted by the fall-out of economic policies related to trade, investment and public expenditure.

There has been an important shift from focusing on how economic policies have affected welfare in a gender-specific manner, to depicting the manner in which gender biases have a negative effect on the outcome of these same economic policies.

#### **f. Violence against women**

Gender inequality is visible in gender-based violence, either by a woman's intimate partner (domestic violence) or relative, by an enemy army as a weapon of attempted 'ethnic cleansing' or in sexual exploitation or trafficking of women and girls.

#### **g. Discriminatory attitudes**

Gender inequalities are not only economic, but are also depicted in other ways that are difficult to measure and change. Ideas about appropriate behavior, independence, and aptitudes are often grounded in gender and vary for women and men.

#### **Check Your Progress Exercise 2**

**Note:** i. Use the space given below to answer the questions.

ii. Compare your answer with the one given at the end of this Unit

1. List the gender differences and inequalities that need to be focused on while designing a gender mainstreaming strategy.

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#### **Box 11.1 Gender Mainstreaming : Points to Remember**

Gender mainstreaming is not a new strategy. It is emphasized in the *Beijing Platform for Action* and builds on years of previous experience in trying to bring gender perspectives to the centre of attention in policies and programmes. In these efforts to both understand the issues and develop effective strategies, many lessons have been learned.

**i. The need for a broad strategy that targets major institutions and focuses on gender relations**

The mainstreaming strategy emerged as earlier approaches to narrowing gender gaps often focused on women (providing them with more education, more resources, etc.) and on specific targeted initiatives, without an effort to make policy changes. Over the last few decades, women's movements in the global south developed a critique of development models and institutions. They argued that just 'bringing women in' to current institutions and processes was not enough as the need was for greater women's participation in the process of development. There was an imperative to ensure that those structures and practices that perpetuate inequalities of all kinds were dismantled.

The issue of inequality needed to be resolved through improving relations between men and women as well as providing women greater access to resources and involvement in decision making at different levels.

**ii. Gender Equality contributes to other socio-economic goals**

Achieving gender equality brings in several benefits for an economy that is striving towards achieving balanced equitable growth and focusing on efficiency in utilization of resources. It can also strengthen economic analyses and provide new insights about demographic processes

**iii. Focus on people is a prerequisite**

Although, it is often difficult to understand the relevance of the gender mainstreaming strategy in technical programmes such as international trade, exchange rates or climate change, it is necessary to understand that all policies impact people and therefore, wherever people are impacted, the gender impact also needs assessment. Proposed climate change programmes do involve people – as consumers, as representatives of labor unions etc. - and it is important to understand the gender dimensions of these processes and the policies formulated to address them.

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### **11.6 GENDER EQUALITY AND ECONOMIC EFFICIENCY: EFFORTS BY THE UNITED NATIONS**

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Serious efforts to implement gender mainstreaming began in 1995 but huge gaps in implementation remain. In recent years, a more positive policy environment for gender mainstreaming has developed. The greater recognition of the importance of social dimensions of development has increased attention to aspects such as community participation and ownership. This has resulted in a stronger focus on specific groups, including both women and men. The emergence of a more holistic framework for poverty eradication and

sustainable development, with a strong focus on the empowerment of all stakeholders, also provides opportunities for greater responsiveness to the integration of gender perspectives.

Much more needs to be done, however, to attend to the links between social and economic development.

### **11.6.1 Implementation Within the United Nations**

Progress in implementation within the United Nations involves a focus on efforts of Member States at the intergovernmental level as well as the efforts within United Nations entities themselves. Some brief examples of progress at both these levels are provided.

The Commission on the Status of Women is the principal policy-making body on gender equality at the global level and gender mainstreaming is a standing item on the agenda of the Commission. The annual report of the Secretary-General provides information on efforts made within the United Nations system, and a resolution on gender mainstreaming is adopted by the Commission. Member States increasingly share experience and good practices on gender mainstreaming in their national statements to the Commission. Gender mainstreaming is a strong focus in the two themes that the Commission addresses annually, in the Secretary-General's reports on these themes, the panels of experts to discuss experiences in implementation and good practice examples, and in the high-level roundtable on institutional mechanisms which was introduced for the first time in 2003, as well as in the agreed conclusions (recommendations) adopted by the Commission. The Commission increasingly emphasizes the need for a stronger focus on implementation of the norms and recommendations adopted, including on gender mainstreaming.

in the past, the Commission on the Status of Women was the only intergovernmental body, which systematically took up gender perspectives. In recent years, other bodies including the Economic and Social Council and its functional commissions as well as some committees of the General Assembly regularly focus on gender equality issues. The Security Council has in recent years also brought gender perspectives into discussions of peace and security.

An annual report of the Secretary-General on gender mainstreaming in the functional commissions of the Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC) – to name a few – the Population Commission, the Commission on Social Development, the Commission on Sustainable Development, the Statistical Commission – have been presented to the ECOSOC.

In 2001 the ECOSOC committed to working to ensure the integration of gender perspectives into the work of its functional commissions; to include a regular agenda item on its annual agenda; and to follow-up the ECOSOC agreed conclusions on gender mainstreaming from 1997 before 2005 (resolution 2001/41). In conjunction with the ECOSOC discussion of gender mainstreaming in 2002, the Division for the Advancement of Women organized a panel discussion (June 2002) to discuss good practices, challenges in bringing gender perspectives into the work of the functional commissions of ECOSOC which focused on crime prevention, social development and forestry. Constructive discussions on the importance of gender mainstreaming and the need for practical approaches were held with Member States.

In resolution 56/133 the General Assembly pointed out the importance of incorporating gender perspectives into follow-up of the Millennium Declaration. The Millennium

Development Goals, arising from the Millennium Declaration, provide the framework around which the United Nations organizes its work.

An area where clarification of gender perspectives has led to substantial progress is the field of human rights. The work of the human rights treaty bodies, thematic and country rapporteurs, as well as the resolutions of the Commission on Human Rights, is increasingly informed by gender analysis. The Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) monitors the implementation of gender mainstreaming. States Parties refer to progress in gender mainstreaming in their reports to the Committee; gender mainstreaming is raised in the constructive dialogue; and the Committee highlights the strategy as relevant in the Concluding Comments prepared. Some progress has been made in areas where previously little attention was given to gender perspectives.

Discussions in the Security Council, based on the Secretary-General's report, concluded that not enough has been done since the adoption of the resolution to give attention to gender perspectives within the United Nations and by Member States. A Presidential Statement on women, peace and security, adopted by the Council on 31 October 2002, highlights what further needs to be done to move positions forward.

An important development in the intergovernmental process is also the development of a strong constituency for gender mainstreaming among Member States. Over the past few years, representatives of around 20 missions have met on a regular basis in New York to discuss how gender perspectives can be more effectively incorporated into intergovernmental processes, the work of the United Nations system, as well as within their own missions.

### **11.6.2 Within the United Nations Entities**

Entities of the UN system have increasingly focused on implementation of gender mainstreaming. There has been a strong emphasis on development of policies. These include overall organization policies on gender equality, such as that recently developed in UN HABITAT, World Bank and the World Food Organization, as well as policies on gender equality in relation to specific sectors, such as on decent work in ILO, water resource development in UNDP and agriculture in FAO. Less has been done in terms of ensuring adequate attention to gender perspectives in mainstream sector policies, i.e. in existing policies on water, energy, entrepreneurship, macro-economic development. Experience has shown that policies on gender equality are only effective if implementation strategies or action plans are developed, such as that developed recently in the Department of Disarmament Affairs or under development in the Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs.

United Nations entities have continued to work at operational level to ensure that gender perspectives are taken up in data collection, research, analyses and in the planning, implementation and monitoring of projects and programmes. Some examples of these can be found in the kits on gender mainstreaming prepared for the Economic and Social Council in 2002.

Considerable work has been done within United Nations entities on institutional development, such as capacity building including training, methodology development, and development of monitoring and accountability mechanisms. The Department of Economic and Social Affairs has, for example, developed and delivered a training programme for all its professional staff on gender mainstreaming, with a more hands-on approach, using

consultation sessions rather than traditional training methodologies. The ILO has carried out a Gender Audit to ascertain the level of gender awareness and the progress made in bringing attention to gender issues in parts of the organization. WHO, UNFPA, UNICEF, UNHCR and other entities have focused on gender mainstreaming in programme budget processes which led to increased attention to gender perspectives in the most recent budget documents.

### **11.6.3 Development of Tools for Gender Mainstreaming**

Progress has also been made in putting together tools for gender mainstreaming, including guidelines, manuals, and checklists. To mention a few : In the areas of disarmament, sustainable development, social development, and crime prevention and drug control, briefing notes have been prepared by different parts of the United Nations Secretariat. The briefing notes comprise three sections. The first section introduces the linkages between gender perspectives and the issue being discussed; the second section provides some ideas on what might need to be done differently as a result of understanding these linkages; and the third section provides a resource listing with good references, websites, etc., to assist in developing a deeper understanding of how to bring gender perspectives to the centre of attention in relation to the issue/sector under discussion.

Almost all United Nations entities have gender experts or gender focal points (non-specialists who are assigned to spend part of their time on catalyzing for and monitoring progress in gender mainstreaming). The mandates, access to decision-making processes, support from high levels and resource allocations of these experts and focal points vary considerably across the United Nations systems. A strong inter-agency network of gender specialists and focal points has been established in the United Nations which brings together representatives of more than 60 United Nations bodies to share experiences and good practice on gender

mainstreaming. Through taskforces, organizations come together within the network to promote gender mainstreaming in different areas, such as programme budgets, financing for development, ICTs, trade and water.

UNIFEM South Asia Regional Office works with governments, NGOs and other stakeholders in the subregion (Bangladesh, Bhutan, India, Maldives, Nepal, Pakistan and Sri Lanka) to promote gender mainstreaming in the development process, based on the definition in ECOSOC 1997/2: “Mainstreaming a gender perspective is the process of assessing the implications for women and men, of any planned action including legislation, policies or programmes, in any area and at all levels” to achieve gender equality.

#### **11.6.4 Gender Mainstreaming: The Prerequisites and Instruments**

Decisions about allocations of development resources and opportunities are made by an interrelated set of ideas, development directions and organizations: collectively referred to as the Mainstream which decides who gets what and also provides a rationale for the allocation of societal resources and opportunities. Therefore, if gender equality has to be achieved, it is essential to address those larger processes, paradigms, and institutional structures that constitute the mainstream.

How can Gender mainstreaming be achieved? There are two aspects of gender mainstreaming:

- a. Technical dimension: In order to be successful, mainstreaming requires reliable data, sound theoretical underpinnings and people with the ability to spot opportunities and interpret gender equality requirements to varied groups.
- b. Political dimension: Promotion of women as decision makers and supporting women’s collective efforts to redefine development agendas; in other words, not increased participation

alone in an unequal development process, but enabling women to collectively assess their situations and express their priorities and concerns, and strengthening women's voices, participation and influence, to reset agendas and redefine paradigms.

**Instruments of gender mainstreaming:**

- Policy coordination
- Legislation
- Training and sensitization
- Gender analysis
- Institutional development
- Advocacy and awareness generation
- Engendering planning
- Monitoring of policy and programmes
- Sex-disaggregation of data
- Building gender competence as a legitimate area of specialization
- Capacity development in gender analysis in different sectors
- Countering gender-based violence and engendering the justice systems
- Engendering process of resource allocation
- Ensuring women's participation at all levels of decision-making
- Access to information at different levels
- Adopting a human rights framework
- Decentralization of decision-making processes
- Gender-sensitive plans and policies
- Gender-sensitive enforcement and justice systems

### **11.6.5 Effective Gender Mainstreaming**

Gender mainstreaming for being effective requires an attention to the following:

- Clear strategies for gender mainstreaming backed by political will,
- Clear action plans including qualitative and quantitative targets with accountability mechanisms
- Clearly defined management responsibilities for gender mainstreaming
- Strong links between gender mainstreaming and other organizational priorities
- Networking with NGOs – Alliance Building and Partnerships with women's movement within the country and the International Women's Movement

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## **11.7 GENDER MAINSTREAMING EFFORTS IN ASIAN COUNTRIES**

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In South Asia, most countries have made efforts to improve the socio-economic status of women by formulating various action-based policies. The gender mainstreaming initiatives undertaken by Maldives, Pakistan, Nepal, Sri Lanka and China are presented briefly below :

### **Maldives**

As institutional mechanisms, the Maldives has the Ministry of Women's Affairs and Social Welfare and the National Women's Council at the national level and the Island Women's Committee and the Ward Women's Committee at the local level. In terms of major plans, policies and programmes, since 1997, the Action Plan for the Implementation of the Platform for Action is in place. In addition, the National Policy of Action for Women's Development is currently being finalized and the national family law is being drafted to enhance women's status.

Since 1995, sex-disaggregated data collection is in practice and special focus is given to women in technical education and credit. UNIFEM supported the engendering of the Third Development Plan. It also assisted the Ministry of Planning and Environment in conducting a national survey on sex-disaggregated data for the first time in collaboration with the Department of Women's Affairs. UNIFEM provided consultancy services towards drafting the framework and programmes for gender mainstreaming in Male and in the atolls. UNIFEM also supported the publication of a directory of women senior government positions in 1996 and, after the Beijing Conference, the publication of the biannual magazine "*Hiyala*" on women's issues.

### **Pakistan**

In Pakistan, efforts have been made to mainstream gender in the planning process. The Information Network for Women in Development (INWID) group was set up by UNIFEM to incorporate gender concerns in the Eighth Five-Year Plan of Pakistan. This comprised WID focal points of all donor agencies and the United Nations bodies. INWID held dialogues with the Planning Commission and helped in drafting the chapter on women in development of the Plan as well as drawing a gender check list for the Plan. It also helped to identify a list of resource persons and women's organizations to look at the gender aspect of all chapters.

INWID had received the legitimacy to be included in the advisory board of the Government of Pakistan for the preparation of FWCW. INWID was renamed Information Network for Gender and Development (INGAD) and exists as a consultative forum. ESCAP and UNIFEM assisted a national programme on compiling and dissemination of sex-disaggregated data,

including an analysis of law for the project, “Work of the Human Rights Commission and the Gender and Laws”, and gender sensitization of the 1998 Census Process.

## **Nepal**

In order to mainstream gender considerations into national development, the National Planning Commission (NPC) was supported to examine the structural obstacles to women’s full participation in the development process and to identify corrective measures in policy, institutional responsibility and legal frameworks.

Different methodologies were adopted for this task :

**First**, previous (sixth, seventh and eighth) Five-Year Plans were reviewed with special attention to the sectoral WID policies so that WID priorities could be integrated into other sectoral plans.

**Second**, the databases of several sectoral ministries (Agricultural, Tourism, Trade and Industry, Water and Power) were examined.

**Third**, a comprehensive review of the Constitution of Nepal was conducted. Reviews of the institutional framework and legal frameworks have also been conducted. ADB and IFAD assisted a programme on “Extending Production Credit to Rural Women” and UNIFEM complemented it with a project to “Build Gender Issues in Development Planning and Credit Programmes”. They contributed to mainstreaming gender considerations into the national development and benefit monitoring and evaluation assistance. The Agriculture Perspective Plan was extensively reviewed as a priority in order to examine the linkages between the macro level policies and micro level projects and, importantly, to examine the need for it to reflect WID components. Consultations were held by the project team with sectoral ministries, NGOs, donors

and stakeholders. Gender sensitization sessions and workshops were conducted by the team for various offices of the government, including the NPC as well as with NGOs.

Gender Advocacy was a constant exercise of the team in its interaction at all levels with the government, NGOs and donors.

### **Sri Lanka**

Sri Lanka has the Ministry of Women's Affairs which was established in 1997. As institutional mechanisms it also has the Women's Bureau, the National Committee on Women, Focal Points in all ministries and Women's NGO Forum. UNIFEM supported a project to strengthen the national machinery for the advancement of women. In terms of major plans, policies and programmes, the National Plan of Action (1996) is the key. For women's economic empowerment, the Women's Bureau operates the Revolving Fund to provide women with low interest and collateral free credits, while the State Poverty Alleviation Programme recognizes spouses as the joint recipients. The reform of the penal code aims to criminalize incest and sexual harassment. Women's Desks were established in main police stations. In the area of politics, a proposal was made to reserve 30 per cent quota for women in the Assemblies.

### **China**

According to Ms. Wang Xinxia, Deputy Division Director, Department of International Organizations and Conferences, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, China, her country has undertaken several initiatives for gender mainstreaming, and these are described below.

Since the Fourth World Conference on Women, which was held in Beijing, the Government of China has placed emphasis on implementing the Beijing Platform for Action, especially the strategies to eradicate poverty among women. China completed a five year programme

from 1995 to 2000, with a specific task to bring down the number of women living in poverty by one million. This objective was basically fulfilled. China is now implementing a new ten-year programme (2001-2010). This sets forth strategies and measures to ensure equal rights and access to economic resources and social services between women and men, aiming to reduce the number of women living in poverty.

China is a developing country with 1.2 billion people. In the country, poverty, especially women's poverty, is a complex and multidimensional problem. Women's poverty has many causes. For example, women's disadvantaged position in resource allocation and in developing and utilizing their potentials can cause their poverty. At the same time, poverty can have different meanings, such as inadequate income or resources. Lack of education or lack of access to other social services, health problem, living environment, as well as gender discrimination and women's inadequate participation in decision making and social and cultural activities can lead to poverty. The Government has taken several measures.

First, it increases financial input to provide special support for the poorest counties that are so identified by the national government. In China, there are basically three categories of poor counties, of which the "national category counties" are the poorest with approximately per capita income below 600 yuan per year. By 1999, the national government had allocated 130 billion yuan for poverty alleviation in these counties, with an annual increase of 14.2 per cent in Government input.

Secondly, the Government uses various channels as a means to help the development of poor areas. According to the local conditions, the government developed "exchange of labour".

Usually there is less land and more labour force in the south, while there is more land and less labour in the north. Responding to this specific situation, the Government would encourage the farmers in the south to go to the north to work during the harvest season. This

is the “exchange of labour”. The Government also encourages people living in the areas with harsh natural conditions, such as the areas stricken with natural disasters, drought, floods or desertification, to move to areas with better conditions.

Third, microcredit proved a successful strategy for women’s economic empowerment as women are the major recipients and beneficiaries of microcredit. In addition, the Government allocated more loans that were earmarked for poverty eradication on preferential terms, with the interest rate at 3 per cent. From 1995 to 1999, 43.5 billion yuan was allocated as credit to farmers’ households, many in the rural areas. For effective loan programmes, international cooperation with the World Bank and other international financial development institutions is important.

The fourth is a measure targeted for urban areas: the Government conducted a major reform in social relief system in urban areas in 1995. The Government gradually established a minimum living expense mechanism, including unemployment insurance. In 1999, the government raised the relief safeguard and began to provide more aid to city residents with low incomes.

The fifth measure has been in the use of sex-disaggregated data on poverty, which is now in practice in some provinces. For example, in Shanxi Province, the provincial government made it a principle not to approve a poverty alleviation programme that did not cover women.

Education is another important element of poverty eradication measures. In China, many social relief activities and programmes to improve female education are under way. For example, a programme called *springboard* was started in 1992 to help girls complete their nine year compulsory education. Since 1992, this programme has helped one million girls to finish their education.

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## 11.8 SUMMING UP

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To briefly conclude it can be stated that the above mentioned case studies point to the realization by governments that women's issues need special attention and that development without improving the condition of women is lopsided. Although the focus of policy remains more on alleviating poverty and empowering women, this can be taken as the initial steps for preparedness of countries to internalize gender mainstreaming at the policy level.

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## 11.9 GLOSSARY

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**Sensitization:** Attempt to make oneself or others aware of and responsive to certain ideas, events, situation or phenomenon.

**UN Habitat:** The United Nations Human Settlements Programme, UN-HABITAT, is the United Nations agency for human settlements. It is mandated by the UN General Assembly to promote socially and environmentally sustainable towns and cities with the goal of providing adequate shelter for all.

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## 11.10 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS EXERCISES

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### Check Your Progress Exercise 1

1. Gender equality strives to achieve equality between socially constructed gender categories in terms of social, cultural, political and economic sphere. Where as gender mainstreaming analyses and induces the process of establishing equality and equity in the society.

### Check Your Progress Exercise 2

1. 1. Seeking information about the responsibilities, activities, interests and priorities of women and men, and the manner In which their experience of problems differ.

2. Questioning assumptions about “families”, “households” or “people” that may be implicit in the way a problem is stated or a policy is formulated.
3. Obtaining information so that the experiences and situation of both women and men can be analyzed.
4. Seeking the inputs and views of women as well as men about decisions that will affect the way they live.
5. Ensuring that activities which are women dominated (including domestic work) receive attention.
6. Understanding that all women or all men do not share the same needs and perspectives.
7. Need for an analysis of the issues and proposed policy options for implications from a gender perspective.

### **Check Your Progress Exercise 3**

1.

- Inequalities in political power
- Inequalities within households
- Differences in legal status and entitlements
- Gender division of labour within the economy
- Inequalities in the domestic/unpaid sector
- Violence against women
- Discriminatory attitudes

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### **11.12 QUESTIONS FOR REFLECTION AND PRACTICE**

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1. Explain how to incorporate gender perspective in policy analysis.
2. What are the instruments required for mainstreaming gender? Briefly explain them.
3. Analyse the strategies of effective gender mainstreaming.

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## **UNIT: 12 RURAL URBAN DIVIDE**

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### **Structure**

12.1 Introduction

12.2 Objectives

12.3 Gender Concern in Indian Planning

12.4 Demographic Divide

12.4.1 Population

12.4.2 Sex Ratio

12.4.3 Literacy Rate

12.4.4 Gender Disparity in Primary School

12.4.5 Health

12.4.6 Crude Birth Rate

12.4.7 Crude Death Rate

12.4.8 Life Expectancy at Birth

12.4.9 Infant Mortality Rate

12.4.10 Agriculture

12.4.11 Poverty

12.4.12 Work Participation Rate

12.6 Glossary

12.7 Answers to Check Your Progress Exercises

12.8 References

12.9 Questions for Reflection and Practice

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### **12.1 INTRODUCTION**

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Rural- urban disparities, particularly in post-colonial countries, have for long been one of the causes of concern for the policymakers. The disparities are seen in all spheres of human life - economic and non-economic. The extent of disparities, however, differs from country to country. India is the largest democracy with consistent economic growth rate since independence. India is also third largest scientific and technological workforce. In agriculture India produces sugar, groundnut, tea, fruits, rice, wheat, Vegetables and Milk in a large scale. With regard to demographic profile more than 720 billion i.e. one third of its population live in rural areas. Despite these developments, there is a wide gap between rural and urban India with respect to technology, living condition, economic empowerment etc. Many in rural India lack access to education, nutrition, health care, sanitation, land and other assets and they are trapped into poverty. In rural India there is high number of Infant Mortality with low Life Expectancy at Birth Rate. Rural India mostly depends on agricultural sector. The growth rate in agricultural sector (primary sector) is 2-3 % when compared to secondary and tertiary sector which are growing at the rate of 8-12 %. Due to this there is a large scale migration of labour forces from rural to urban in search of employment. 8-12 % growth rate in the secondary and tertiary sector help Urban India as an emerging global information based economy still urbanization of poverty is a major concern. In this Unit you will study the rural-urban divide with the help of selected socio-economic indicators. Apart from this, condition of women in rural-urban area is also discussed in this Unit.

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## **12.2 OBJECTIVES**

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After studying this Unit, you should be able to:

- Explain the nature of rural-urban divide;

- Analyse rural-urban divide on the bases of select socio-economic indicators; and
- Examine the status of women in rural and urban India.

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### **12.3 GENDER CONCERN IN INDIAN PLANNING**

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The sharp increase in rural-urban disparities in India after decades of planned development is alarming. Planning is considered as an instrument to narrow down such disparities. India introduced centralized planning after independence for the overall socio-economic development of the country. India adopted five year and annual plans. The five year plans provide the overall direction and basic framework for policies, programmes and schemes for the ministries. Over the last six decades India's planning process has increasingly recognized the need to address the rural-urban divide and considerable budget allocation addressed these needs. Still differences persist. Along with the rural-urban divide gender inequalities also visible both in rural and urban areas. By realizing gender inequalities in rural and urban areas the government of India introduced monitoring of 27 beneficiary oriented schemes for women by the then department of women and child development in the seventh plan. The eighth plan period (1992-1997) highlighted the need for funds for the development of women. The monitoring of more schemes related to women was continued. Apart from this the ministry of finance established expert group in the year 2004 and recommended the establishment of gender budget cells in all departments. In the ninth plan (1997-2002) women's component plan is adopted which ensures not less than 30 % of the funds or benefits are earmarked in women related sectors. The tenth plan (2002-2007) adopted women's component plan and gender budgeting. Eleventh plan (2007-2012) mandated to establish the gender budget cells in all ministries and departments. In the year 2005-2006 budgetary allocations under ten demands for grants estimated at a total of Rs.14,379 crore were shown in a separate gender budget statement. In the 2006-2007 budget speech revealed

an estimated allocation of Rs.28,737 crore for benefit of women under 24 demands for grants in 18 ministries and departments. The Government of India also adopted gender mainstreaming approach and the ministry of women and child development will serve as a nodal agency for gender budgeting and gender mainstreaming programmes.

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## 12.4 DEMOGRAPHIC DIVIDE

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In this section we will study about the demographic nature of rural and urban India.

The total land area of India is 2,973,190 Sq.Km. Of which 70% of area comes under Rural which consists of 6,38,596 villages. Out of this 5,93,731 are inhabited villages. There are only 5,161 towns and 384 urban areas as per 2001 Census of India.

**Table No 12.1: Total Number of Villages**

| Details | Number of villages | Number of inhabited villages | Number of uninhabited villages |
|---------|--------------------|------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| India   | 638,596            | 593,731                      | 44,865                         |

Source: [www.indiastat.com](http://www.indiastat.com)

**Table No 12.2: Urban Agglomerations**

| Details | Number of UA | Number of Towns |
|---------|--------------|-----------------|
| India   | 384          | 5,161           |

Source: [www.indiastat.com](http://www.indiastat.com)

### 12.4.1 Population

From the below Table we can understand that rural population constitute more than one third of the total population of India. But with respect to other development indicators rural India is far behind. This we can understand from the following socio-development indicators.

**Table No 12.3: Population (2001)**

| India | Total             | Male              | Female            |
|-------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|
| Total | 1027015247        | 531277078 (51.7%) | 495738169 (49.3%) |
| Rural | 741660293(72.2%)  | 381141184 (51.3%) | 360519109 (48.7%) |
| Urban | 285354954 (27.8%) | 150135894 (52.6%) | 135219060 (47.4%) |

Source: Census of India, 2001

### 12.4.2 Sex Ratio

The sex ratio is the proportion of females to males in a given population, usually expressed as the number of females per 1000 males. In India the sex ratio as per 2001 Census is 933 female per 1000 males. In rural area this number is 946 females per 1000 males but in urban area this ratio is lower than all India average. This obviously shows that the urbanization process in India does not bring desired social changes and did not bring any positive attitudinal change towards women. Advanced technologies influenced the urban masses to terminate the girl child in the foetus itself. High mortality of women during pregnancy is also one of the reasons for low sex ratio. You can substantiate this argument by looking at the overall maternal mortality rate in India. This coupled with gender bias at health care and less social attention to girl child results in missing women.

**Table No 12.4: Sex Ratio**

|       |     |
|-------|-----|
| India | 933 |
| Rural | 946 |
| Urban | 900 |

Source: Census of India, 2001

### **12.4.3 Literacy Rate**

Education plays a pivotal role in laying a proper foundation for the overall social and economic development of any region. No single nation in the world with illiterate and uneducated people is developed or advanced. Education is an investment that contributes to individual and social development.

Many developing countries have achieved universal primary education enrolment as a result of their efforts over the past decades. In particular last 50 years many developing countries invested more resources in education. The rate of growth of educational system exceeded the rate of economic growth. As per the millennium Development Goals the following targets are proposed to be achieved by the year 2015.

1. All children to complete full course of five years of primary education.
2. Eliminate Gender disparity in primary and secondary education by 2005 and in all education by 2015.

After independence India started its planning process but the impact of colonial legacy influenced our educational system but still we concentrate on achieving universal primary education, mass education, adult education etc. The constitution of India has resolved to provide free universal primary education. It stated that “the state shall Endeavour to provide, within a period of 10 years from the commencement of this constitution, for free

and compulsory education for all children until they complete the age of 14 years (Article 45). From the first five year plan onwards, Government of India concentrated on education as well as economic growth. But only in the year 1966 the Kothari commission stressed the relationship between education and productivity and the critical role of education in National development clearly. The fifth five year plan recognized education as a key factor in production. However, many countries are still far from achieving this goal. The 42<sup>nd</sup> amendment to the constitution in 1976 brought education which was largely a state responsibility into the concurrent list making the education as the responsibility of both the state and centre. The 73<sup>rd</sup> and 74<sup>th</sup> constitutional amendment stressed the greater role of panchayats in education especially elementary education and the 86<sup>th</sup> amendment to the constitution in the year 2002 made education as a fundamental right.

The following table shows the percentage of literate population. This will help us to understand where India stands in its educational status.

**Table No 12.5: Literacy Rate**

|       | <b>Total</b> | <b>Male</b> | <b>Female</b> |
|-------|--------------|-------------|---------------|
| India | 64.8%        | 75.3%       | 53.7%         |
| Rural | 58.7%        | 70.7%       | 46.1%         |
| Urban | 79.9%        | 86.3%       | 72.9%         |

Source: Census of India, 2001

Literacy is an effective tool for empowerment. The following factors like women's education, women's ownership pattern, employment opportunities and the working of the labour market are important for empowerment. All international conferences like Beijing Platform for Action, Millennium summit have given importance to literacy. If human beings are educated

their productivity will increase and they concentrate on their well-being. In India only 58.7 % of people are literate in rural areas. Whereas this percentage is higher in urban areas which accounts for 79.9 %. In rural areas percentage of male literate is 70.7 nearing urban literacy percentage. But literacy among women in rural area is very low. This also contributed to the low development of socio-economic indicators in rural areas. In spite of several measures taken by both central and state government, literacy rate remains to be low in India, particularly in Rural India. This is reflecting in all educational indicators also.

#### 12.4.4 Gender Disparity in Primary School

With regard to educational indicators in primary, secondary and tertiary level rural India is lagging behind urban India. The Right to Education Act (RTE) passed in August 2009 has committed the Government of India to the provision of free and compulsory education to all Indian children. To measure the educational status at the school level there are several indicators. With regard to Net attendance Rate there is not much difference between rural and urban areas, among male and female in urban India and male Net attendance rate is higher than female. Several studies cited the reasons for the low attendance rate in rural areas. Familial commitment, migration, climate induced disasters, famine and poverty led the girl children to abandon schools in rural areas. Rapid urbanization and globalization led to the development of many slums in the urban India. Children in urban areas are also lack access to schools.

**Table No 12. 6: Net Attendance Rate – Primary**

|       | <b>Total</b> | <b>Male</b> | <b>Female</b> |
|-------|--------------|-------------|---------------|
| India | 88.3%        | 85.2 %      | 81.4 %        |
| Urban | 88.5         | -           | -             |

|       |      |   |   |
|-------|------|---|---|
| Rural | 81.5 | - | - |
|-------|------|---|---|

Source: Demographic and Health Surveys 2005-2006

Like primary school the net attendance rate of secondary school in rural areas is very low and it is only 49.1 %. This figure is slightly higher in urban areas. But the figure is not promising in both rural and urban areas.

**Table No 12.7: Net Attendance Rate – Secondary**

|       | Urban | Rural |
|-------|-------|-------|
| India | 64.2  | 49.1  |

Source: Demographic and Health Surveys 2005-2006

### Check Your Progress Exercise 1

**Note:** i. Use the space given below to answer the questions.

ii. Compare your answer with the one given at the end of this Unit.

1. Define Sex ratio and list out some of the reasons for low sex ratio in India.

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#### 12.4.5 Health

Status of health shows the development of the society. This health status is influenced by different indicators like employment, income, educational attainment, social groups, level of awareness, accessibility to health care and availability of health services. Poor health leads to deficiency in human capabilities and it also shows the level of deprivation among the people. There is a close linkage between health and poverty and health and development but the relationship is very complex. So poor health is considered as the major constraint of development. Health being the basic rights of all individuals, they are entitled to have quality health care service, safe drinking water, sanitation and so on. It becomes the obligation of the government to care for the health condition of the people.

Health is wealth. Good health and nutritional status is one of the indicators of the overall well being of population and human resources development, and also an important component of human capability. In few states like Kerala, Tamil Nadu in India there has been a significant improvement in the health and nutritional status. Over the last two decades India had a steady improvement in the health condition of its people. But the percentage of underweight children and severely malnourished children is alarming. India has number of programmes for childhood care for survival growth and development and better nutritional status of pregnant and lactating women.

However, sub-clinical malnutrition incidence of low weight for age, anaemia, disability and hunger still continues to prevail among children in the lower socio-economic sections of the population particularly in rural India. This prevents them from reaching their full potential as vibrant and productive adults. Among upper socio-economic groups in urban India new problems of malnutrition such as obesity are manifesting themselves which arise

out of increased consumption of processed and refined foods combined with sedentary life styles. This leads to great rural-urban divide in the health status. To measure the health status indicators like birth rate, death rate, total fertility are, percentage of anemia, Doctor-patient ratio are used. Government of India collects these data regularly and analyze and publish. These data are published in the form of National Family Health Survey and District Level Household Survey. Being a signatory of all UN conferences and summits, Government of India is taking number of measures to improve the health status and to minimize the rural-urban divide.

**Table No 12.8: Percentage of Anaemia**

|                                              | <b>Total</b> | <b>Urban</b> | <b>Rural</b> |
|----------------------------------------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|
| TFR                                          | 2.7          | 2.1          | 3.0          |
| Children 6-35 months who are anaemic         | 78.9         | 72.2         | 80.9         |
| Ever married women age 15-49 who are anaemic | 56.2         | 51.5         | 58.2         |
| Pregnant Women age 15-49 who are anaemic     | 57.9         | 54.6         | 59           |
| Ever married men age 15-49 who are anaemic   | 24.3         | 17.2         | 27.7         |

Source: NFHS-3 2005-06

**Table No 12. 9: Availability of Facilities**

|                                                      | <b>Total</b> | <b>Rural</b> | <b>Urban</b> |
|------------------------------------------------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|
| % of Household that have Electricity                 | 70.3         | 59.8         | 92.2         |
| Have access to Toilet Facility                       | 49.3         | 34.1         | 80.8         |
| Live in a kachcha house                              | 35.5         | 46.4         | 12.9         |
| Live in a Pucca House                                | 32.7         | 19.6         | 60.2         |
| Improved source of drinking water                    | 84.4         | 79.6         | 94.4         |
| Lowest Wealth Quintile                               | 20           | 24.9         | 2.7          |
| Highest wealth Quintile                              | 20           | 9.9          | 55.3         |
| Mean age at marriage for boys                        | 24           | 23.4         | 25.5         |
| Mean age at marriage for girls                       | 19.8         | 19.2         | 21.2         |
| Births to women during age 15-19 out of total births | 5.6          | 6.4          | 3.5          |
| Mothers who                                          | 75.2         | 70.6         | 87.1         |

|                                                          |      |      |      |
|----------------------------------------------------------|------|------|------|
| received and Ante-natal Checkups                         |      |      |      |
| Institutional Delivery                                   | 47.0 | 37.9 | 70.5 |
| Delivery at home                                         | 52.3 | 61.3 | 29.0 |
| Child immunization-Children 12-23 months fully immunized | 54.0 | 50.4 | 63.1 |

Source: DLHS-3 2007-08

Access to safe water refers to Percentage of the population who use any of the following types of water supply for drinking: piped water, public tap; borehole/pump; protected well; protected spring; rainwater. Improved water sources not include vendor-provided waters, bottled water, tanker trucks, and unprotected wells and springs. The numerator is the number of persons who use any of the following types of water supply for drinking: piped water, public tap; borehole/pump; protected well; protected spring; rainwater. The denominator is the total population.

The Indian state has the primary responsibility to supply safe drinking water to all the people in the country irrespective of their place of habitat. But the situation is far from desirable. The National Sample Survey (NSS) data (1998, 5th round) show that while 70.1 per cent of urban dwellers have access to piped water, in the case of the rural people it is as low as 18.7 per cent. Data on rural-urban disparity on the availability of sanitary facilities indicate the gravity of the problem. The NSS data indicate that 84.4 per cent of rural households are devoid of toilet facilities; in the case of urban areas it is 23 per cent.

Government of India by recognizing the importance of health in the process of economic and social development and improving the quality of life of Indian citizens it launched National Rural Health Mission for the effective basic health care system. It adopted the holistic approach by integrating into nutrition, sanitation, hygiene and safe drinking water. It undertook a number of measures like improving health infrastructure, pooling resources, integration of organization structure, optimization of health manpower etc. The goal of the mission is to improve the availability of and access to quality health care by people especially for those residing in the rural areas, poor, women and children. At the international level world Human Development Report and the reports prepared by World Health Organization reflect the health status of different countries and the report reflected India's position also. India also prepares country human development report. Ministry of Health and Family Welfare maintains the data related to health status. Over a period of time Government of India has increased the health expenditure in GDP.

#### 12.4.6 Crude Birth Rate

Crude Birth Rate (CBR) is defined as the number of live births in a given period per 1000 people in the same period it is usually expressed per year. As per the 2001 Census of India, CBR in total is 25.4 where as for urban it is 20.2 and for rural it is 27.1.

**Table 12.10: Crude Birth Rate**

| <b>Crude Birth Rate</b> | 2000 | 2001 |
|-------------------------|------|------|
| Rural                   | 27.6 | 27.1 |
| Urban                   | 20.7 | 20.2 |
| Total                   | 25.8 | 25.4 |

Source: Census of India, 2001

#### 12.4.7 Crude Death Rate

Crude death rate (CDR) is defined as the number of deaths per 1000 people in a given year.

From the below table it is evident that CDR is high in rural India when compared with urban India.

**Table 12.11: Crude Death Rate**

| Crude Death Rate | 2000 | 2001 |
|------------------|------|------|
| Rural            | 9.3  | 9.0  |
| Urban            | 6.3  | 6.3  |
| Total            | 8.5  | 8.4  |

Source: Census of India, 2001

#### 12.4.8 Life Expectancy at Birth

Data collected from the sample registration system show that while the life expectancy at birth in rural areas is 58 years, in the case of urban India it is 64.9 years. Kerala's performance again is noteworthy - 71.8 years in rural and 79.8 years in urban areas.

#### 12.4.9 Infant Mortality Rate

The Infant Mortality Rate (IMR) is the probability (expressed as a rate per 1000 live births) of a child born in a specified year dying before reaching the age of one if subject to current age-specific mortality rates. The indicator is the number of deaths of infants under one year of age in the indicated year per thousand live births in the same year. India has highest

incidence of IMR when compared with other south Asian countries. IMR is also high in rural areas amounting to 72 in 2001 and it pulls down India's overall status.

**Table 12.12: Infant Mortality Rate**

| Infant Mortality Rate | 2000 | 2001 |
|-----------------------|------|------|
| Rural                 | 74   | 72   |
| Urban                 | 44   | 42   |
| Total                 | 68   | 66   |

Source: Census of India, 2001

**Check Your Progress Exercise 2**

**Note:** i. Use the space given below to answer the questions.

ii. Compare your answer with the one given at the end of this Unit.

1. What is crude birth rate? And list out the figure of CBR in rural and urban India.

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### 12.4.10 Agriculture

Agriculture is the mainstay of most post-colonial countries. It supports roughly two-thirds of the workforce. But the lion's share of India's national resources is directed to the non-agricultural sector, as is evident from the table.

**Table 12.13: Sector-wise share in Gross Domestic Product (in percentage)**

| Sector                                | 1950-51 | 1970-71 | 1990-91 | 1995-96 |
|---------------------------------------|---------|---------|---------|---------|
| Agriculture<br>including<br>livestock | 48.7    | 39.7    | 28.7    | 25.0    |
| Forestry                              | 6.0     | 4.0     | 1.5     | 1.0     |
| Fishing                               | 0.7     | 0.8     | 0.9     | -       |
| All other<br>sources                  | 44.6    | 55.5    | 69.1    | 73.1    |

The agricultural sector has been growing at less than half the pace of the other sectors. During the Seventh Plan, agriculture and allied sectors grew at a rate of 3.4 per cent, while the national economy grew at 6 per cent. In 1997-98, there was a negative growth of 2 per cent in the agricultural sector, although the national economy grew by 5 per cent.

The slower rate of growth of agriculture has serious implications for the rural-urban relationship. In an article in *Alternative Economic Survey*, Kripa Shankar has shown that it

results in the further widening of the divide, as the following data relating to agricultural and non-agricultural gross domestic product (GDP) at 1980-81 prices indicate. The GDP per agricultural worker was Rs.2,442.49 in 1950-51, followed by Rs.3,196 in 1970-71 and Rs.3,627 in 1995-96. The GDP per non-agricultural worker rose sharply from Rs.4,469.63 in 1950-51 to Rs.9,179 in 1970-71 and to Rs.16,715.08 in 1995-96. There has been a further steep rise after the Central government accepted the Structural Adjustment Programme. While the GDP per agricultural worker rose from Rs.3,544.98 in 1990-91 to Rs.3,627 in 1995-96, the per non-agricultural worker rise was from Rs.14,660 to Rs.16,715.08 during the same period. The data tend to show that the ratio between the agricultural output per farm worker and the average output per non-farm worker, which was 1:1.83 in 1950-51, rose to 1:4.6 in 1995-96.

The introduction of the policy of liberalisation has affected non-farm employment in rural areas. In 1997-98, the annual increase in non-farm employment in rural areas was 4.06 per cent. In 1983-84 it was 3.28 per cent. During 1999-2000 it came down to 2.14 per cent. The consequence has been a very slow reduction in rural poverty. In 1993-94 it was 39.36 per cent, in 1999-2000 the figure came down marginally to 36.35 per cent.

Agricultural investments account for 10 per cent of the total investments in the country. The neglect of agriculture and allied sectors is evident from the budgetary allocation. It has never been more than 20 per cent. In 1997-98 the Central and State governments spent Rs.12,000 crores on the police, which was marginally lower than the Central and State plan outlay on agriculture and allied activities.

According to one estimate, the average income of an urban dweller is four times higher than that of a rural dweller. Rural deprivation becomes crystal clear if we look at the data on rural India's contribution to the GDP and what the rural areas get back. Rural contribution is 27 per cent but the return is 5 per cent.

THE Human Development Report of India (2001) attempted to divide the rural and urban household on the basis of their incomes as shown in the table. The income status is reflected in the per capita consumption expenditure. In 1999-2000 the per capita per month consumption expenditure on the rural areas was Rs.486.08 and in the case of urban areas it was Rs.854.96, according to HDR 2001.

In the Human Development Index prepared by the Planning Commission, there is a significant divide. The value for rural areas is 0.340, in the case of urban areas it is as high as 0.511. The index is a composite of variables capturing attainments in three dimensions of human development namely, economic, educational and health. The same is the situation in respect of the Human Poverty Index: rural 42.25 and urban 44.8.

**Table 12.14: Rural-Urban household income (in percentage)**

| Income groups                   | Rural | Urban |
|---------------------------------|-------|-------|
| Low income (Rs.20,000)          | 65.4  | 36.7  |
| Lower middle (Rs.20,001-40,000) | 23.2  | 33.1  |
| Middle (Rs.40,001-62,000)       | 7.5   | 17.1  |
| Upper Middle (rs.62.001-86,000) | 2.5   | 7.8   |
| High Income                     | 1.4   | 5.3   |

Source: Human Development Report of India, 2001

Data collected by the National Sample Survey Organisation (NSSO) show that the average per capita expenditure (MPCE) in rural India during 2000-01 amounted to Rs.499.90, which was a little over the corresponding figure of Rs.914.57 for an urban dweller. Interestingly, the

gap between the average for urban and rural areas has widened by over 8 percentage points between 1987-88 and 2000-01. As 1987-88 was a drought year, the increase in the disparity level is all the more significant. The NSSO data show that while 75 per cent of the country's population in 2000-01 resided in rural areas, they accounted for less than 62 per cent of the total consumption expenditure.

#### MPCE

**Table 12.15: Per 1000 distribution of households and population by MPCE class**

|               | <b>Rural</b> |            |               | <b>Urban</b> |            |
|---------------|--------------|------------|---------------|--------------|------------|
| ( Rs.)        | households   | population | ( Rs.)        | households   | population |
| less than 225 | 36           | 42         | less than 300 | 24           | 31         |
| 225 – 255     | 32           | 39         | 300 – 350     | 22           | 32         |
| 255 – 300     | 71           | 84         | 350 – 425     | 61           | 84         |
| 300 – 340     | 80           | 93         | 425 – 500     | 72           | 90         |
| 340 – 380     | 92           | 102        | 500 – 575     | 72           | 88         |
| 380 – 420     | 93           | 100        | 575 – 665     | 85           | 95         |
| 420 – 470     | 105          | 109        | 665 – 775     | 96           | 102        |
| 470 – 525     | 99           | 97         | 775 – 915     | 103          | 101        |

|             |     |     |              |     |     |
|-------------|-----|-----|--------------|-----|-----|
| 525 – 615   | 122 | 113 | 915 – 1120   | 126 | 116 |
| 615 – 775   | 121 | 104 | 1120 – 1500  | 140 | 119 |
| 775 – 950   | 63  | 52  | 1500 – 1925  | 78  | 61  |
| 950 & above | 84  | 63  | 1925 & above | 121 | 81  |

Source: Employment and Unemployment Situation in India January – June, 2004 NSS 60th Round (January 2004- June 2004)

The above shows the Monthly Per capita Expenditure of household in rural and urban areas in the 2004. The expenditure pattern of the rural area is lower than the urban areas.

#### 12.4.11 Poverty

If we look at the poverty data, a similar situation is noticed. India, a developing economy of over a billion people, recorded a relatively high economic growth during 1980-2000, especially during the 1990s, a decade known for noteworthy structural economic reforms. This period also recorded a decline in the incidence of poverty and improvement in parameters of human development such as levels of literacy, health and nutrition conditions. Development policies focussed on enhanced and targeted public investments in programmes that facilitated improvements in the quality of life of the masses, but the disparity remains.

Abusalef Shariff and others, in an article in *Economic and Political Weekly* (March 1, 2002), have shown that while the share of expenditure on urban poverty alleviation programmes in the total budgetary allocation by the Central government declined from 1 per cent to 0.8 per

cent during the period between 1990-91 and 2000-01, the per capita expenditure for urban poor increased from Rs.11 to Rs.28 during the same period. But for the rural poor, the per capita expenditure it is just one-eighth of this.

**Table 12.16: Estimates of Poverty (in percentage)**

| Year      | All India  | Rural      | Urban     |
|-----------|------------|------------|-----------|
| 1973-1974 | 54.9       | 56.4       | 49.0      |
| 1977-1978 | 51.3       | 53.1       | 45.2      |
| 1983      | 44.5       | 45.7       | 40.8      |
| 1987-1988 | 38.9       | 39.1       | 38.2      |
| 1993-1994 | 36.0 (317) | 37.3 (243) | 32.4 (75) |
| 1999-2000 | 26.1 (259) | 27.1 (195) | 23.6 (64) |

Note: Figures in parenthesis are population in million

Source: Economic survey, 2000-2001, Ministry of Finance, Government of India

**Table 12.17: National Poverty Ratio (Head count ratio)**

|                          | 1993-94 | 1999-2000 | 2004-05 |       |
|--------------------------|---------|-----------|---------|-------|
|                          | URP     | MRP       | URP     | MRP   |
| <b><u>RURAL</u></b>      |         |           |         |       |
| Poverty Ratio            | 37.3    | 27.1      | 28.3    | 21.8  |
| Number of Poor (Million) | 244.0   | 193.2     | 220.9   | 170.3 |
| <b><u>URBAN</u></b>      |         |           |         |       |
| Poverty Ratio            | 32.4    | 23.6      | 25.7    | 21.7  |
| Number of Poor (Million) | 76.3    | 67.0      | 80.8    | 68.2  |
| <b><u>TOTAL</u></b>      |         |           |         |       |
| Poverty Ratio            | 36.0    | 26.1      | 27.5    | 21.8  |
| Number of Poor (Million) | 320.4   | 260.3     | 301.7   | 238.5 |

Source: Arvind Virmani, THE SUDOKU OF GROWTH, POVERTY AND MALNUTRITION: Policy Implications for Lagging States , Planning Commission, Working Paper 2:2007 .

### **Box No 12.1 Urban Poverty**

#### **India-Urban Poverty Report 2009**

- **The urban population of India is increasing but not as fast as other Asian countries**

India has shared the growth pattern with some of the fastest growing regions in Asia. The country has witnessed around 8 percent growth in GDP in the last couple of years. India's urban population is increasing at a faster rate than its total population. Urbanisation has been recognised as an important component of economic growth. At 28 percent, the pace of urbanisation, however, has been slow and lower than the average for Asia. The absolute number of people in urban cities and towns, however, has gone up substantially. The researchers expect rate of urbanisation to also increase in the coming years. With over 575 million people, India will have 41 percent of its population living in cities and towns by 2030 from the present level of 286 million.

- **But this success has been accompanied by poverty in urban areas**

Urban poverty in India remains high, at over 25 percent. Over 80 million poor people live in the cities and towns of India. (Source: National Sample Survey Organisation's survey report). This is roughly equal to the population of Egypt.

- **This has resulted in the 'Urbanisation of Poverty'**

A large number of states report poverty figures in urban areas much above that in rural areas. At the national level, rural poverty is higher than poverty in urban areas but the gap between the two has decreased over the last couple of decades. The incidence of decline of urban poverty has not accelerated with GDP growth. As the urban population in the country is growing, so is urban poverty.

- **The nature of Urban Poverty poses different problems**

Urban poverty poses the problems of housing and shelter, water, sanitation, health, education,

social security and livelihoods along with special needs of vulnerable groups like women, children and aged people.

- **An increase in the slum population is one example**

11.2 million of the total slum population of the country is in Maharashtra followed by Andhra Pradesh (5.2 million), and Uttar Pradesh (4.4 million). Although the slum population has increased, the number of slums is lower (National Sample Survey Organisation's 58th Round), which makes them more dense. There is higher concentration of slum population in the large urban centres (Census, 2001).

- **Poor in slums do not have access to basic services like sanitation or water**

Poor people live in slums which are overcrowded, often polluted and lack basic civic amenities like clean drinking water, sanitation and health facilities. Most of them are involved in informal sector activities where there is constant threat of eviction, removal, confiscation of goods and almost non-existent social security cover. A substantial portion of the benefits provided by public agencies are cornered by middle and upper income households. 54.71 percent of urban slums have no toilet facility. Most free community toilets built by state government or local bodies are rendered unusable because of the lack of maintenance.

- **The homeless live an even more precarious life**

As per the 2001 census, the total urban homeless population is 7, 78,599 people. Delhi had 3.1 percent of the national level, and Bihar and Tamil Nadu had 1.6 percent and 7.3 percent respectively. Many people interviewed chose the streets because paying rent would mean no savings and therefore no money sent back home and hence the street was the only option for them. Their condition is chiefly linked to their lack of adequate shelter. In Delhi, for over a 100,000 homeless people, the government runs 14 night shelters with a maximum capacity of 2,937 people, which is only 3 percent of the homeless people in the city. Outside in the

walled city of Delhi, private contractors called thijawalahs rent out quilts (winter) and plastic sheets (monsoon) for five rupees a night. Iron cots are rented for 15 rupees a night. 71 percent said that they had no friends. In a study of homeless populations, homeless men, women and children in four cities reported that they were beaten by the police at night and driven away from their make-shift homes/shelters.

• **Does migration have a relation to urban poverty**

The report finds that the incidence of migration in India has shown an increase in 2001 as compared to consistent decline during 1961-1991. The economic motive remains the main reason for migration among male interstate migrants. Economically backward states keep losing people to developed states. Poverty incidence was found less among migrants as compared to non-migrants but it was higher among rural to urban migrants. Middle and higher income groups show higher propensity to move. The most successful group of migrants is urban to urban migrants in terms of type of occupation they have and their income levels due to better education and skills they possessed. Influx of migration towards Metropolitan cities indicates that economic reforms have not been able to create much employment opportunities in small and medium towns and in rural areas.

**Check Your Progress Exercise 3**

**Note:** i. Use the space given below to answer the questions.

ii. Compare your answer with the one given at the end of this Unit.

1. What are the problems posed by urban poverty?

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#### 12.4.12 Work Participation Rate

The labour force participation rate is an overall indicator of the level of market activity and its breakdown by sex and age group gives a profile of the distribution of the economically active population within a country. Work force participation rate in rural areas is higher with 41.97 where as it is 32.23 in urban areas. Among the workforce participation in rural area male constitute 52.36 % and female contributes 30.98 %. Female contribution in urban area is only 11.55

**Table No12.18 Work Participation Rate**

| All India | Total population |           |           | Total Workers |           |           | Work Participation rate |       |        |
|-----------|------------------|-----------|-----------|---------------|-----------|-----------|-------------------------|-------|--------|
|           | Persons          | Males     | Females   | Persons       | Males     | Females   | Persons                 | Male  | Female |
| 2001      |                  |           |           |               |           |           |                         |       |        |
| Total     | 1025251059       | 530422415 | 494828644 | 402512190     | 275463736 | 127048454 | 39.26                   | 51.93 | 25.68  |
| Rural     | 740255371        | 380438194 | 359817177 | 310655339     | 199199602 | 111455737 | 41.97                   | 52.36 | 30.98  |

|     |         |        |        |        |        |        |       |     |       |
|-----|---------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|-------|-----|-------|
| Urb | 2849956 | 149984 | 135011 | 918568 | 762641 | 155927 | 32.23 | 50. | 11.55 |
| an  | 88      | 221    | 467    | 51     | 34     | 17     |       | 85  |       |

Source: Census of India, 2001

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## 12.5 SUMMING UP

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Apart from taking steps to increase human development facilities in the villages, such as health and education, and develop appropriate infrastructure such as roads and marketing facilities, there is the need for generating employment, which can better the living conditions of villagers. We need to adopt a long-term policy, keeping in mind the requirements of the rural and urban areas. A close look at the development plan exercises tends to demonstrate that ad-hocism permeates the policy processes.

In the rural areas there are many resources lying unutilised. It is time to identify these and make proper use of them. The application of Information Technology can be of great help in identifying what is lying unutilised or underutilised.

In West Bengal, it is being done in some rural and municipal areas. Jalpaiguri has done a remarkable job in this regard. It is the only district in the State to go in for participatory decentralised planning. Under this programme, the people themselves prepared village registers, electoral constituency-wise (*gram sansad*). These registers are mines of information, and they record the people's perceptions of development. The database is important for the development planning exercise.

Kerala has shown the way through the people's campaign for decentralised planning. Rural-urban disparity is the least in Kerala. There is a rural-urban continuum, rather than a divide.

The people's campaign has definitely helped to make further improvement in the situation.

The fact, however, remains that these steps at the State level, no matter how significant they are, cannot fully take care of the problem unless there is a shift of policy at the national level.

This calls for sustained pressure from the bottom, that is, rural India. Secondly, urban development in a country like India has to dovetail with rural development. Otherwise, rural out migration will upset the applecart.

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## 12.6 GLOSSARY

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**Demography:** Demography is the statistical study of human populations. It can be a very general science that can be applied to any kind of dynamic human population, that is, one that changes over time or space. It encompasses the study of the size, structure and distribution of these populations, and spatial and/or temporal changes in them in response to birth, migration, aging and death. Demographic analysis can be applied to whole societies or to groups defined by criteria such as education, nationality, religion and ethnicity. Institutionally, demography is usually considered a field of sociology.

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## 12.7 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS EXERCISES

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### Check Your Progress Exercise 1

The sex ratio is the proportion of females to males in a given population, usually expressed as the number of females per 1000 males. Some of the reasons for low sex ratio in India are: female infanticide, female foeticide, son preference, missing women etc.

### Check Your Progress Exercise 2

Crude Birth Rate (CBR) is defined as the number of live births in a given period per 1000 people in the same period it is usually expressed per year. As per the 2001 Census of India, CBR in total is 25.4 where as for urban it is 20.2 and for rural it is 27.1.

### Check Your Progress Exercise 3

Urban poverty poses the problems of housing and shelter, water, sanitation, health, education, social security and livelihoods along with special needs of vulnerable groups like women, children and aged people.

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## 12.8 REFERENCES

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## 12.9 QUESTIONS FOR REFLECTION AND PRACTICE

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1. Explain the condition of women in rural India.
2. Give an account on the causes of urbanization of poverty.
3. Analyze the health status of rural and urban India.

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## **UNIT: 13 AGRICULTURE, INDUSTRY AND SERVICES**

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### **Structure**

13.1 Introduction

13.2 Objectives

13.3 Women in Agriculture

13.3.1 Case Studies of SEWA

13.3.1.1 Vanlaxmi Women Tree Growers Cooperative

13.3.1.2 Sabarkantha Women Farmer's Association

13.3.1.3 Sukhi Mahila SEWA Mandal

13.3.1.4 SEWA Gram Mahila Haat

13.3.2 Strategies Used for Empowerment by NRCWA

13.4 Women in Industrial Sector

13.4.1 Marginalization of Women workers

13.4.2 Recent Trends in Women's Work

13.5 Women in Service Sector

13.5.1 Women in Information Technology

13.6 Summing Up

13.7 Glossary

13.8 Answers to Check Your Progress Exercises

13.9 References

13.10 Questions for Reflection and Practice

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## 13.1 INTRODUCTION

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India is a multifaceted society where customs vary from region to region within the country, but various forms of gender discrimination is one common thing to all the working women of every segment of Indian society. Although most women in India work and contribute to the economy in one form or another, much of their work is not documented or accounted for in official statistics. There are estimates that over 90 percent of working women are involved in the informal sector and not included in official statistics (The World Bank, 1991). Thus, the actual labor force participation rate for women is likely to be higher than that which can be calculated from available data. Following data in table – 1 exhibits the Female Work Participation rate over the years:

**Table No 13.1**

**Female Work Participation Rate**

| <b>Year</b> | <b>WPR</b> |
|-------------|------------|
| 1911        | 33.73      |
| 1961        | 27.96      |
| 1971        | 11.86      |
| 1981        | 14.44      |
| 1991        | 22.69      |
| 2001        | 23.00      |

Source: Census of India, 2001

Work participation of women was above 33% in 1911. After that as mechanization took place in agriculture the work participation rate started coming down and was reduced up to 11.86% in 1971. In 1981 it was only 14.44% but it increased to 22.69% in just one decade. The

following sections describe the plight of women in different sectors of Indian economy, i.e, agriculture, industry and service sector.

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## **13.2 OBJECTIVES**

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After studying this Unit, you should be able to:

- find the historical view of women in agriculture, Industry and Services
- give suggestions for improvement of status of women in agriculture with the help of case studies and technological development
- describe the marginalization of women in industrial sector and recent trends
- examine the opportunities of women workers in ICT sector

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## **13.3 WOMEN IN AGRICULTURE**

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According to Swaminathan, the famous agricultural scientist, some historians believe that it was woman who first domesticated crop plants and thereby initiated the art and science of farming. While men went out hunting in search of food, women started gathering seeds from the native flora and began cultivating those of interest from the point of view of food, feed, fodder, fiber and fuel. Rural Indian women are extensively involved in agricultural activities. However, the nature and extent of their involvement differs with the landowning status of farm households. Their roles range from managers to landless labourers. In over all farm production, women's average contribution is estimated at 55% to 66% of the total labour with percentages, much higher in certain regions. In the Indian Himalayas a pair of bullocks works 1064 hours, a man 1212 hours and a woman 3485 hours in a year on a once hectare farm, a figure that illustrates women's significant contribution to agricultural production. (Shiva FAO, 1991)

Women are the backbone of agricultural workforce all over the world. She does the most tedious and back-breaking tasks in agriculture, animal husbandry and homes. In India, Most female and male main workers are employed in agriculture. Agricultural employment is divided into three categories in the census: cultivators, agricultural laborers, and other agricultural work. Most female workers are employed in lower-skilled, lower-paid positions, and are not the supervisors or owners of capital. Most female cultivators are members of a family that owns the land, rather than being the owners themselves (Kishwar and Vanita, 1985). Table - 2 gives percentage distribution of workers according to categories of workers by sex and by sector during 2001. The table reveals that as compared to men more women are engaged as agricultural labour and household industry workers in both rural and urban areas.

**Table No: 13.2**

**Percentage distribution of workers (main + marginal) according categories  
of worker by sex and by sector during 2001 for India**

| <b>Categories of<br/>workers</b>          | <b>Rural</b>  |             |              | <b>Urban</b>  |             |              |
|-------------------------------------------|---------------|-------------|--------------|---------------|-------------|--------------|
|                                           | <b>Female</b> | <b>Male</b> | <b>Total</b> | <b>Female</b> | <b>Male</b> | <b>Total</b> |
| <b>Cultivators</b>                        | 36.46         | 42.19       | 40.14        | 4.26          | 2.99        | 3.21         |
| <b>Agricultural<br/>Labour</b>            | 43.40         | 27.48       | 33.20        | 11.03         | 3.42        | 4.71         |
| <b>Household<br/>Industry<br/>Workers</b> | 5.44          | 2.83        | 3.7          | 12.93         | 3.50        | 5.10         |
| <b>Other<br/>Workers</b>                  | 14.70         | 27.49       | 22.90        | 71.7          | 90.09       | 86.98        |

|                    |        |        |        |        |        |        |
|--------------------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|
| <b>All workers</b> | 100.00 | 100.00 | 100.00 | 100.00 | 100.00 | 100.00 |
|--------------------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|

Source: Census of India, 2001

Despite the fact that women contribute more labour to Indian agriculture than men, land remains almost solely in male hands. Therefore, very few government schemes include landless women as beneficiaries. Thus women do not benefit from public agriculture development efforts. For example, although women constitute more than half of India's landless labour, neither the government's social forestry scheme nor their nursery scheme has a specific role for landless women.

**Table No: 13.3**

**Statistics about Women in India**

| <b>Sr.No.</b> | <b>Particulars</b>                                                                               | <b>Number<br/>(Million)</b> |
|---------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1             | Total Women Population (2001)                                                                    | 494.83                      |
| 2             | Total Women Workers (2001)                                                                       | 127.05                      |
| 3             | Total Women Main Workers (2001)                                                                  | 72.65                       |
| 4             | Total Women Marginal Workers (2001)                                                              | 54.40                       |
| 5             | Total Women Owner Cultivators (2001)                                                             | 41.30                       |
| 6             | Total Women Agriculture Wage Workers (2001)                                                      | 50.09                       |
| 7             | Total Women Household Industry Workers (2001)                                                    | 8.08                        |
| 8             | Total Women Other Workers (2001)                                                                 | 27.57                       |
| 9             | Total Women in Organized Sector (1999)                                                           | 4.80                        |
| 10            | Total Women in Livestock, Forestry, Fishing, Hunting, Plantation, Orchards and activities (1991) | 1.32                        |

Source: For serial numbers 1 to 8 Censuses 2001

For serial number 9th Tenth Five Year Plan

For serial number 10 census 1991

Table No 13.3 indicates that about 26% women are workers on record according to 2001 census. Out of these women workers more than 70% are engaged in agricultural sector and only 4.8 % are working in organized sector.

Although women constitute two-thirds of the agriculture work force, they own less than one-tenth of the agricultural lands. Women must be allowed to own land. Through soil regeneration activities and wasteland development, women can build productive assets while obtaining supplementary employment. Landless women need to be organized into cooperatives to avail of existing government schemes for land development and the creation of fodder farms and pasture land. (Padmaja reddy, 2003)

### **13.3.1 Case Studies of SEWA**

(This sub-section is based on the reference – Reema Nanavati, “Women Agriculture Workers”, *Seminar*, Nov, 2003)

Having identified the major issues like insecure profits, increasing cost of inputs, outdated practices, increased competition, environmental degradation, decreasing demand for labour, increasing labour supply etc., SEWA helped agriculture workers to form their own local organizations as cooperatives in a regional federation. These agriculture workers organizations aim to increase productivity, yield, bargaining power and income through educating small and marginal farmers on technical skills, methods of costing and pricing, and the implications and requirements of increasingly liberalized trade, building linkages with technical research and marketing organizations, collectively purchasing agriculture inputs at

lower rates, initiating alternative income generation activities such as agro-forestry, horticulture, vermi-culture and compost manufacturing. Following success stories indicate that collectively even asset less women can do wonders if they get some institutional support.

#### **13.3.1.1 Vanlaxmi Women Tree Growers Cooperative**

Due to rapid industrialization and the absence of necessary backward-forward linkages for inputs and marketing, the small and marginal farmers and agriculture workers in Mehsana district of Gujrat were slowly losing most of their land and assets. In particular, excessive irrigation from bore wells dramatically reduced the water table and rendered the remaining water high in fluoride content. With irrigation becoming expensive and without dependable rains, many small and marginal farmers were forced to either migrate or take to casual labour. Women agriculture workers were even harder hit. They could find no alternative work and often had to walk miles to collect the necessary fodder and fuel.

SEWA organized the women agriculture workers into a cooperative. They demanded and eventually received government revenue land. The struggle dragged on for two and a half years, until finally, with SEWA's continuous intervention, the revenue and cooperative departments came to a mutually agreeable alternative: the landless agriculture workers had to be registered as a tree growers' cooperative rather than as an agriculture workers' cooperative. They formed a cooperative for growing trees on government revenue wasteland and then only could the revenue wasteland be allotted.

Through the cooperative, women systematically planned to make optimum use of the available land employing a multi-faceted approach. With partnering the local research station of the Gujarat Agriculture University for technical assistance, they were able to maximize production and income by using scientific agriculture practices, including horticulture, agro-forestry, drip irrigation, compost pits and rainwater harvesting techniques. They utilized low-cost methods of boosting productivity such as designing cropping patterns to enrich the soil.

In all activities the cooperative encouraged participation of all village communities and women in their efforts.

Today, the Vanlaxmi cooperative stands as a model for the entire district demonstrating how the landless poor can successfully implement collective agriculture. Women who earned just Rs 15 as agricultural day labourers and were never engaged in matters of yield, sale, expenditure or market, are now recognized as farmers. They meticulously manage their land, tracking each and every cost. The cooperative has acquired improved equipment such as a power tiller, thresher and a drip irrigation system. The plan also ensures full employment for members and the land meets fodder and fuel needs of the village. As a licensed and authorized seed distributor by the Gujarat State Seed Corporation, the cooperative also provides timely and reasonably priced quality seeds not only to its own village but the entire area.

Since the land was allotted on a 15 year lease, the women will have to continue their battle to secure long term utilization that allows for long term planning and maximum benefit through entering the renewal process.

#### **13.3.1.2 Sabarkantha Women Farmer's Association**

Sabarkantha district of Gujrat is a semi-arid area heavily affected by soil erosion due to extremely sandy soil. This has resulted in ravine formation and overall land degradation, negatively affecting agriculture productivity and agriculture related employment.

SEWA organized the women agriculture workers/farmers into the Sabarkantha Women Farmer's Association. The association, with SEWA's support, has initiated watershed development techniques to check soil erosion. To supplement its activities, the cooperative also provides full employment for displaced agriculture workers by encouraging them to form tree-grower societies and start sapling nurseries.

In support of its economic interventions, the cooperative also organizes the women into self help and savings and credit groups and provides the necessary training for skill and leadership development, awareness generation and capacity building. Such local organization capacity building efforts ensure the members' self-reliance. Finally, the cooperative has linked up with various government development and welfare schemes to accelerate asset building for its members.

#### **13.3.1.3 Sukhi Mahila SEWA Mandal**

In 1991, the Sukhi dam submerged the land and villages of agriculture workers in the tribal areas of Pavi Jetpur in Vadodara district of Gujarat. As compensation, they were given land near the village resettlement sites. Whenever dams are constructed, working families in different trades and occupations are displaced and need rehabilitation.

The challenges faced by women-headed agricultural households are particularly complex. Therefore, they require more support and time to once again secure their livelihoods. Traditionally, these women survive through a mix of collecting forest produce, agriculture, dairying and/or poultry activities. When displaced, at best they receive only land; resettlement schemes fail to take into account their multifaceted survival strategy. Even the land itself is often less fertile, rocky, unleveled and far from the forests on which they depend. The land is not ready for immediate cultivation, yet women and their families have no other supplementary source of income.

SEWA organized the relocated workers into the Sukhi Mahila SEWA Mandal to initiate economic rehabilitation. Under the leadership of the women agriculture workers, they initiated land development and installed irrigation facilities. They also started alternative income generation programmes for the suddenly unemployed, including sapling nurseries, poultry units, animal husbandry, mushroom cultivation and social forestry initiatives.

#### **13.3.1.4 SEWA Gram Mahila Haat**

In 1999, SEWA Gram Mahila Haat, a state-level apex marketing organization was established with the help of Government of Gujarat's Commissioner of Rural Development to provide market, financial and technical assistance to small and marginal farmers and agricultural labourers. It attempts to eliminate dependence on middlemen and help members reach markets all over the country to sell their produce.

SEWA's experience in organizing agriculture workers to build their own associations underscores that different approaches and interventions must be adopted according to context specific needs and issues. Also, a holistic and integrated approach to agriculture development must incorporate technical training, introduction of appropriate technology, and natural resource development through watershed planning.

In all of its activities, SEWA has found that sustainable development depends on understanding the elements that fuel poverty and strategically working with women to address these aspects of their vulnerability through asset building, capacity building, organizing for collective strength and social protection. Action to strengthen the economic security of agriculture workers and their families can be best charted through this framework. The SEWA experience demonstrates that if technical training is provided to poor farmers, in particular women, they implement this knowledge in their own fields, harvest bigger yields, and reap higher incomes.

#### **13.3.2 Strategies Used for Empowerment by NRCWA**

The National Research Centre for Women in Agriculture (NRCWA) has been functioning at Bhubaneswar, Orissa, for developing women specific technologies under different production systems. At the initial stage of the project a package of instruction was provided regarding what rural women should do to endure health security, food security, economic security and livelihood security. The ergonomic management of drudgery undertaken by

Family Resource Management component aims at introducing women- friendly drudgery reducing technologies related to farm, home and allied activities. The pathways have highlighted on empowerment of knowledge, skill, decision making; economic and social empowerment. The data base on indigenous knowledge has strongly suggested for empowering women with knowledge on locally available plant sources for ensuring health security.

The components of AICRP on Home Science have moved towards empowerment of rural women through their respective thrust of research. Mobilization of self help groups (SHG) and creation of learning environment, the empowerment process through educational interventions, transfer of technologies, the feasibility trials and the out -reach programmes have contributed to significant gain in knowledge, adoption of women-friendly technologies for improving work efficiency, acceptance of technology for economic gain and improving various parameters of quality of life are the reflections of women's environment. Empirical evidences have revealed that women have moved from beneficiaries to active partners in shaping empowerment. The information strategies used by different components under AICRP on Home Science have encouraged women to play key role in micro - level planning, designing community infrastructure for information dissemination and mobilization of community resources - both human and material to gain benefits from the project.

|                                                                     |
|---------------------------------------------------------------------|
| <b>Check Your Progress Exercise 1</b>                               |
| <b>Note:</b> i. Use the space given below to answer the questions.  |
| ii. Compare your answer with the one given at the end of this Unit. |
|                                                                     |

1. Name the case studies of SEWA which describe the empowerment of women.

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### 13.4 WOMEN IN INDUSTRIAL SECTOR

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(This section is based on Based on - Samita Sen, Gender and Class: Women in Indian Industry, 1920-1990, Archives of Indian Labour, Integrated Labour History Research Programme, V.V.Giri National Labour Institute, Sector 24, NOIDA, Uttar Pradesh, India.)

The study of industrialisation and industrial labour has a long history in India. After Independence in 1947, 'working-class' histories were dominated by concerns of modernisation, national politics and working class consciousness. Little attention was paid to questions of gender. The common assumption was that the low proportion of women workers in the modern industrial sector rendered them irrelevant to stories of 'class'. The few women who did work in industry, mining or plantations were subsumed within the general definition of class. Question of women's work, their role in traditional or modern manufacturing has also had relatively little attention from practitioners of women's studies.

There has arisen, however, in the last two decades, a new interest in women's work leading to a corpus of information about contemporary developments. At this stage, legislation sought to regulate the condition of women actually engaged in factory work -- the hours of work, periods of rest, the prohibition of night work and/or the handling of machinery. These laws were for workers who were 'special' because they were women. And they were special in **three** ways: **first**, they also had to perform their reproductive roles as wives and

mothers; **second**, their physical weakness limited the kind of work suitable for them; and **third**, they were unable to uphold their own interests and thus needed the ‘protection’ of the state.

#### **13.4.1 Marginalization of Women workers**

In spite of these legislations and regulations, it was no longer accepted that the state should protect the ‘weaker’ sections of the workforce. Women workers, thus, were being marginalized on following multiple fronts: in actual exclusion from rapidly improving organized sector employment, from the political space that unionized labour aspired to and eventually occupied and even from more general public and ‘social’ concerns of the earlier decades.

i) The ‘organization’ of industry and labour is directly related to the decline in women’s employment. On the one hand, employers became less interested in women as the progress of welfare legislation reduced their cost advantage. On the other, the nature of the legislation helped to bring their reproductive roles into prominence and created a climate of public opinion against women’s employment in industry. Employers could then target women for retrenchment as a means of ‘rationalising’ the workforce.

ii) From the 1950s, the unions played an active role in eliminating existing women and hindering women’s recruitment. Such policies were only in part due to the prejudices of the middle class leadership, reflecting, much more importantly, the adult male workers’ status aspirations and desire for maintaining family authority.

iii) Men, who migrated to the city to supplement their household income, would not risk their status which influenced their foothold in the village by bringing their wives to the city. In Bengal, moralistic perceptions about working women were invoked by mill owners to postpone maternity benefit legislation for two decades. Chamber of Commerce, argued that the 'type of labour' did not need maternity benefit since 'normal family life was notoriously absent'.

It is significant to note that the proportions of women workers in the total factory population dropped at a fast rate immediately after the Bengal Maternity Benefit Act, 1939, was put on the Statute Book and again when the provision for maintenance of a creche by the employer was incorporated. Women labour were previously employed and are still employed mostly for the reason that they are cheaper than their male counterpart. Progressive labour legislation had made women labour costlier. Hence the general attitude of the factory management regarding employment of women is to 'do away with the women labour with a view to avoid in future expenses on special welfare benefits for women'.

The factories, mills and mines, which undertook the first large-scale retrenchment of women in the 1930s, were also to be the nucleus of the 'formal' sector covered by state regulation. These comprised the 'organized' sector not only because they were subjected to record and registration, but because, by the 1960s, their labour grew to be almost fully unionized with considerable bargaining strength vis-a-vis employers and the state. It was male workers who were successfully 'organized', unionized and brought within the purview of regulated wages and working conditions. Thus the process of *organization* went hand in hand with *masculinisation*. Indeed, it could be argued, women's marginalization was imbricated in the nature and development of organized working class politics.

It is not as though women were absent altogether from the formal sector. Indian factory workers were only *predominantly* male. In the early 1920s, women were about 15-20 per cent of the workforce in textile mills, nearly half and more than half of the workforces of mines and plantations. Their proportions began to decline from the 1930s. Over three decades, from the 1930s to the 1960s, women became increasingly marginal in working class politics.

The unions did not espouse their special grievances nor did they make any effort to include women within the ambit of union activity. Women's inability to find a space within the powerful trade unions reduced their ability to resist directed and gendered retrenchment policies of employers. Their share in formal sector employment was sharply reduced, increasing women's dependence on male income and reinforcing male authority within the household. This long-term trend became increasingly entrenched, even heightened, and values of female dependence were remarkably resilient in the face of pressures from the labour market.

#### **13.4.2 Recent Trends in Women's Work**

Increasing share of women in the workforce of the organized sector is reflected in data. The share of women in total employment in organized sector has gone up from 12.3 % in 1991 to 16.8 % in 2007. There is a great deal of concern regarding the impact of these developments on women. At a National Seminar on Policies and Strategies for Working Women in the Context of Industrial Restructuring (New Delhi, 1997), Gita Sen emphasised that the new economic regime of the 1990s created two simultaneous disadvantages for poor women in India. On the one hand, they faced increasing pressures to earn from petty self-

employment, in the informal sector and in production for larger industries. On the other hand, crumbling social security systems forced women to revert to being primary caregivers and responsible for the well-being of their communities.

While secure and privileged workers, women and men, in the more traditional manufacturing sector are under threat, in some new non-traditional export-oriented industries, women's employment opportunities have been expanding since the 1980s. These opportunities are being availed by new categories of women, who are for the first time entering, in some significant numbers, the manufacturing labour force. Parents are delaying marriage of daughters and accepting their employment even when it involves long daily commuting or long-distance migration. Though a highly restricted phenomenon, a beginning is being made in the creation of a labour pool of unmarried young women. It is believed that MNCs and export-oriented industries are committed to 'flexible' working and will automatically gravitate towards the least organised, most vulnerable and most flexible element in the labour market, the women.

This is the context in which the term 'feminisation' has gained currency. It can indicate the employment of larger numbers of women so that the gender profile of the labour force actually changes in favour of women. It can indicate, however, a very different process whereby the nature of jobs changes. From more secure and regular employment, the economy shifts to kinds of employment more associated with women, informalised, casualised, irregular, lower paid and insecure. In the latter case, both women and men workers are forced into this 'feminising' pattern.

The 1970s witnessed a clear case of the first phenomenon with the rise of the so-called New International Division of Labour. The rising transactional costs of labour in developed countries led the MNCs to relocate their operations and to shift the labour-intensive parts of production to 'Third world' countries. In the latter, women, especially young unmarried women, provided not only cheap labour, they also offered the crucial flexibility that mobile international capital required to serve their volatile markets. Thus, in the seventies and eighties many East and South East Asian countries experienced a 'feminisation' of factory work. Employers depended heavily on the 'cheap' and 'docile' labour of young unmarried women. This has also been the case in the Bangladesh garment industry, where women constitute some 60 per cent of the total workforce (while they are 7 per cent of the non-export-oriented industries' labour force).

There was also some increase in women's employment in other sectors. Nirmala Banerjee points out that while India's economy, under the leadership of a strong national bourgeoisie, remained inwardly oriented and low in export earnings, there was a growing emphasis on export of non-traditional items like garments, leather, food products, toys and jewellery. India's labour laws compared well with advanced industrialised countries and the political power of organised labour was strong. But the main workers in the new sectors were unorganised, often piece-rated female labour in sweat-shops or in home-based work. In addition, the 1970s and 80s also witnessed an increase in women's employment in non home-based manufacturing.

In a few select industries like gem and jewellery, women were employed in lower paid and unskilled tasks since technological developments allowed reduction of skilled male workers. In the electronics industry, which is highly mobile, there appears to be job rotation between

men and women. Generally speaking, the nineties saw a halting of the process of expansion of women's employment. This was partly an effect of a general slow-down but there were also some cases of substitution of women by men workers. In the plastics industry, trade unions in large and medium scale units signed an agreement with the management negotiating the fixation of tasks and designations. This has ensured that women are restricted to jobs in assembling and packing. As a result, they were removed from the machines they were operating. Sujata Ghosker also indicates that the expansion of women's employment in pharmaceutical companies (like Glaxo) was reversed when they decided to 'put out' some of their production to smaller scale units. These latter preferred to employ men.

No one dominant trend emerges from the above discussion but the tendency seems to be more towards loss rather than gain in women's employment. According to Nirmala Banerjee, there was not only no overall increase in women's employment in the manufacturing sector, but a sharp fall in the period immediately following the initiation of new economic policies both in rural and urban areas. She argues that there has been no radical change in the behaviour of the Indian economy after SAP; the major parameters affecting women workers have remained steady between 1981 and 1996. Earlier trends have been aggravated, however, leading to further deterioration in women's economic position.

|                                                                     |
|---------------------------------------------------------------------|
| <b>Check Your Progress Exercise 2</b>                               |
| <b>Note:</b> i. Use the space given below to answer the questions.  |
| ii. Compare your answer with the one given at the end of this Unit. |
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1. What are the main fronts on which women workers were marginalized in the industrial sector?

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### **13.5 WOMEN IN SERVICE SECTOR**

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The service sector, in its broadest sense, is defined as non-agricultural and non-manufacturing work. The academic literature is deeply divided on the question of whether the service sector provides a ladder to more gender equality, or whether it is likely to further ghettoize women into low-wage, low-productivity jobs. A key to understanding whether or not the service economy will advantage women, and whether or not skill-biased technological change will do the same, depend in large measure on the nature of the skills that are in growing demand, and the opportunities for women to compete effectively with men in the acquisition of such skills.

When we compare access to high-skilled and high-paid jobs, it is clear that women are at a disadvantage. This disadvantage, however, clearly depends on the skills involved. In terms of providing training and offering promotions, employers have an obvious incentive to discriminate against women due to the prospect of interrupted careers. Women are thus more likely than men to invest in general skills and/or in skills that are less prone to deteriorate by

not being used for some period of time. This implies a heavily gendered structure of educational choices that is probably reinforced through socialization.

As expected we find a strong positive relationship between men dominating occupations and highly specialized skills. It is also noted that since men on average participate more in the labor market than women, most occupations have an underrepresentation of women. However, women are overrepresented in jobs that require relatively low general skills (and tend to be low paid), reflecting the more pessimistic picture view of women's position in the service economy. Within the professions, however, it is the case that women tend to be in jobs and positions with lower pay and skills – teachers in primary and secondary education rather than in higher education; nurses rather than doctors, junior rather than senior associates, etc. – and they are notably underrepresented among senior officials and managers. The underrepresentation of women in high-powered careers is true even in countries, such as the U.S., where women match or exceed the educational attainment of men. Explanation for this may be found in a tendency for general skills to take on elements of specific skills at the upper end of the skills spectrum. Investment banking, law, medicine, etc., for example, have substantial elements of client contact that could be hurt with career interruption.

On the one hand women are well represented in the occupations that have expanded most rapidly over the past 30-40 years – something that has unambiguously improved the labor market opportunities of women. On the other hand, women are overrepresented in low-skill jobs where wages and working conditions are adversely affected by skill-biased technological change and where low productivity growth makes it hard to maintain wages in line with other occupations (Torben Iversen, Frances Rosenbluth, and David Soskice, 2004).

### **13.5.1 Women in Information Technology**

With the advent of the information age, Information Technology has become a potent tool for the economic growth and empowerment of people. It provides promising career opportunities in every one's day to day life, especially WOMEN.

Information and Communication Technology is the leading industrial sector that is attributed to high literacy rate, ability to communicate and high level of skills too. These attributes are closely associated to Women professionals and thereby fitting appropriately into any Information Technology related work lives. It has tremendous impact on their working styles, working environment and also improved their quality in performance.

Everyday newer opportunities are created rapidly for the growing Women generations in the Information Technology related applications. The specialized applications of Information Technology and Careers, which are emerging to provide services using these applications, are called "IT ENABLED SERVICES INDUSTRY".

Today, one of the optimum users of Information Technology in any economy is Women. Their dependency on technology for the work force and efficiency is highly increasing. Technology has paved way for the growth and development in every woman's life. The career opportunities emerging in the Information Technology enabled service sector are broadly classified as follows:

**RAILWAYS** – The use of technology in ticket bookings, checking, cancellation processes are no more tedious but faster. The network of the railways are widened to an extent that women with electronic qualifications are well placed at their convenient regions throughout the economy.

**AIRLINES** – Similarly, the next largest service sector that uses information technology for its customers is the airline industry. They are widely spread everywhere in the globe. Many Women with good personality, communication skills

and computer qualifications are placed in this sector. They facilitate quick transmission of information about arrivals, delays and departure of the vehicles. Also provide their knowledge in bookings, cancellation and customer relations through computers in the daily routine.

**BANKING** – Today Banking is made easy through technology at anytime and anywhere. The recent facilities like credit cards, debit cards, ATM, Western money transfer, teller system and e-banking are made possible only through the great number of Woman with computer applications. They make the services simplified and speedup the transactions to the customers using technologies.

**INSURANCE** – Information Technology has completely transformed the way insurance is handled now. Through technology, the Woman employed in both Public and Private companies are providing quick and valuable services to their clients. The defaults are minimized and with effective communication the customers are well-treated.

**HOTEL INDUSTRY** – With business going global and travel increasing manifold, the demand for Women in this service sector is growing. In this digital era, communications, arrangements and the best facilities are provided to the satisfaction of the customers. Women are absorbed in this industry for their attributes of elegance, interpersonal skills and environmental knowledge. No wonder they make the hotel industry a great success with the help of information technology.

**EDUCATION** – Education has been revolutionized as a result of Information Technology. The right content and right delivery of message in this area are made, updated, indexed, retrieved and disseminated through Women with technological background. The students are instructed in an interesting and consistent way through very many Women facilitators only. They make it reachable to any part of the globe

using technologies. Most of the education in this digital era is possible through electronic and communication media and it is processed by the women.

**TELECOMMUNICATIONS** - For several decades, the telephone operators and receptionists were tend to be only Women. Even now, with the discovery of pagers, mobile phones, internets, fax etc., demand for women in such kind of services are enormously growing. They have the ability to communicate excellently, appropriately and also timely. Telephone exchanges have been made digital to serve the increasing population in every nook and corner resulting in efficiency and cost reduction in this sector. The value added services like Call waiting, Caller identification, automatic response, Call divert and SMS have facilitated Women to work with technology.

**CALL CENTERS** – Another area with large employment potential is the operation of call centers. Women are recruited to answer customers' queries, listen to their complaints and provide solutions. Their knowledge, skill and quick response helps to make their career in this sector. Appropriate training with basic Information Technology knowledge is required for a Woman to acquire such jobs.

**MEDICAL TRANSCRIPTION** – An Information Technology enabled service called medical transcription service has emerged in the last few years. They mainly require Women only to read the prescriptions and case histories of Doctors, to understand the medical terms and key them to make a readable copy. It requires women with knowledge, training, skills and good language for such technology based services.

**PRINTING & PUBLISHING** – The new career of E- books, E-Journals, E-publishing and Web-designing are popular in the present scenario. It appears to be convenient, paper-less, quick in service and also research oriented in its function.

This process is led by women with computer knowledge and skill towards the laborious work relating to printing and publishing. World - wide web pages are created through technologies used by women in various parts of the globe. They make attractive, interesting and informative too.

**HEALTH CARE CENTERS** – Many hospitals are modernized and provide all kind of special services under one roof using the latest technologies in medical field. Apart from doctors and surgeons, there large numbers of technical assistants working at Laboratories, scan centers, radiologists, pharmacy and researchers using electronic instruments along with their medical knowledge and acquired skills. They seem to be successful even as dieticians and psychologists using electronic media for interacting with their customers for remedial measures.

**TRAVEL & TOURISM** – Tourism is one of the popular industries that are gaining significance all over the world. Women have fixed careers in this industry also to serve the customers through information Technology in promoting, distributing and even interacting to their best. They use the skills of communication and technology together in order to survive with their responsibilities.

**ENTERTAINMENT** - Women are also found in the entertainment sector like Media, Ad agencies, Theme parks, Movie, photo studios, fashion designers, models, animations, artists and other talent oriented areas. The take the maximum advantage of the information technology in their work force and try to improve their performance through creativity in technology.

**CONSULTANCY** – Presently, Women are slowly emerging into consultancy in the areas of recruitment, selection, family oriented, legal, technical and sales & advertising. With minimum knowledge and higher skill with usage of information technology women are able to perform well in consultancy projects. They are

making-up their career on their own through effective means of technological innovations.

**OTHERS** – The other types of careers meant for professionally qualified women are Systems analysts, Programmers, Embedded System Designers, VLSI designers, DSP programmers, Network professionals, Quality Assurance Professionals, Customer support professionals in installing hardware and software and Trainers of all levels providing knowledge and create awareness with the help of information and communication technology.

Henceforth, Information Technology offers significant opportunities for women and exists as an important tool in meeting Women's needs. It also provides them access to use resources and prove their skills in the competitive digital society. However, their ability to use the advantage of these opportunities is contingent upon the factors enumerated below:

- EDUCATION relating to technology to develop knowledge and skill for using the newer versions of information technology
- INFRASTRUCTURE to increase the facilities and extending the access to the communication and information technology area
- POLICY concerned with the issues affecting women to adopt technology in their mode of work
- AFFORDABILITY to every woman in the digital society for reaping the benefits from Information technology and also to overcome the constraints identified among women.

Therefore, it is imperative to take necessary steps to ensure that each and every woman in today's digital era avail the growing opportunities in Information and Communication Technology industry. More number of Women should be allowed to be exposed to the changing current trends in this sector. Women can boost their ability to process the

information with speed and accuracy as per the requirements in this digital revolution. Information Technology is an integral part of any human life and why not WOMEN revolutionize the way of their lives and work through the application of information technology?

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|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| <b>Check Your Progress Exercise 3</b>                                                                                                                               |
| <b>Note:</b> i. Use the space given below to answer the questions.<br><br>ii. Compare your answer with the one given at the end of this Unit.                       |
| <p>1. What are the main areas of information technology enabled services sector in which opportunities of employment for women are available?</p> <hr/> <hr/> <hr/> |



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### 13.6 SUMMING UP

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Due to globalization, work participation of women and girls has increased drastically in the industrial and service sectors during this period. Recruitment of women in industries like electronics, garment, gems and jewellery, dairy, food processing, etc. have multiplied. But, the rise of work participation rate is not a sign of empowerment but a sign of sheer helplessness and economic distress. Subcontracting, home-based production, family labour system and payment of wages on a piece-rate basis are the jobs earmarked for women. According to the 1991 Census, 19% of the total female workforce constitutes unpaid family

labour. Even in a state like Kerala, only 17% of the women are gainfully employed (Patel, 2007). Data from the National Sample Surveys reveal that the proportion of casual casual workers in the total female workforce rose from 41% in 1991-91 to 45.3% in 1993-94 and the proportion of regular workers fell from 4.5% to 3.4% over the same period. Not only that, researchers have estimated that female agricultural laborers were usually paid 40 to 60 percent of the male wage (Kishwar and Vanita, 1985). Even when women occupy similar positions and have similar educational levels, they earn just 80 percent of what men do, though this is better than in most developing countries. There is evidence that suggests that technological progress sometimes has a negative impact on women's employment opportunities. When a new technology is introduced to automate specific manual labour, women may lose their jobs because they are often responsible for the manual duties. Women may not benefit from jobs created by the introduction of new technology. The facts mentioned above are common to all the sectors, but the form of discrimination and exploitation differs from sector to sector.

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### **13.7 GLOSSARY**

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**Information and Communications Technology:** Information and Communications Technology usually called ICT, is often used as a synonym for information technology (IT) but is usually a more general term that stresses the role of telecommunications (telephone lines and wireless signals) in modern information technology. ICT consists of all technical means used to handle information and aid communication, including computer and network hardware as well as necessary software. In other words, ICT consists of IT as well as telephony, broadcast media, and all types of audio and video processing and transmission.

**Medical Transcription:** Medical transcription, also known as MT, is an allied health profession, which deals in the process of transcription, or converting voice-recorded reports as dictated by physicians and/or other healthcare professionals, into text format.

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## 13.8 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS EXERCISES

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### Check Your Progress Exercise 1

1. Vanlaxmi Women Tree Growers Cooperative, Sabarkantha Women Farmer's Association, Sukhi Mahila SEWA Mandal and SEWA Gram Mahila Haat.

### Check Your Progress Exercise 2

1. Women workers were being marginalised on following multiple fronts: in actual exclusion from rapidly improving organised sector employment, from the political space that unionised labour aspired to and eventually occupied and from more general public and 'social' concerns of the earlier decades.

### Check Your Progress Exercise 3

1. These areas are: railways, airlines, banking, insurance, hotel industry, education, telecommunications, call centers, medical transcription, printing & publishing, health care centers, travel & tourism, entertainment, consultancy etc.

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### **13.10 QUESTIONS FOR REFLECTION AND PRACTICE**

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1. What has been the status of women in agricultural sector? What are the ways of improving the same?
2. Explain the process of marginalization of women workers in industrial sector in India. Has there been any change in their condition in the recent past?
3. Explain the opportunities available to the women in service sector. Do you think that the service sector provides a ladder to more gender equality?

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## **UNIT: 14 INFRASTRUCTURE DEVELOPMENT IN INDIA WITH PRIVATE INVESTMENT**

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### **Structure**

14.1 Introduction

14.2 Objectives

14.3 Understanding Infrastructure

14.4 Infrastructure Development (Economic growth)

14.5 Infrastructure Development vis-a-vis Social and Human Development

14.6 Importance of PPP in Infrastructure Development

14.6.1 What is Public Private Partnership?

14.6.2 Public-Private-Partnership (PPP) – The Indian Definition

14.6.3 Private Participation in Infrastructure Development – Global Scenario

14.6.4 Private Participation in Infrastructure Development - Indian Case

14.6.5 PPP in the States

14.7 Generic Issues and Options

14.8 Summing Up

14.9 Glossary

14.10 Answers to Check Your Progress Exercises

14.11 References

14.12 Questions for Reflection and Practice

## **14.1 INTRODUCTION**

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Infrastructure plays a crucial role in promoting economic growth and thereby contributes to the reduction of economic disparity, poverty and deprivations in a country. Greater access of the poor to education and health services, water and sanitation, road network and electricity is needed to bring equitable development and social empowerment. Two schools of thought emerged in the 1990s regarding physical Infrastructure and its concomitant effects. One school argued, infrastructure development is important for economic growth, but it has relevance to poverty reduction. The second school of thought argued, actual benefits from infrastructure are significantly less as weak governance and institutions give way to corruption. Thus, distorted public investment choices and neglected maintenance lowers infrastructure's contribution to economic growth, while diverting benefits intended for the poor.

The provision of quality and efficient infrastructure services is essential to realize the full potential of the growth impulses surging through the economy. India, while stepping up public investment in infrastructure, has been actively engaged in involving private sector to meet the growing demand. The demand for infrastructure investment during the 11th Five Year Plan (2007-2011) has been estimated to be US\$ 492.5 billion (Planning Commission, 2007). To meet this growing demand, Government of India has planned to raise the investment in infrastructure from the present 4.7 percent of GDP to around 7.5 to 8 percent of GDP in the 11th Five Year Plan. In general, efforts towards infrastructure development is continued to focus on the key areas of physical and social infrastructure.

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## **14.2 OBJECTIVES**

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After studying this Unit, you should be able to:

- Show the linkage between physical infrastructure and development;
- Substantiate the role of different stakeholders in providing physical infrastructure;
- Analyse the issues arising out of massive infrastructure development; (eg social/human development vs infrastructure development);
- Estimate the importance of PPP in infrastructure development; and
- Evaluate Infrastructure development vis a vis women and marginalized.

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## **14.3 UNDERSTANDING INFRASTRUCTURE**

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Infrastructure is a broad concept linked to every facet of the economy and human life.

The term infrastructure has been used since 1927 to refer collectively to the roads, bridges, rail lines and similar public works that are required for an industrial economy to function.

Transportation, communication, sewage, water and electric systems are all a part of infrastructure. These systems tend to be high-cost investments. In general, infrastructure is location-specific and cannot be moved from place to place. However, the term infrastructure is also used to refer to the basic architecture of any system; mechanical, social, political or cultural.

The expanded definition of infrastructure includes transport (e.g. roads, railways, ports and airports), public utilities (e.g. electricity and water supply), public services (e.g. fire service, flood protection, police), national services (e.g. the defence, monetary and postal systems and the legal and regulatory system) along with “soft infrastructure,” which denotes institutions that maintain the health and cultural standards of the population (e.g. public education, health and social welfare).

Two other terms are usually associated with infrastructure. The first is infrastructure services, such as transport, energy and water. A second is the stock of infrastructure assets, which produce the flow of services. Although service flows are proportional to the stock of assets, the extent of proportionality can vary according to space, time and infrastructure type. One aspect of infrastructure development is to build new assets and maintain existing assets; another is the delivery of infrastructure services. The major requirements for the first are financial resources and technical capabilities. The service delivery process, on the other hand, is more complex. It involves the interaction of multiple actors: consumers, service providers, government, communities and NGOs, as well as an enabling economic environment and a host of institutions, including those related to rules and regulations, law and order, and governance.

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#### **14.4 INFRASTRUCTURE AND DEVELOPMENT (ECONOMIC GROWTH)**

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Transport, telecommunications, energy and water have become part and parcel of human existence. It is difficult to imagine a modern world without them. These are central to the household life and economic production. A lack of such infrastructure facilities is considered to be a major structural weakness, which holds back economic growth and development. It is often said that infrastructure can be considered, if not the engine, then the “wheels” of economic growth. This is one part of the infrastructure story. The other part is that infrastructure helps to spread the benefits of growth, which makes the development process more inclusive.

Infrastructure has strong supply- and demand-side economic linkages. As already pointed out, these four infrastructure sectors are used in the production of nearly all goods and services and hence are called “universal intermediate.” The availability of these “inputs” is essential in order to ensure supply.

In much the same way, infrastructure caters directly to demand. Households and governments consume infrastructure services, such as transport, communication, energy and

water, to satisfy basic needs for survival in modern times. When events such as natural disasters destroy infrastructure, their opportunity cost becomes painfully evident. Major infrastructure failures quickly and drastically reduce the quality of life of communities. The impact of infrastructure consumption on productivity can be significant. For instance, providing faster motorized transport services (which require good paved roads) allows people to cut down significantly on their time in commuting to work or bringing their produce to the market, which can increase their labour productivity.

The availability of infrastructure has a very perceptible impact on other areas of demand, such as foreign trade and investment. The role of transport in economic development is usually discussed in relation to its contribution to the development of domestic trade. Globalization has changed this perception. The ability of a country, and particularly the more isolated communities within a country, to participate in trade depends on the quality of the transport and communication infrastructure that allows them access to the world trading system. If liberalization of trade can open new markets, appropriate transport infrastructure, timely delivery and the quality of services provided are essential elements in determining the competitiveness of products for global markets. Transport services (for example, shipping) have become a tradable service. Furthermore, the competition in certain high value export markets is especially dependent on high quality infrastructure. For example, developing countries wishing to participate in global production networks should create a good-quality transport and telecommunication infrastructure. In fact, studies have shown that improving trade efficiency can do much more to spur economic growth than tariff reforms and improving infrastructure is a major factor in improving efficiency of trade.

A large volume of research studies also makes it clear that the availability of good quality physical infrastructure improves the climate for foreign direct investment (FDI) by reducing the “cost of total investment” incurred by foreign investors and thus raising the rate of return. Thus, both the quantity and quality of physical infrastructure is often an important consideration for multinational enterprises in choosing where to locate their FDI. Following this logic, it is almost certain that infrastructure development will also “crowd in” domestic private investment.

From both supply- and demand-side considerations, infrastructure development is positively and strongly correlated with economic growth. Empirical research using cross section-time series pooled data from over a hundred countries and spanning 40 years has also shown that growth is affected positively by the stock of infrastructure assets. However, the importance of infrastructure goes far beyond its impact on growth.

### **Check Your Progress Exercise 1**

**Note:** i. Use the space given below to answer the questions.

ii. Compare your answer with the one given at the end of this Unit.

1. How infrastructural development can facilitate economic growth?

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#### **14.5 INFRASTRUCTURE DEVELOPMENT VIS-À-VIS SOCIAL AND HUMAN DEVELOPMENT**

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The crucial role played by infrastructure development in creating better conditions of life has been highlighted by literature on economic development and social growth. As it is well understood, transport and communications infrastructure is important in terms of providing access to basic health services and thereby improving conditions of health and life, particularly of women and girl children. Basic infrastructure such as electrification plays a similar role, apart from changing the quality of life in general. It is also well realized that basic road connectivity to a school, minimum facilities like separate toilets for boys and girls in school buildings are crucial determinants of the enrolment and attendance of girl children, and so on. However, quantification of such investments could be assessed in terms of how the additional infrastructure changes the lives of people in any given area, and what changes would make it more effective and useful. The gender and class dimensions of the linkage effects also need to be examined, not just in terms of the direct effects, but also in terms of the secondary employment and opportunities created by such infrastructure building, for example, shops and new services that emerge with the construction of a new road.

The idea of infrastructure fostering inclusive growth and human development is well examined in developing countries like India. Human development is about expanding choices and inclusive growth is about improving the incomes and lives of all members of society, particularly, the poor. It depends on generating economic growth, sharing its benefits with the poor, and enhancing their access to basic services.

Infrastructure provides people with services that they need and want. For example: access to water, sanitation, electricity, telephones, computers and transport make immeasurable difference in people's lives. The absence of some of the most basic infrastructure services often translates into absence of human development.

Broadly, infrastructure impacts on human development in two ways: first, it supports the processes of growth on which much of poverty reduction depends; and second, it helps the poor access basic services which can improve their lives and income opportunities. At its best, infrastructure can draw poverty reduction, service provision, and growth into a reinforcing virtuous cycle.

Infrastructure also has an important impact on human development and poverty through growth. It is also an intermediate input into production. Without power and water, all but the most basic production would grind to a halt. It raises the productivity of factors of production, by generating the power that allows factories to mechanize, by allowing workers to get to work quicker, or by providing the networks through which information can pass electronically. Infrastructure connects goods to markets, workers to industry, people to services, and the poor in rural areas to urban growth centres. Infrastructure lowers costs, enlarges markets, and facilitates trade.

Infrastructure has a human development impact on the activities through which people earn their living. It contributes to the health and education that people need to fill jobs, or create them. Some of the channels through which its impact is felt are not very obvious. It may seem intuitive that the ability of people to earn a living is increased when transport, information, power, and water are readily available. But infrastructure has some less obvious impacts, for

instance, the impact of transport and electricity on education. The impact of health services may be similarly affected by the ability of the poor to access facilities. A road to remote village or a telephone call can make an enormous difference as the rural masses are now dependent on it to further their business and to connect with new market centers.

It can be argued, therefore, that a focus on improving human development implies somewhat different priorities in terms of infrastructure provision than an approach based entirely on maximizing economic growth. This would affect not only which sub-sectors of infrastructure get higher resource allocation, but also the geographical spread, the extent of public versus private provision, the pricing policy for users, and so on. Infrastructure investment directed at maximizing economic growth rather than ensuring better human development for all may be less concerned with regional imbalances, exclusion of citizens from access, affordability of services and utility rates for common people, and more focused on efficient provision in areas that would have the greatest growth impact. This has indeed been the dominant pattern of infrastructure provision, especially in the last decade, where there has been much greater reliance on private provision in a wide range of infrastructure categories.

The linkage between infrastructure development and human development progress has some very direct evidence, and then many indirect ways in which infrastructure—both its creation and maintenance at certain standards— promotes and sustains human development growth. Without roads, without basic power, without basic schools and health centres, and without access to credit the poor are the most affected, as their areas are most infrastructure-poor, their dependency on public provision of infrastructure is the highest and thus they are the most direct beneficiaries of public investments.

The case for infrastructure for human development is made powerfully. There is, of course, evidence from studies, empirical evidence, and our own direct evidence and experience that support this. There are two aspects that we have to keep in mind when we define infrastructure. It has been discussed that infrastructure that directly and most efficiently impacts poverty reduction and human development is that which is located where the poor live. It looks after their needs first, is technologically accessible to them, and enables them to break their barriers of physical, economic, and financial limitations. It enables and empowers them to reach out to, to negotiate, and to benefit from the world outside their own domain.

Thus, roads, specially rural connectivity, basic electricity (that helps run their manufacturing units and their agriculture pumps to draw water), basic access to funds/credit that helps them to invest into their livelihood (primarily agriculture)—all these comprise the critical infrastructure that requires either direct investment by the state or investment into establishing systems and agencies that help poor people access services.

Then, there is another set of infrastructure that enables and builds an entire system and economic environment. It helps in reducing poverty, in building options for the poor, in building their capabilities which ultimately help them grow into stronger, more empowered, and more self-sufficient individuals. This infrastructure comprises the bigger roads—the highways—that link areas and help balance out product, opportunity, finance and job rich or deficit areas with each other, and it indirectly builds the overall economic strength and viability of an area, supply and use of electricity, of capability enhancing infrastructure such as telecommunications and Information Technology (IT), and transportation links by rail and air. Investing into both these scales in infrastructure, especially, the small-scale, local infrastructure has significant and sustained impact on three factors— growth, growth with equity and reduction in poverty by

adding efficiency and productivity to assets of poor, and making the resources of poor more reliable.

### Check Your Progress Exercise 2

**Note:** i. Use the space given below to answer the questions.

ii. Compare your answer with the one given at the end of this Unit.

1. Give one example for the link between infrastructure and human development.

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### **14.6 IMPORTANCE OF PPP IN INFRASTRUCTURE DEVELOPMENT**

Physical infrastructure is an integral part of development of an economy and provides basic services that people need in their daily life. Well-developed physical infrastructure provides key economic services efficiently, improves the competitiveness, extends vital support to productive sectors, and generates high productivity and supports economic growth. Although, considerable effort and resources have been spent on development of infrastructure over the last years, the geographical and economic size, population of the country has rendered the efforts insufficient. To develop the infrastructure in India and to remove infrastructure deficiency in the country, investment needs are huge, which could not be met by the public sector alone, due to

fiscal constraints and mounting liabilities of the government. Hence, development of infrastructure with private sector participation is the option that needs to be explored in every sector. In this direction, economic reforms initiated in the country provide forth the policy environment towards public-private partnership (PPP) in the infrastructure development. In this regard, sector specific policies have also been initiated to facilitate more private participation in infrastructure development in the country.

#### **14.6.1 What is Public-Private Partnership?**

There is no single accepted international definition of what public – private partnership is (World Bank 2006). The PPP is defined as “the transfer to the private sector of investment projects that traditionally have been executed or financed by public sector” (IMF,2004).

The PPP is sometimes referred to as a joint venture in which a government service or private business venture is funded and operated through a partnership of the government and one or more private sector entities. Typically, a private sector consortium forms a special company called special purpose vehicle (SPV) to build and maintain the asset.

Thus, PPP combines the development of private sector capital and sometimes public sector capital to improve public services or the management of the public sector assets (Michael, 2001). The PPP may encompass the whole spectrum of approaches from private participation through the contracting out of services and revenue sharing partnership arrangement to pure non-recourse project finance, while sometimes it may include only a narrow range of project type.

#### **Schemes and Modalities of PPP**

| <b>Schemes</b>                  | <b>Modalities</b>                                                                                                                              |
|---------------------------------|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Build-own-operate (BOO)         | The private sector designs, build, own, develop, operate and manage an asset with no obligation to transfer ownership to the government. These |
| Build-develop-operate (BDO)     |                                                                                                                                                |
| Design-construct-manage-finance |                                                                                                                                                |

|                                                                                                                                                                            |                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                  |
|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| (DCMF)                                                                                                                                                                     | are variants of design-build-finance-operate (DBFO) schemes                                                                                                                                                                                      |
| Buy-build-operate (BBO)<br>Lease-develop-operate (LDO)<br>Wrap-around addition (WAA)                                                                                       | The private sector buys or leases an existing asset from the government and renovates, modernizes and/or expands it, and then operates the asset, again with no obligation to transfer ownership back to the government                          |
| Build-operate transfer (BOT)<br>Build-own-operate-transfer (BOOT)<br>Build-rent-own-transfer (BROT)<br>Build-lease-operate-transfer (BLOT)<br>Build-transfer-operate (BTO) | The private sector design and builds an asset, operates and then transfer it to the government, when the operating contract ends or at some pre-specified time. The private partner may subsequently rent or lease the asset from the government |

Source: Public Private Partnership, Fiscal Affairs Department of the IMF

#### 14.6.2 Public-Private-Partnership (PPP) – The Indian Definition

In the Indian context, the term PPP is used very loosely while at the international arena, the PPP is adopted for developing public assets in various forms as explained in the above Table.

According to the Ministry of Finance, Government of India, the PPP project means a project based on a contract or concession agreement, government or statutory entity on the one side and private sector company on the other side, for delivering infrastructure service on payment of user charges. The Planning Commission of India has defined PPP as “mode of implementing government programmes/schemes in partnership with the private sector. It provides an opportunity for private sector partnership in financing, designing, construction, operation and maintenance of public sector programmes and projects”. In addition,

Greenfield Investment in the infrastructure development has also been given more encouragement in India.

#### **14.6.3 Private Participation in Infrastructure Development – Global Scenario**

Before the onset of globalization, provision of infrastructure was the monopoly of the government world over, limiting the private sector participation to a few cases. Reluctance of the governments world over to continue with past approaches in infrastructure services, coupled with budget constraints, governments have explored, how best to harness the benefits of private sector participation. Globalization and opening of emerging market economies (EMEs) have provided investment opportunities for the private investors to develop public infrastructure with or without collaboration of the public sector. Multilateral institutions have also focused their attention towards the progress in infrastructure development with private participation, as the basic infrastructure would accelerate the pace of overall economic development of a country. The 'private participation in infrastructure project database' The details on country wise infrastructure projects with private sector participation, China tops in the list of attracting more projects in the developing region followed by Brazil, Russian Federation, followed by India and Argentina.

In terms of investment, region wise analysis reveals that projects in Latin America and Caribbean region have attracted a maximum share at 39.9 percent between 1990 and 2006 followed by East Asia and the Pacific with 23.1 percent and the Europe and Central Asia with 18.9 percent in the development of infrastructure with private sector participation. Brazil attracted more investment among the developing countries followed by China, Argentina, Mexico and India. Major share of private investment attracted towards telecom

sector in the developing region with a share of 48.9 percent followed by energy sector (29.3 percent) transport sector (16.9 percent) and water and sewerage sector (4.9 percent).

#### **14.6.4 Private Participation in Infrastructure Development - Indian Case**

Along with the initiation of structural reforms in the country, the government of India announced new industrial policy in 1991 to develop the industrial and infrastructure sectors, which gave more emphasis on private participation. Policy announcement relating to sector specific infrastructure developments with the PPP have also been announced in the subsequent annual budgets of the Union Government. The Private sector participation in the infrastructure building have broadly been taken place through corporatization of existing PSUs, Greenfield investments for development of new projects, PPP in the form of BOT and BOOT model in the road sector and concession agreements with private sector such as rehabilitate, operate and transfer or rehabilitate, lease or rent and transfer, or build, rehabilitate, operate and transfer basis. Joint venture structure of institutions to develop and modernize the Delhi and Mumbai Airports is an apt form of PPP.

According to the PPI Database of the World Bank, about 249 infrastructure projects in India have attracted private sector participation and reached financial closure between 1990 and 2006, which constituted a share of 6.1 percent of the total project among 150 low and middle income countries in the World. Many number of infrastructure projects under private participation have attained financial closure during 2006 particularly in the transportation sector due to mass development of National Highways Development Projects (NHDP) like Golden Quadrilateral and North South-East West corridor (NS-EW) projects.

Investment requirements of the infrastructure projects are huge and the private sector contribution to the development of public infrastructure has increased many folds during the

recent period due to various policy initiatives by the government towards more encouragement for private participation. However, when compared to other EMEs, private participation in the infrastructure development in India has gained momentum only recently and its share is not much encouraging. Among the developing countries, India stood at fourth position after China, Brazil, Russian Federation in terms of attracting the projects and fifth position in terms of volume of investment under private participation.

After analyzing the realistic stature of private participation in the infrastructure development in India, it would be more appropriate to look into the quantum of investment requirements to bridge the infrastructure gap and to transform the Indian infrastructure into a World-class. The impact of infrastructure investment on growth depend on the timing of investments, their scale in relation to the existing imbalance between demand and supply of infrastructure and the location of projects themselves. Taking into account the infrastructure gap in the country, there is no concrete estimation of requirements for infrastructure development to fill the gap in the country, as the requirement will vary from time to time, place-to-place and project-to-project.

#### **14.6.5 PPP in the States**

The state governments in India have ventured into PPP model to develop their State infrastructure on the lines of central schemes. Accordingly, more than 250 projects are in progress under the PPP model with an estimated investment of 70,000 crore and another 76 projects with an estimated cost of 35,000 crore are in the pipeline. Among the ongoing projects, Rajasthan has more number of PPP projects followed by MP, Gujarat, and Karnataka etc. However, investment wise, Gujarat attracted higher share at 26.1 per cent of the total investments, particularly for the development of ports and other urban development projects.

In the state scheme, road sector has attracted about 46.7 percent of the total PPP projects in the country followed by urban infrastructure and power sector. Along with the National Highways Development, states also have taken various initiatives to strengthen and modernize their road sector to smoothen the transport movement. However, in terms of investments, port sector has attracted major share, at 34.5 percent as it involves huge capital requirement for its development. Other sectors like power and roads have also attracted a share of 23.5 percent and 20.4 percent respectively. Overall, the potential benefits that are normally expected from the PPP projects include cost effectiveness, higher productivity, accelerated delivery of projects, clear customer focus, enhanced social service and recovery of user charges. Due to various facilities offered by the Government for infrastructure development through PPP, there is further potential for PPPs to contribute more and help bridge the infrastructure gap in India.

### Check Your Progress Exercise 3

**Note:** i. Use the space given below to answer the questions.

ii. Compare your answer with the one given at the end of this Unit.

1. List out the terminologies associated with PPP.

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## 14.7 GENERIC ISSUES AND OPTIONS

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Despite improvements in physical infrastructure development in the country during the recent years, significant gap exists between demand and supply of critical infrastructure facilities, which has become a binding constraint on the rapid pace of economic progress.

In the case of power structure, the power shortage stood around 9.8 per cent and the power shortage during the peak demand period has been much higher at 16.6 percent in 2007-08,

which severely affected the industrial production and economic development. In the road sector, among the proposed development of about 5846 kms of Golden Quadrilateral (GQ)

96.7 percent of the projects have been implemented and the rest of them have been pending during various litigations. Employee productivity of Railways in India is very low

when compared to China, Korea, Brazil and Indonesia. Wagon shortage hinders the movement of the industrial raw materials, coal and minerals etc, which affects the

industrial production. When we look at the progress of infrastructure development so far,

private participation and PPP arrangements in the development of public infrastructure

have still faced several implementation challenges. These challenges typically involve

tariff setting and adjustment, regulatory independence or dispute over contractual provision and risk sharing.

It may be observed from the discussion so far, the PPP in the infrastructure development is picking up during the recent years, particularly in the road sector and to some extent in the

ports and airports sector. Telecom sector is considered to be a successful sector in

attracting private participation on a large scale. This may be due to sector specific policies

and other sector such as Government commitment, increased private interest in these

sectors, move towards better competitive process, greater availability of information, size of the projects, acceptable price, encouraging developer return, fiscal concessions etc. However, considering the size and magnitude of the proposed and ongoing infrastructure projects in the infrastructure sector as a whole, the lackluster response by the private participation and slow progress in some of the projects need to be reversed through investor friendly policies, transparent procedures and other conducive measures.

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#### **14.8 SUMMING UP**

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In India, infrastructure gaps exist in almost all the sectors, posing a serious threat to sustenance of the growth momentum. To augment the infrastructure facilities with private participation, the initiated policy measures have not met with significant success. Except for the telecom sector, which has witnessed a revolution and has been able to attract massive private investments, other sectors have faced with lackluster response. The status of the PPP in the infrastructure development in India, both the Central government schemes as well as State sponsored schemes, is not encouraging. Stable macro-economic framework, sound regulatory structure, investor friendly policies, and sustainable project revenues, transparency and consistency of policies, effective regulation and liberalization of labour laws, and good corporate governance are the basic requirements, which define the success of the PPP model.

International experience suggests that the success of the project requires a single objective of better services for the public at a reasonable cost. This is achievable through realistic and reasonable risk transfer, while addressing the public concerns. The Indian PPP model

should adhere to such objectives and best practices to march forward on the success path. In this pursuit, easy availability of long-term private capital is an essential requirement.

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## 14.9 GLOSSARY

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**Green Field Investment:** Greenfield Investment is defined as an investment in a start-up project, usually for a major capital investment and the investment starts with a bare site in a Greenfield.

**Database:** The database records contractual arrangements with and without investments in which private parties assume operating risks in low and middle income countries. Projects included in the database do not have to be entirely privately owned, financed or operated. Some have public participation as well.

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## 14.10 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS EXERCISES

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### Check your Progress Exercise 1

1. Infrastructure helps to spread the benefits of growth, which makes the development process more inclusive. A large volume of research studies also makes it clear that the availability of good quality physical infrastructure improves the climate for foreign direct investment (FDI) by reducing the “cost of total investment” incurred by foreign investors and thus raising the rate of return. Thus, both the quantity and quality of physical infrastructure is often an important consideration for multinational enterprises in choosing where to locate their FDI. Empirical research using cross section-time series pooled data from over a hundred countries and spanning 40 years has also shown that growth is affected positively by the stock of infrastructure assets.

### Check your Progress Exercise 2

1. The linkage between infrastructure development and human development progress has some very direct evidence, and then many indirect ways in which infrastructure—both its creation and maintenance at certain standards— promotes and sustains human development growth. Without roads, without basic power, without basic schools and health centres, and without access to credit the poor are the most affected, as their areas are most infrastructure-poor, their dependency on public provision of infrastructure is the highest and thus they are the most direct beneficiaries of public investments.

### **Check your Progress Exercise 3**

1. Build-own-operate (BOO)

Build-develop-operate (BDO)

Design-construct-manage-finance (DCMF)

Buy-build-operate (BBO)

Lease-develop-operate (LDO)

Wrap-around addition (WAA)

Build-operate transfer (BOT)

Build-own-operate-transfer (BOOT)

Build-rent-own-transfer (BROT)

Build-lease-operate-transfer (BLOT)

Build-transfer-operate (BTO)

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#### 14.12 QUESTIONS FOR REFLECTION AND PRACTICE

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1. Examine the linkage between infrastructure development and human development.
2. What is the need for PPP in infrastructure development?
3. Analyse the role of different stakeholders in infrastructure development.
4. How infrastructure development can facilitate women in the process of development?

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## UNIT 15 SOCIAL INFRASTRUCTURE

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### Structure

15.1 Introduction

15.2 Objectives

15.3 Social Infrastructure, Social Capital and Social Sustainability

15.4 Gender Issues in Social Protection

15.5 The Eleventh Five Year Plan: A Gender Analysis of Social Infrastructure Provisions

15.6 Women, Education and Social Development

15.7 Education and Health of the Girl Child

15.8 Women and Watershed Development in India: Issues and Strategies

15.9 Summing Up

15.10 Glossary

15.11 Answers to Check Your Progress Exercises

15.12 References

15.13 Questions for Reflection and Practice

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### 15.1 INTRODUCTION

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Development of social infrastructure (comprising education, health and medical care, nutrition, housing and water supply) is instrumental in contributing to substantial improvements in human resources development which, in turn, initiates and accelerates economic development. The distinction between economic infrastructure (the physical assets that provide services used in production and final consumption), social infrastructure (assets that support a healthy workforce with adequate skills) and institutional infrastructure (such as the legal system, culture and capital markets) needs to be understood.

According to the Nobel Laureate Amartya Sen, we have seven types of gender disparities. However, the disparity between women and men can take many different forms. Indeed, gender disparity is not one homogeneous phenomenon, but a collection of disparate and interlinked problems (IIPS, 2010). In some regions in the world, disparity between women and men directly involves matters of life and death, and takes the brutal form of unusually high mortality rates of women and a consequent preponderance of men in the total population. In societies with little or no gender bias in health care and nutrition, the sex ratio is skewed in favour of women. High sex-differentials have been observed extensively in North Africa and in Asia, including China and South Asia. In many societies in Asian and Latin American countries, gender bias can manifest itself in the form of son preference. This is particularly common in East Asia, in China and South Korea in particular, but also in Singapore and Taiwan, and continues to be a statistically significant phenomenon in India and South Asia as well. International Institute of Population Sciences (2010) reports that even when demographic characteristics do not show much or any male bias, there are other ways in which women can have less than equitable life environments. Girls have far less opportunity of schooling than boys do. There are other deficiencies in basic facilities available to women, varying from encouragement to cultivate one's natural talents to fair participation in rewarding social functions of the community. Even when there is relatively little difference in basic facilities including schooling, the opportunities of higher education may be far fewer for young women than for young men. Indeed, gender bias in higher education and professional training can be observed even in some of the richest countries in the world, in Europe and North America. In terms of employment as well as promotion in work and occupation, women often face greater handicap than men. In many societies the ownership of property can also be very unequal. Even basic assets such as homes and land

may be very asymmetrically shared. The absence of claims to property can not only reduce the voice of women, but also make it harder for women to enter and flourish in commercial, economic and even some social activities. Basic inequalities in gender relations within the family or the household can take many different forms. Even in cases in which there are no overt signs of male bias in, say, survival or son preference or education, or even in promotion to higher executive positions, the family arrangements can be quite unequal in terms of sharing the burden of housework and child care.

**Provision of social infrastructure, both in terms of resource allocation and types/ quality of facilities and services, is clearly gendered.**

Viewing social infrastructure through the gender lens is of critical importance. Provision of social infrastructure and ensuring social protection needs to be focused around practical and strategic gender needs.

This Unit provides an overview of social infrastructure and focuses on provisions related to education, health, watershed development reflecting prominent gender concerns.

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## 15.2 OBJECTIVES

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After studying this Unit, you should be able to:

- define social infrastructure;
- differentiate between “soft” and “hard” infrastructure;
- discuss gender mainstreaming of social protection;
- provide a gender analysis of social infrastructure provisions of the eleventh five year plan;

- describe the relationship between education of women and social development;
- describe issues related to women and watershed development in India

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### **15.3 SOCIAL INFRASTRUCTURE, SOCIAL CAPITAL AND SOCIAL SUSTAINABILITY**

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What are the aspects covered under social infrastructure?

- Social infrastructure includes housing, educational, recreational and law and order facilities that support the community's need for social interaction
- It covers facilities such as health provision, early years provision, schools, colleges and universities, community, cultural, recreation and sports facilities, places of worship, policing and other criminal justice or community safety facilities, children and young people's play facilities
- Social infrastructure can also be described as a system of social services, networks and facilities that support people and communities. The scope of social infrastructure teams usually revolves around education, housing, health, income, safety, recreation and leisure and cultural expression.

#### **The Costs and Benefits of Social Infrastructure**

Social and community infrastructure and services are provided in response to the needs of communities. They enhance the quality of life, equity, law and order, stability and social

well-being through community support; safety and security; sports; recreation and culture; justice; housing; health and education.’

The term ‘Social infrastructure’ is often used to denote community infrastructure or social and community infrastructure. It includes both soft and hard infrastructure around services and processes that enhance the social capacity of communities. Social infrastructure can be broadly categorized as inclusive of services and facilities in:

- health;
- individual, family and community support;
- education;
- arts and culture;
- information;
- sport and recreation;
- housing;
- community development;
- employment and training;
- legal and public safety;
- emergency services; and
- public and community transport.

Investment in social infrastructure has an economic dividend as well as a social one. Put simply, it makes good economic sense to invest in the provision of social infrastructure.

Therefore, the need to incorporate social infrastructure requirements in planning and redevelopment proposals has become an increasing requisite for both the private and public sectors.

In recent years the concept of “**social capital**” has received increasing attention as accumulating evidence demonstrates the dependence between social capital and a wide range of desirable outcomes: economic success, improved school performance, decreased crime, higher levels of voting and better health.

Social capital has been defined in the following terms:

*The social capital of a society includes the institutions, the relationships, the attitudes and values that govern interactions among people and contribute to economic and social development. Social capital is not simply the sum of institutions, which underpin society; it is also the glue that holds them together. It includes the shared common sense of ‘civic’ responsibility that makes society more than just a collection of individuals (World Bank 1998).*

#### **Box 15.1: Viewing Social Infrastructure Through a Gender Lens**

The importance of social infrastructure is undisputed. There is increasing evidence that we no longer view social infrastructure provision as gender-neutral or worse, gender-blind. Here is a set of questions that enable critical reflection, analysis and assessment:

- Who benefits from the provision of social infrastructure? Men, women or both?
- How much resource allocation is made for measures which focus on “positive discrimination” in favour of women and girls?
- Are the practical and strategic gender interests/ needs addressed by particular social

### **Social Sustainability: A Definition**

For a community to function and be sustainable, the basic needs of its residents must be met.

A socially sustainable community must have the ability to maintain and build on its own resources and have the resiliency to prevent and/or effectively address problems in the future.

Two types or levels of resources in the community are available to build social sustainability – individual or human capacity, and social or community capacity.

Individual or human capacity refers to the attributes and resources that individuals can contribute to their own well-being, and to the well-being of the community as a whole. Such resources include education, skills, health, values and leadership. Social or community capacity is the basic framework of society and includes mutual trust, reciprocity, relationships, communications, and interconnectedness between groups. It is these types of attributes that enable individuals to work together to improve their quality of life and to ensure that such improvements are sustainable.

A socially sustainable community is one that aligns closely with the principles of social justice. More specifically social sustainability includes a focus not just on principles and processes, but also on achieving outcomes such as the following:

- *Equity of access* to appropriate services;
- *Effective and viable networks of community groups/organizations and mechanisms* to facilitate community participation and self-determination;
- *Effective and appropriate transport systems* and accessibility for all members of the community;
- *Access to information and life-long education;*

- *Demographic diversity* – a range of lifecycle groups, cultures and interests;
- *Sense of place* so people identify with and *like* the community they live in;
- *Affordable and appropriate housing*;
- *Community and personal safety*;
- *Provision of support for local businesses and of local employment opportunities including for socially disadvantaged groups*;
- *Environmental quality*;
- *Physically attractive neighbourhoods and town centres with identifiable lifestyle features*; and
- *An integrated approach to addressing environmental, economic and social needs*

### **Social Infrastructure: “Soft” and “Hard” Infrastructure**

Social infrastructure is more than simply the provision of physical facilities. Therefore, in considering the broader context of social sustainability, a necessary factor must be the elements known as “*soft*” *infrastructure* as well as *physical* or “*hard*” *infrastructure*. There is hard infrastructure which is focused on provision of basic utilities i.e. water, gas and electricity, waste, transport provision (roads, rail, air) that provide the framework in which a community transacts economic, social and environmental activity. Then there is hard infrastructure such as community facilities and public buildings which are essential in supporting community life.

Social infrastructure is often seen in terms of tangible “hard” infrastructure – those that are visible to the eye such as community centres, schools, libraries and transport infrastructure.

Architects and planners often describe social infrastructure in terms of inputs and in many respects an initial response will be a physical infrastructure response. For example, the response to education will be to build a school, the response to community development is often to build a community centre.

The notion of so-called “soft” infrastructure has tended to be used in an ill-defined way. The term usually refers to the provision of human services as a way of distinguishing between these services and facilities and the provision of more commonly recognized “hard” infrastructure facilities such as roads, sewerage, water supply and similar facilities that are essential for community functioning.

Whilst the provision of “hard” infrastructure is mostly taken for granted, the importance and role of “soft” infrastructure is less understood and recognized by the general public and, at times, policy makers. The problems have been that ‘soft’ infrastructure is seen as:

- Intangible or hard to define;
- difficult to measure and cannot always be reduced to quantitative indicators; and
- is often described in subjective and qualitative terms that may not be readily understood.

“Soft” infrastructure involves responses to both the needs of communities, while simultaneously building the capacity of local people and groups to respond to current and future needs. **“Soft” infrastructure is not simply about providing physical assets but about enhancing skills and knowledge and access to a range of appropriate services and responses.**

These “soft” infrastructure responses enhance both an individual’s health and community well-being through development of:

- Equitable, accessible and appropriate community services;
- Individual skills, knowledge and abilities; and
- Local networks, relationships and collaborative responses.

They are consistent with the human and community capacity of social sustainability.

There are generally three essential elements to putting in place sustainable social infrastructure. These are:

- Capital resources to finance the provision of physical assets such as buildings, facilities and equipment;
- Recurrent or non-capital resources to enable the provision of ongoing staffing, operational and maintenance costs of infrastructure provision;
- Governance arrangements to ensure there is appropriate planning, management and accountability for the on-going provision of infrastructure.

### **Check Your Progress Exercise 1**

**Note:** i. Use the space given below to answer the questions.

ii. Compare your answer with the one given at the end of this Unit.

1. What is social infrastructure? Differentiate between soft and hard social infrastructure.

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#### **15.4 GENDER ISSUES IN SOCIAL PROTECTION**

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Social protection programmes in India encompass both protective and promotional components. The programmes include: self employment programmes; wage employment programmes; food and nutrition programmes; other protection programmes such as housing programme (Indira Awas Yojana), National Old Age Pension (NOAP), widow and disabled pension, rural educational scholarship, free text books, free hostels, free uniforms; programmes specifically for the urban poor; social protection for the unorganized/ informal sector workers – promotional and protection schemes proposed by National Commission on Enterprises for the Unorganized Sector (NCEUS).

Some point to the ways in which social protection programmes can have wider developmental impacts that offset some of the resources used to finance them (such as investments in human capital leading to a more healthy, skilled and productive workforce). Findings from a range of studies suggest that far from promoting the dependency of the poor on welfare handouts, well-designed social protection interventions can provide the

opportunity ladders that they need to climb their way out of poverty, to participate in social and political life, and to contribute to wider processes of development and inclusive economic growth (Kabeer & Cook, 2010). Gender sensitivity is an important concern related to social protection schemes. Adequate coverage of women and girls as well as opportunities for availing suitable schemes is of critical importance.

### **Box 15.2 Recent Measures for Social Protection in India**

The Economic Survey 2009-10 has highlighted the following interventions:

*Aam Admi Bima Yojana (AABY):* Under this scheme launched on October 2, 2007, insurance will be provided against natural as well as accidental death and partial/ permanent disability to the head of the family of rural landless households in the country. Upto September 30, 2009, the Scheme had covered 81.99 lakh lives.

*Rashtriya Swasthya Bima Yojana (RSBY):* The RSBY was launched on October 1, 2007 for BPL families (a unit of not more than five) in the unorganized sector. The total sum insured is Rs. 30,000 per family per annum. The premium is shared on a 75:25 basis by the Centre and the State Government. In case of north-eastern States and Jammu & Kashmir, the premium is shared in a 90:10 ratio. The beneficiary is entitled to cashless transactions through a smart card. The RSBY became operational from April 1, 2008. Till January 12, 2010, 26 states/ union territories have initiated the process of implementing the scheme. Out of these, 22 states/UTs, namely Assam, Rajasthan, Haryana, Punjab, NCT of Delhi, Gujarat, Bihar, Himachal Pradesh, Kerala, Maharashtra, Tamil Nadu, Uttar Pradesh, Jharkhand, Uttarakhand, West Bengal, Goa, Nagaland, Chattisgarh, Meghalaya, Tripura, Orissa and Chandigarh administration, have started issuing smart cards and more than 97.19 lakh cards have been issued.

*The Unorganized Workers' Social Security Act, 2008:* The Act has the objective of providing social security to unorganized workers. The Unorganized Workers' Social Security Rules 2009 have also been framed. The Act has come into force w.e.f. May 16, 2009. It provides for constitution of a National Social Security Board and State Social Security Boards which will recommend social security schemes for these workers. The National Social Security Board has since been constituted and has met twice. The Board has made some recommendations regarding extension of social security schemes to certain additional segments of unorganized workers.

Ratna Sudarshan (2009) has made an interesting analysis of ISST, Delhi's work with gender dimensions in MGNREGA as part of the Working Paper Issue 05 of the SPA Series. Women as workers are concentrated in agriculture (85 % of all women workers) informal work and, in particular, home-based work (over 50 % of non-agricultural workers). As agricultural workers, women have a strong connection with the land and are heavily influenced by fluctuations in agricultural output. As informal/ home-based workers, women are often invisible, dependent on informal arrangements and contracts and, as some research suggests, most dependent on local and domestic markets. Their lower mobility into new areas is dependent on several factors, including household and care responsibilities, traditional social norms, and a lack of information and skills.

Understanding gendered roles is a key factor. In a context where the large majority of women are dependent on agriculture and where household access to water and fuel relies heavily on common property, local resources are clearly a major source of wellbeing – or risk.

Given the dismal lack of gender sensitivity in public policy in general, it is not surprising that public works in particular have not been explicitly concerned with women. Rural employment schemes have, on occasion, even displaced women – for example afforestation on agricultural lands under the Jawahar Rozgar Yojana (Krishnaraj 2000). In India, small-scale interventions are deemed suitable for tackling women's poverty, when what is needed is a redesign of existing works (UNDP Poverty Report 2000).

Reducing the distance between work site and home, providing crèche facilities, paying a ratio of food and cash (given that women would have greater control over the use of grain) and equal wages are core programme features that have a marked impact on women's participation in public works (Grown 2006).

Public works schemes have traditionally concentrated on roads, forestry, housing, irrigation and soil conservation. They may also be used to produce services and assets specific to women, such as food kitchens, domestic violence shelters and health clinics – a development that will only come about with women's increased participation in decision-making. Gender biases in public employment are manifested in the lower wages paid to women. While this is ostensibly because women are excluded from physically more difficult tasks, it also carries deeper resonances of inequality.

Combating gender inequality is not the same as combating poverty. In attempting to 'mainstream' their issues, poverty programmes and gender programmes have often neglected the intersection between them, i.e., poor women (UNDP Poverty Report 2000). Since the 1970s, the Indian Government has made poverty reduction a priority in its development planning. Policies have ranged from ensuring food security and promoting self-employment through greater access to assets to increasing wage employment and improving access to basic social services. Policies' effects on poor women could differ from those on poor men – thus requiring greater attention to designing poverty programmes with poor women in mind.

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The NREGA provides some explicit entitlements for women to facilitate their full participation. These include:

- *equal wages for men and women.* The guidelines spell out clear instructions for equal payment of wages for men and women. 'Equal wages shall be paid to both men and women workers and the provisions of the Equal Remuneration Act, 1976 shall be complied with.' (p. 26)
- *participation in management and monitoring of the programme.* As per the guidelines, a local Vigilance and Monitoring Committee is to be appointed with members from the immediate locality or village where the work is undertaken, to monitor the progress and

quality of work. 'The gram sabha will elect the members of this Committee and ensure that SC/STs and women are represented on it.' (p. 44)

- *participation in social audit.* The guidelines mention a social audit forum, convened by the gram sabha every six months as part of the continuous auditing process. There is stress on the quorum of these meetings maintaining female participants alongside those from other disadvantaged groups. 'The timing of the forum must be such that it is convenient for people to attend – that it is convenient in particular for REGS [Rural Employment Guarantee Scheme] workers, women and marginalized communities.' (p. 56)

- *providing support for child care, and convenience to households.* The guidelines mention the need for a crèche at the work site, and for the works to be convenient for families: 'If some applicants have to be directed to report for work beyond 5 km of their residence, women (especially single women) and older persons should be given preference to work on the work sites nearer to their residence.' (p. 18) Also, 'If several members of a household who share the same job card are employed simultaneously under the Scheme, they should be allowed to work on the same work site.' (p. 18)
- *ensuring that single women are eligible.*

Finally, through recognizing a single person as a 'household', the Act makes it possible for widows and other single women to access this work.

### Check Your Progress Exercise 2

**Note:** i. Use the space given below to answer the questions.

ii. Compare your answer with the one given at the end of this Unit.

1. What are some of the specific entitlements for women under NREGA?

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### **Gender Mainstreaming of Social Protection**

Gender mainstreaming has become a “buzzword” in the 21<sup>st</sup> century development discourse. There is increasing pauperization and immiserization of millions of people, especially women and children in the North as well as in the South. Naila Kabeer has examined the impact of economic globalization on gender relations and the affirmative actions taken by the nation states.

Growing informalization of paid work is a marked feature of neo-liberal globalization. The nation states are vying with each other for cutting costs instead of promoting healthy competition for ensuring as many social security measures for their respective workforces as possible. Human miseries have been enhanced due to massive cuts in the social sector budgets and privatization of education, health and energy sectors. Millions of workers have lost jobs, poor women being the most vulnerable due to gender-related constraints that limit their effort to overcome labour market disadvantages through their own efforts. Hence, the demand for efforts for retooling of workers rendered unemployed due to Structural Adjustment Programmes (SAPs), so that they could find jobs in different sectors.

Based on official revelation of country profiles of the developing world, Naila Kabeer states, “Public work programmes that provide employment during slack seasons at wages that are generally below those that prevail in the agricultural labour markets have tended to draw in younger, unmarried women.” and “ The youngest workers in the informal economy in many developing countries are children. Some combine paid and unpaid activities with school attendance.” (p. xvi)

Naila Kabeer makes a strong case in favour of social security provisions on the premise that to get a decent job is a human right. There should be universal standards for wages, work-conditions, occupational health and safety, environmental concern, reproductive rights of women and protective labour laws applicable to all nation states, all races and all religious groups world-wide. She argues, "Social protection strategies are made up of measures for risk reduction, risk mitigation and risk coping." (p.11). She criticizes the World Bank approach to social protection that stems from a concern with the vulnerability of the poor in the face of diverse risks and a belief that markets are the best means of helping them manage these risks.

Kabeer delineates feminization of the workforce as well as feminization of poverty. She analyzes the 'geography of gender' and pattern of economic activity that captures paid and unpaid work of women which is central to gender analysis of labour force participation and the key to gender-aware design of social protection of workers in the unorganized, highly competitive, labour-intensive sector of the global economy. Through case studies of manufacturing, agricultural and fisheries sector, Kabeer proves that it is the power of prevailing ideologies about women's responsibility for childcare and domestic work and their establishment as the norm in labour market institutions that explains the restricted nature of women's choices as much as the actual burden that such responsibilities represent for individual women." (p. 53).

Poor women's survival struggle and grind of work highlights the fact that the search for survival and security is not governed by purely individual motivations. Rather, it is carried out through cooperation between individuals in different spheres of society and governed, at least in part, by these spheres' prevailing rules, norms and conventions defined by hierarchical relationships. Wage labour has emerged as a significant component of the livelihood activities of poorer

households in the African context, while in the Asian countries the manufacturing sector absorbs young women workers in small-scale industries, Special Economic Zones, Export Processing Zones and Free Trade Zones. In Latin America, women's participation in the labour markets have had positive effects in terms of increase in their bargaining power in the household and enhanced personal and economic autonomy. But in all developing countries, old age has been extremely harsh for poor women.

A strong plea can be made for attention, care and resources to meet the developmental needs of children who are deprived of childhood due to early entry (sometimes at as early as 5 years) in economic activity. For prevention of child labour, South Africa started providing a Child Support Grant to biological parents as well as foster parents/ carers. School feeding programmes in Africa, India, Bangladesh and Pakistan combine the goals of reducing child labour and promoting school enrollment, reducing drop out from and increasing retention rates in schools as well as addressing nutritional deficits in children that are going to affect their health, development and cognitive abilities. It also ensures higher enrollment and retention of girls in the schools. Conditional cash transfers were pioneered in Latin America and now they are also promoted by the Indian government for girls' being allowed to be born, sent to school and looked after well by their family members.

Alternative approaches to employment-based social protection are critically evaluated by Kabeer. Public works programmes to address disruptions or fluctuations in income flows have been supply-driven and demand-led e.g. Famine/ Drought Relief Programmes during the colonial period. Subsistence wages provided in such employment attracts the poorest of the poor. In the Employment Guarantee Scheme in India, the majority of them are women from predominantly female-headed households (widows, deserted, divorced and single). In India, the legislative status

of primary right to work, together with subsidiary rights such as humane work conditions, cheque payment, medical aid, crèche, shelter and Right to Information has facilitated nationwide movement of the toiling poor. As Kabeer puts it, “One would not expect employment programmes to solve years of cultural and other barriers to women being treated equally in the workforce. Yet, if such programmes serve to segregate women as “inferior” labour, then their design should be seriously reconsidered.” (p. 169). She also observes that where both cash-for-work and food-for-work employment is offered, it is common to find men dominating the former and women the latter. Due to demands from community-based organizations, women’s groups and gender economists, women’s quota for both project management and employment have been ensured.

Microfinance is regarded as a highly versatile policy instrument. Microfinance through Self-Help Groups (SHGs) has proved to be a strategic measure for organizing women in groups and promoting savings and thrift habits to gain access to institutional credit for their socio-economic development and empowerment. It empowers women since it instills a perception of strength, self reliance and confidence when the poverty trap is broken. The entire process of forming a group, of functioning in a sustained manner, of regulating finances, and being mutually accountable, is in itself projected as empowering. An important dimension of SHGs is the peer pressure, which the members of a group exert amongst themselves, which acts as a substitute for formal collateral in that it is taken as the guarantee for loan repayment. Two important features of this model are self-selection of group members that bypasses the adverse selection problem and peer monitoring tackling the moral hazard problem. Self Employed Women’s Association and Centre for Youth and Social Development, SHARE, MYRADA, CYSD, PRADAN (India), Gonoshasthaya Kendra and BRAC (Bangladesh), Small Enterprises Foundation (South Africa), Uganda Women’s Financial Trust (Uganda) and IKEA (Egypt) are widely regarded as successful organizations. Their efforts illustrate

how microfinance empowers women in terms of reduction in domestic violence, improved social status of women and increase in income.

Contributory public pension schemes such as PAYGO schemes entail intergenerational funding so that contributions of the economically active generation finance the pensions of the currently retired. Social security reforms in several Latin American countries have brought about considerable changes in incentives for women to participate in labour markets, to save and to use the social security system as a channel for their savings. Three important components of the concept of Social Security for women are:

- Promotional component that aims at improving endowments, exchange entitlements, real incomes and social consumption;
- Preventive component that seeks to avert deprivation in more specific ways; and a
- Protective component that ensures relief against deprivation.

Kabeer gives the profile of social security measures that look after overall needs-- employment, sustainable income, ownership of assets, food, health care, child care, maternity care, old age support, housing and other locally-defined needs (transport, water, skills) in Latin America, Africa and Asia. Economic security is directly linked with social security because economic security is a primary means by which people are able to obtain social security. Social security is a means to increase and maintain productivity.

There is a strong basis for organizing for social protection in the informal economy with a rights-based perspective. Naila Kabeer avers, “International campaigns have tended to organize their strategies around global value chains, focusing their attention on wage workers in the ‘traded’ sectors

of the global economy.” So far the trade union movement has focused only on the organized sector, mostly adult male labour and has hardly done anything for women workers and nothing for child workers. In the 21<sup>st</sup> century, the trade union movement is becoming active about the unorganized sector as current processes of economic globalization is dismantling the organized sector and forcing informalization of the work-force. The exclusion of the large majority of workers who happen to be in the informal sector from trade union membership has made International Labour Organization and International Confederation of Trade Unions to conflate the right to organize with the right to join a trade union. Progressive unions have formed women’s cells/ caucuses to deal with women-specific problems. Women employees oppose patriarchal structure of trade unions; prejudice of male leaders who treat women as an auxiliary labour force that can be hired last at the time of economic expansion and fired first at the time of economic recession and high male unemployment; division of labour within unions that appoints men as leaders and women as supporters; unsuitable time and place of union meetings. In women’s unions such as SEWA, women’s role in collective bargaining is prominent and we see reflection of women’s aspirations and demands in the charter of demands. Trade unions have to accept that multitasking by women workers-- cooking, cleaning, caring and wage work-- are extremely important not only for the working class household but also for the economy. They must take up demands of equal wages for equal work, shelter and labour standards. Kabeer shows that workers from lower caste and ethnic and religious minority communities are victims of the most exploitative, stigmatized and demeaning form of work and are ‘excluded’ from development efforts. Hence, it is most important to organize the migrant workers, ‘doubly excluded’ in the informal economy. Domestic Workers Union in South Africa and India, waste pickers associations started by women’s organizations, migrant workers groups throughout the industrialized world have an inspiring record in improving the work conditions and quality of life of their members. Transnational activism has proved Karl Marx right by establishing global solidarity and

struggle. International Women's Networks such as the Clean Clothes Campaign, Committee of Asian Women, Homenet have given voice to the concerns of informal women workers.

A 'generative' model of social protection is advocated by Kabeer by making links to macroeconomic development and social policies that address the need for broad-based service provision, for an equitable regulatory framework and for sustainable generation of livelihood opportunities.

### Check Your Progress Exercise 3

**Note:** i. Use the space given below to answer the questions.

ii. Compare your answer with the one given at the end of this Unit.

1. What do you understand by gender mainstreaming of social protection?

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## 15.5 THE ELEVENTH FIVE YEAR PLAN: A GENDER ANALYSIS OF SOCIAL INFRASTRUCTURE PROVISIONS

The Eleventh Five Year Plan has a number of social infrastructure provisions. A detailed gender analysis of these provisions has a useful role to play in improving sensitivity to concerns of gender equality and gender equity.

### 15.5.1 The Context

In the context of the depressing macroeconomic scenario affecting the toiling poor women due to feminization of poverty and the heavy burden of the global economic downturn on women of the South; mid-term evaluation of gender implications of the Eleventh Five Year Plan is an urgent imperative. Real wages of most women have declined. Women's work burden in the unpaid care economy (cooking, cleaning, nursing, collecting fuel, fodder, water, etc) has increased many-fold due to withdrawal of state from the social sector (Chakraborty, 2008). Privatization of education, health and insurance has increased non-SNA (Non-System of National Accounts) unpaid work of women in the working class and lower middle class households (Hiraway, 2009). Gender-friendly implementation of NREGA in terms of skill building, resource generation, work condition and remuneration reaching actual women beneficiaries is still a distant dream. Support for formation of self help groups (SHGs) and microfinance contribute to their survival and development.

Inflation in agricultural commodities, high prices of essential food items such as grain, vegetables and seasonal fruits has imposed hardship for women. More than two-thirds of Indian women suffer from Malnutrition as per National Family Health Survey 3 (NFHS 3).

Dr. Arjun Sengupta Committee's Report on Unorganized Sector Labour (2007, GoI) has made some startling revelations:

- Over 394.9 million workers (more than 85 per cent of the working population and more than 78 per cent of the workers in the unorganized sector) live with an income of less than Rs. 20 a day.
- Eighty-eight per cent of the Scheduled Tribes and the Scheduled Castes, 80 per cent of the Other Backward Classes and 85 per cent of Muslims belong to the categories of "poor and vulnerable," who earn less than Rs. 20 a day.
- Twenty-one to 46 per cent of men and 57 to 83 per cent of women in non-agricultural sectors are employed as casual workers, who get less than minimum wages.

- The unorganized work-force contributes around 60% to the national economic output of the country.

The neo-liberal economic policies of financial sector reforms; attacks on the livelihood base of the farmers, forest people and slum dwellers; land acquisition in the name of creation of Special Economic Zones, massive displacement and relocation of the masses to suit the vested interests of the construction industry violate 'rights' or 'entitlements' of the urban and rural poor, especially women from the marginalized sections.

#### 15.5.2 Commitments Made in the Eleventh Five Year Plan (EFYP)

The goals and objectives of the EFYP have not translated into better output and outcome indicators and persistence of gender-based disadvantages are evident (Mishra & Jhamb, 2009) as follows:

**Child Sex Ratio:** Mid-decade census has revealed a further decline in the child sex ratio in several parts of India. In the urban centres, deficit of girls is increasing due to pre-birth elimination. In spite of demand of women's groups and recommendation of the Eleventh Five Year Plan to revisit the two child norm laws, several state governments continue to victimize the victim, namely poor, dalit, tribal and Muslim women and unborn girls (as the norm has resulted in intensified sex selective abortions).

**Reproductive and Child Health:** Evaluation of the Chiranjivi Scheme to halt maternal mortality has revealed that the public private partnership in this scheme allows private practitioners to milk tax payers' money without giving necessary relief to pregnant woman. Private practitioners admit women for delivery only in cases of normal delivery.

In case of complicated delivery, the concerned women are sent to over-crowded public hospitals. In the National Rural Health Mission (NRHM), the health workers Accredited Social Health Activists (ASHA) are not paid even minimum wages and are paid “honorarium” (Acharya & Paul, 2009).

**Integrated Child Development Services (ICDS):** Restructuring of ICDS must promote convergence of several schemes of different ministries targeting children such as health, rural development, tribal development, Jawaharlal Nehru Urban Renewal Mission (JNNURM), National Rural Employment Guarantee Scheme (NREGA). Though the Eleventh Five Year Plan promised “Walk-in ICDS centres” at railway stations and bus stands for migrant women and children, none has started yet; not even in the megapolis such as Mumbai, Delhi, Kolkata and Chennai.

**Food Security: As against targeted Public Distribution System (PDS), the state needs to adopt an approach of universalization and up-scaling of PDS.** Government has a vital role to play in countering the tendency toward economic concentration, through genuine tax, credit, and land reforms to disperse buying power toward the poor. Women eat the last and the least. Women have the highest stakes in food security.

**Under the category of 100% allocation for women,** institutional support for women survivors of violence need major attention, but so far not much has been done regarding Scheme for Relief and Rehabilitation of Victims of Sexual Assault promised by the Eleventh Five Year Plan. Women’s groups providing support to women survivors of domestic violence are disappointed since there is no separate allocation for the Implementation of Domestic Violence Act, 2005 which had defined the major role of service providers such as hospitals, law and order machinery, protection office/ counsellor and shelter homes. In several states, implementation of Pre-Natal Diagnostic Technique (PNDT) Act is far from satisfactory as no budgetary allocation is made for putting in place

structures and mechanisms for monitoring abuse of sex determination and sex pre-selection technologies. Schemes for Working Women's Hostels and Swadhar Scheme for women in difficult circumstances should be made available easily to reputed women's groups and the State must facilitate the process of acquiring of land, physical structures (building construction), connectivity with road, transport, health centres, schools, etc. for Swadhar Centres. The state governments, Zilla Parishads should be asked to encourage women's groups and SHGs to come forward to run them in a democratic and participatory manner.

**Water:** The Comptroller and Accountant General's (CAG) audit report on Accelerated Rural Water Supply (ARWS) has made a shocking revelation that despite recurrent bouts of water-borne diseases across the country, all states are ignoring drinking water quality. Most of the state governments did not conduct water quality tests during 2008-09. Poor urban, rural, tribal women's major survival struggle revolves around safe drinking water. Leaving supply of safe drinking water to private players has enhanced hardship of common women.

**Budgetary Allocation for Water Supply and Sanitation** that affects women's life greatly as consumers and unpaid and partially paid-workers does not mention women. This has perpetuated 'unproductive female workload of fetching water from long distance' avers Indira Rajaram. She demands, "water-sheds in the country need to be contoured on the Geographical Information systems (GIS) platform. Using space technology for mapping of aquifers, a five year plan needs to be drawn up for creating sustainable water sources within reasonable reach of rural habitation." (Rajaram, 2007).

**Energy Expenditure of Women:** Reproductive work and domestic duties demand major time and energy of women. A study conducted in urban Delhi through a household survey between September and November 2006 estimated that "Working women spend five hours

on an average per day on housework/childcare in addition to six hours on paid work; where unpaid work is also being done, this adds on another four hours. Women who are not working spend on an average seven hours in housework and care work.” In the rural and tribal areas, collection of fuel, fodder, water, looking after livestock, kitchen gardening demand a great deal of time and energy from women and girls. The 11<sup>th</sup> Plan document has acknowledged the fact, but in reality nothing significant is done in terms of priority given to alternative bio-fuels that causes smoke-related illnesses, availability of safe drinking water and child care facilities, adequate public transport for women.

### **Social Security for Women in the Informal Sector**

The Bill on Social Security for Women Workers, introduced in the Parliament of India has been shelved. In the labour market, a bizarre scenario is created where girl children are trafficked for sex trade/ domestic work and slave labour is employed in occupationally hazardous conditions. Sexual exploitation has become the norm in the informal labour markets, domestic work/ servitude go unchallenged; young women workers in Special Economic Zones are hired and fired as per the whims of employers and are paid miserable wages. Comprehensive legislation for Protection of Domestic Workers, informal sector workers, farm and forest workers applicable throughout the country is needed urgently.

Ninety percent of women are not getting the benefits of maternity benefits. Design of the Maternity Benefit Scheme must be critically examined and specific details should be provided for its judicious implementation and concerned officers who are guilty of non-performance must be made accountable and punished.

In Unorganized Workers' Social Security Act, 2008 (Bill No. LXVII of 2008), special problems of women unorganized workers must be included.

**Elderly Women:** Half Way Homes and Elderly Women's Homes must be provided in every district. Pension Scheme for old, disabled women is implemented only in 4 or 5 states such as Kerala, Gujarat, Andhra Pradesh and Tamil Nadu. PRIs must be motivated to provide an extensive data base on 60 + women in their areas. For widows or elderly women, community-based half way homes fully equipped with counselling facilities, temporary shelter, gat-tot-gather, drop-in-centre, skill building/ upgradation and technical training, is a far more humane way of providing social security rather than doling out money that would be snatched from them by bullies or wicked relatives.

**NREGA:** Trade unions and women's rights organizations from Madhya Pradesh, Punjab and Bihar have repeatedly reported that even under MGNREGA pay disparities are reported by women. MGNREGA provided jobs to 56, 29,822 women in 2007-08 (GoI, 2009). Women continue to be assigned the most unskilled and low paying tasks. Development economists and feminists have demanded that MGNREGA should be turned into an earn-while-you-learn plan through the Public-Private Partnership model that creates an on- the-job training module aimed at upgradation of skills of women working at the sites. The National Skill Development Mission plans to add 1 crore workers to the non-agricultural sector through skill training. They must respect the 30 % women's component. Women capital formation is a must for value addition among women employed in MGNREGA. Central Employment Guarantee Council that is supposed to be an independent watchdog for MGNREGA must be made accountable and must promote gender-sensitive implementation of MGNREGS.

**JNNURM:** Vocational Training for women must be an inbuilt component of JNNRUM. Support services such as crèches, working women's hostels, schools, ICDS centres, ITIs must converge to make an effective utilization of infrastructure.

**SHGs:** Provision of loans at 4 % interest rate is implemented only in Andhra Pradesh. Federations of Women's Self Help Groups (WSHGs) are pressuring other state governments also to provide loans at a differential rate of interest.

The feminization of agriculture as highlighted by 71% women workers in agriculture and women forming 39% of total agricultural workers demands implementation of the women's component plan in Panchayati Raj Institutions. There is an urgent need for a **paradigm shift from microcredit to livelihood finance**, comprising a comprehensive package of support services including:

- a. financial services (including insurance for life, health, crops and livestock; infrastructure finance for roads, power, market, telecom etc. and investment in human development);
- b. agriculture and business development services (including productivity enhancement, local value addition, alternate market linkages etc.) and
- c. institutional development services (forming and strengthening various producers' organizations, such as SHGs, water user associations, forest protection committees, credit and commodity cooperatives, empowering Panchayats through capacity building and knowledge centres etc.).

The following interventions merit serious consideration:

- A network of capacity building institutions should be set up to strengthen and develop SHGs to undertake the various functions into which they are expanding, including Training of Trainers (ToTs), and to nurture and mentor them during the process.
- Milk cooperatives must be run and managed by women. The local authorities should facilitate meeting of WSHGs with the bank managers, lead bank officers and NABARD officers. 10% of authorized shopping areas need to be reserved for WSHGs.
- WSHGs with primitive accumulation of capital should charge 2% or below 2 % rate of interest. The WSHGs that have acquired Swarna Jayanti Gram Swarajgar Yojana (SGSY) loans should reduce the rate of interest to 1.5 %.
- Female-headed households (single, divorced, deserted and widowed) should get special consideration while granting loans.

### **15.5.3 Women's Component in SCP, TSP and Ministry of Minority Affairs**

Gender audit of SCP, TSP and Ministry of Minority Affairs is urgently required. So far only proclamations are made by the state governments but except for Kerala, the rest of the states have not implemented WCP in all development-oriented schemes and programmes.

For example, in the Union Budget, 2008-09, the following allocations were made:

**Need to Emphasize Women's Component in All Mega Schemes, 2008-09**

|                                          |                  |
|------------------------------------------|------------------|
| ■ Education                              | Rs. 34400 crores |
| ■ Health                                 | Rs. 16534 crores |
| ■ NREGS                                  | Rs. 16000 crores |
| ■ Bharat Nirman                          | Rs. 31280 crores |
| ■ AIDS Control Programme                 | Rs. 969 crores   |
| ■ Skill Development Fund                 | Rs. 1000 crores  |
| ■ Food Processing                        | Rs. 290 crores   |
| ■ Loan Waiver Package                    | Rs. 60000 crores |
| ■ Animal Husbandry, Dairying & Fisheries | Rs. 1000 crores  |
| ■ Dept. Agri Research & Education        | Rs. 1760 crores  |

The above mentioned development oriented activities (where massive financial allocation) is made need to specify women's component within the overall financial provision. Education, Health, NREGS, Bharat Nirman, AIDS Control Programme, Skill Development Fund, Food Processing, Loan Waiver Package, Animal Husbandry, Dairying and Fisheries and Dept. of Agriculture Research and Education must earmark the women's component (at least 30%) of the total budgetary allocation. Reservation of seats for girls must be ensured for Skill Development Institutes and Model Schools for which sizeable allocation is made in the budget.

**Women's Rights Education:** No efforts are made by the state or professional bodies for employers' education about basic human rights of women workers. The Supreme Court directive as per Vishakha Judgment concerning safety of women at the workplace is still not implemented by most of the private sector employers and media barons.

**Utilization of Financial Allocation for Pro-Women Schemes:** Only 3-4 States are taking advantage of financial allocation for Swadhar, working women's hostels, short stay homes for women in difficult circumstances, Ujjwala (A Comprehensive Scheme for Prevention of

Trafficking and Rescue, Rehabilitation and Re-integration of Victims of Trafficking and Commercial Sexual Exploitation). Implementation of the crèche scheme is far from satisfactory. Three meals per child per day at the crèches recommended by the Eleventh Five Year Plan are rarely provided. Except for Tamil Nadu, Cradle Baby Reception Centres are non-existent in the rest of India. No status report is available on Integrated Child Protection Scheme (ICPS) promised in the Eleventh Five Year Plan.

It is encouraging to note that the proposal to reserve 50% seats for women in PRIs was cleared by the cabinet on 27-8-09. But fund flow to PRIs has not been streamlined even after separate budgetary allocation for PRIs made in the current budget. How many states have provided a women's component in Panchayat funds? Is it utilized judiciously for women's practical and strategic needs?

All state governments must be made to work towards fulfillment of longstanding demands of the women's groups that provisions be made in the composite programmes under education, health and rural development sectors to target them specifically at girls/women as the principal beneficiaries disaggregated within the total allocation and restrictions should be placed on their re-appropriation for other purposes.

**Road and Rail Transport for Women:** India is undergoing a U-shaped phenomenon so far as women's work participation is concerned (Sudarshan and Bhattacharya, 2009).

Most of the working women in urban and rural areas travel in overcrowded buses and trains. In the transport sector top priority needs to be given for women in special buses and trains in all cities. For women street vendors, seat-less buses and special luggage compartments in trains need to be provided.

### **Implementation of Legislations**

Promise of the 11<sup>th</sup> Five Year Plan to allocate funds for Implementation of PNDT ACT, 2002 and Domestic Violence Act, 2005 has remained unfulfilled in most of the states and

marginally fulfilled in some states such as Andhra Pradesh, Kerala, Karnataka and Tamil Nadu.

No progress is made in providing audit of land and housing rights of women by any ministry-- Urban Development, Rural Development, Tribal Development, Panchayati Raj Institutions (PRIs) and Urban local self-government bodies.

**After consistent highlighting of the findings of the Rajendra Sachar Committee Report, 2007** on deplorable socio-economic status of the majority of Muslims in India, special budgetary allocation for socially excluded minority communities is made. In the sub-plan for minorities where allocation of Rs. 513 crore is made in Budget Estimates, no specific allocations have been made for minority women/ female-headed households by the Ministry of Minority Affairs.

Inadequate allocation for crucial schemes affecting survival struggles of women such as the **Rajiv Gandhi National Creche Scheme for Children of Working Mothers** (Rs. 56.50 crore), Working Women's Hostel (Rs. 5 crore), Swadhar (Rs. 15 crore), Rescue of victims of trafficking (Rs. 10 crore), conditional cash transfer for the girl child (for the first time introduced and allocation of Rs. 15 crore made) need to be corrected.

#### **15.5.4 Assessing the Performance of the EFYP**

Several women-specific schemes and programmes do not make state governments responsible for better financial allocation and channelizing through appropriate ministries. Synchronization of funds from the ministries to targeted populations through specially designed schemes is very important. For example, there is an urgent need for schemes for education, health and nutrition, skill development for girls in the age group of 6 years to 15 years. This age group is neither covered by the heavily funded ICDS (that targets 0-6 age group) or RCH (that targets 15-45 age group).

In rhetoric, the policy framework underlying the EFYP recognizes the rights / entitlements for women but the structures and mechanisms for interventions are too bureaucratic, top-down which do not allow women's groups to take the lead e.g. schemes for women in difficult circumstances- SWADHAR, working women's hostels. For women-specific centrally sponsored schemes, the state governments are not coming forward with matching grant and funds of the union budget for women remain unutilized.

### **Women Elected Representatives in PRIs**

The 11<sup>th</sup> Five Year Plan promised the PRIs their due share with recognition that empowerment of PRIs as the primary means of delivery of essential services is crucial and critical to inclusive growth. But in reality, PRIs are starved of funds. A series of workshops conducted for women elected representatives repeatedly brought out this fact. "Even in 2009, democratic decentralization in PRIs has not ensured financial decentralization." (Raskar, 2009). The leakage in delivery mechanisms and poor accountability at the state level has prevented funds from reaching the targeted beneficiaries (Ahuja, 2009).

Except for RCH programmes, all schemes and programmes targeted at women have grossly inadequate budgetary resources being allocated for the major programmes / schemes in the EFYP.

Inclusion of Gender Budget Statement in the annual national budget has been a noteworthy achievement for the women's movement in India (Nakray, 2009). Under, the EFYP, several

state governments have been proved guilty of non-utilization of allocated funds due to non-release of funds on time e.g. Maharashtra, Assam and Rajasthan.

### **Women's Rights to Land and Housing**

Women's land and housing needs must be understood from the point of view of women's rights to dignified life. They should not face any discrimination in exercising their right to land and housing due to their caste, race, age, religion and ethnicity. State and civil society initiatives must facilitate the process of women's empowerment through exercising women's rights to land and housing. The following issues need immediate implementation:

- The local self government bodies should reserve 10% of all houses/ flats/ industrial units/ shops in the market places for women.
- Rural and tribal women must get their land and housing rights. Scheduled Caste Plan and Tribal Sub-Plan financial allocation should be used for this purpose.
- Half-way homes for special needs of elderly, disabled and mentally ill women should be created in the community/ neighbourhood.
- Schools of Architecture, Engineering Colleges and Institutions for Interior Designing must incorporate gender concerns in housing, land use and town planning in their syllabi and must organize capacity building workshops and training programmes for women.
- Gender sensitization of the decision-makers in the housing industry (both public and private sector) and the elected representatives of the mainstream political bodies should be given top priority.
- For formulation of gender-sensitive policies, Gender experts and CBOs working on the housing-land-water and sanitation must be inducted in the apex bodies of urban, rural and tribal housing projects.

**Tax-free clinical trials** with the stated goal of making India a preferred destination for drug testing in the private sector would have dangerous consequences as it will make the poor guinea pigs in the hands of commercial minded techno-docs. Non-utilization and partial utilization of funds allocated for protective, promotive, economic and social welfare programmes for women due to faulty design of the scheme (Maternity Benefits Scheme, non-synchronization of financial allocation and schemes /funds targeted for adolescent girls' nutrition) and MPLADS (Members of Parliament Local Area Development scheme) and funds earmarked for grain banks in the tribal areas known for starvation deaths demand urgent attention of politicians, bureaucrats, citizens' organizations and women's groups.

### **Health Insurance**

It has been estimated by the Independent Commission on Development and Health in India in February 2010 that about 250 million who live just above the poverty line slip back into poverty if they face just one health crisis. India's hospitalization costs have soared in urban areas by 126% and in rural areas by 78% between 1995 and 2004, according to the National Sample Survey Organization. The Rashtriya Swasthya Bima Yojana (National Health Insurance Scheme or RSBY as its acronym) provides a Rs. 30,000 insurance cover for Below Poverty Line (BPL) families upto a maximum of five members per family on a payment of Rs. 30. In 26 months, RSBY has enrolled more than 60 million people in 22 states; by next year that should double to 100 million. This is the first use, on this scale, of India's technological prowess to run a national social-security programme (Halarnkar, 2010). It costs Rs. 4,500 per year to fund RSBY, a drop in the Rs. 1.36 lakh crore that India will spend on social security schemes in 2010-11. The Centre pays 75% of the premium, roughly Rs. 450 per person per year.

### **15.5.5 Recommendations**

The Eleventh Five Year Plan needs to not only recognize and value social reproduction but work pro-actively to redesign development services and macroeconomic policies that ensure social security and support services for the majority of women (CBGA, 2009).

Gender commitments of the EFYP must reflect into budgetary commitments coupled with greater efficiency and effectively targeted and utilized resources for women to guarantee substantive equality for women. Enhancement of public spending on social infrastructure is the only way to gender-inclusive growth.

Studies need to be commissioned to highlight the gap between plan outlay and outcome, local and global implications of pro-poor and pro-women budgeting, alternative macro scenarios emerging out of alternative budgets and inter-linkages between gender-sensitive budgeting and women's empowerment (Patel, 2009).

There is an urgent need to sensitize economists about the visibility of women in statistics and indicators by holding conceptually and technically sound training workshops by gender economists.

The most difficult task in the gender analysis of budget is to compile gender desegregated data on allocation and expenditure on pro- women and gender-neutral schemes which are not generated from the existing formats and schedules of budgetary procedures and reporting systems. Again, mere expenditure analysis does not give any true picture about the actual impact of such expenditure on women. This certainly calls for more in-depth analysis on sectoral issues over a larger than annual time frame. It is also necessary to formulate uniform guidelines and procedures so that valid comparisons and inferences can be made at the regional and national level.

The Ministry of Women and Child Development needs more vociferous and visionary leadership, political will and courage of conviction to strive to not only fulfill the promises made by the Eleventh Five Year Plan but also expand the democratic space for women and girls in socio-cultural, economic, educational and political spheres.

#### Check Your Progress Exercise 4

**Note:** i. Use the space given below to answer the questions.

ii. Compare your answer with the one given at the end of this Unit.

1. What are the major recommendations in improving the gender-sensitivity and expanding the provisions for women and girls in the planning effort?

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#### 15.6 WOMEN, EDUCATION AND SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT

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Marginalization of women from the mainstream socio-economic, political and cultural scenario is mainly due to gender-biases in the entry of the educational institutions, options for education and training available to girl-students and employment opportunities available to the educated and qualified women. If less educated and untrained women occupy the decision-making bodies, they have to depend mostly on men (with all their anti-women prejudices) for their day-to-day functioning. If highly qualified women have no mandatory power, their talent remains unutilized

or underutilized and in due course of time, they become cretins. If we want to avoid both the types of situations, we will have to critically examine the monolithic structures of the formal educational institutions with their class, caste, communal and sexist biases and provide concrete alternatives in terms of:

- an increased outreach of the educational (both, of formal and non-formal variety) institutions;
- reforms in the existing curricula with commitment to social justice, gender justice, communal harmony and peaceful governance; and
- more allocation of resources in terms of land, money and human resources.

The reason for the recent enthusiasm about women's education in the official discourse is due to the fact that several area studies have shown that educated women are able to avoid child-marriage, command more autonomy in their reproductive rights and produce less number of children (Jeffrey and Basu, 1996).

### **A Statistical Profile**

Six decades of independent India have generated different patterns of male and female literacy due to different priorities of different state governments and different cultural legacies determining women's autonomy and control of movements. The National Sample Survey Organization's 2005-06 data shows that the literacy rate for males was 74% as compared to only 52% for females in the rural areas with regard to the population aged seven and above. In cities, 816 men and 702 women out of every 1000 were literate in 2005-06, compared to 805 men and 693 women out of 1000 in 2004-05.

**Table 15.1: Literacy Rate, 2001**

| State          | Total | Male | Female |
|----------------|-------|------|--------|
| Andhra Pradesh | 61    | 71   | 51     |

|                |    |    |    |
|----------------|----|----|----|
| Assam          | 64 | 72 | 56 |
| Bihar          | 48 | 60 | 34 |
| Gujarat        | 70 | 81 | 59 |
| Haryana        | 69 | 79 | 56 |
| Karnataka      | 67 | 76 | 57 |
| Kerala         | 91 | 94 | 88 |
| Madhya Pradesh | 64 | 77 | 50 |
| Maharashtra    | 77 | 86 | 68 |
| Orissa         | 64 | 76 | 51 |
| Punjab         | 70 | 76 | 64 |
| Rajasthan      | 61 | 76 | 44 |
| Tamil Nadu     | 73 | 82 | 65 |
| Uttar Pradesh  | 57 | 70 | 43 |
| West Bengal    | 69 | 78 | 60 |
| All India      | 65 | 76 | 54 |

Source: Final Population Total of 2001 Census, Series 1, paper no. 2 of 2002, The Registrar General of India.

Kerala scores the first rank in female literacy, thanks to the active collaboration of voluntary organizations such as Kerala Sastra Sahitya Parishad (KSSP) and Library Movement, university supported National Service Scheme (NSS), the state government supported Literacy Mission and efficient private and KSRTC (Kerala State Road Transport Corporation) supported transport, over and above railways and waterways used for transporting the students at extremely reasonable rates. Sex segregation, caste hostilities and unsafe transport have resulted in tremendous restrictions on women's mobility in Bihar, Madhya Pradesh, Rajasthan and Uttar

Pradesh which keeps 75% of the female population illiterate. Alcoholism among men resulting in domestic violence in the urban working class areas and rural and tribal areas actively promoted by the economic and political vested interests has been a single major impediment in the literacy programmes in Andhra Pradesh, Gujarat, Haryana, Karnataka, Maharashtra, Orissa, Punjab and Tamil Nadu. It is sad to notice the conspiracy of silence concerning violence against women (in the domestic arena, while going to and returning from school, in classroom situations and in the school-college-university campuses) in all discourses about women's education in India.

**Table 15.2: Gross Enrollment Ratio (GER)**

|           |       | <b>Primary<br/>(I-IV)</b> | <b>Upper Primary<br/>(V- VIII)</b> |
|-----------|-------|---------------------------|------------------------------------|
| All India | Boys  | 113.8                     | 77.1                               |
|           | Girls | 91.5                      | 52.9                               |
|           | Total | 103.0                     | 65.5                               |

Source: Ministry of Human Resource Development, quoted in Economic Survey, 1995-96, Government of India, Ministry of Finance, Economic Division, Delhi.

### **Need for Multifaceted Approach in the context of Unevenness in Different States**

We need to learn from the 19th century social reform movement to effectively manage literacy missions with the help of the state apparatus and progressive sections of civil society. In the official documents one hardly finds legitimization of difficulties faced by women animators, anganwadi and balwadi workers in the Northern parts of India where they are increasingly facing backlash of violence by statusquoist forces in BIMARU states. In these areas, if more men from different castes, ethnic and religious backgrounds are involved in the literacy

programmes, it will be easier to negotiate women's concerns with the patriarchal forces. Both women and men are carriers of patriarchal hostility against women's education. One of the reasons for the success of the literacy mission in Kerala and Maharashtra has been active involvement of male animators and male decision makers from different caste backgrounds who have been able to convince the caste and community panchayats to support women's education. They have been able to discuss prevalent stereotypes against the educated women i.e. "Education makes girls hostile to manual work, arrogant, disrespectful towards elders, uncontrollable, unruly and irresponsible towards domestic responsibilities (cooking, cleaning and caring)."

In the middle-level literacy areas, vocational training programmes under TRYSEM and Industrial Training Institutes (ITIs) have been introduced for women. "Although 1887 ITIs throughout the country also enroll women, to improve their access, 132 separate women's ITIs were established along with 98 separate women's wings in the general ITIs (World Bank, 1992). But these vocationally trained women are not given any training in crisis management, assertiveness and self-defense. Women technicians' cooperatives with regular meetings for discussion of their day-to-day problems should be formed.

Which are the factors responsible for the success of Mahila Samakya Programme for education for women's equality) in Karnataka, Gujarat and Uttar Pradesh? The most important factor for its popularity is its persuasive approach and democratic handing of the programme, both horizontally and vertically. Women animators working in the community are at ease with the managerial cadre due to relationship of mutual respect and all women employees are provided a secure environment and personal safety by the government apparatus (top-down) and the beneficiaries (bottom-up). These factors seem to be missing in the Women's Development Programmes (WDP) in Rajasthan. There is insecurity all around-- among the village heads, among the animators and among the beneficiaries.

In the high literacy areas, there is a need to identify potential women decision-makers and efforts should be made to groom them to fulfill the tasks of social development. Highly educated women who can compete in the global market should be provided a gender-just and secure environment to realize their full potential. Deskilling is the major casualty with the Indian educated women. Patriarchs of both Government Organizations (GOs) and Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) systematically encourage deskilling of highly qualified women by making them do monotonous, routine chores, which could have been easily done by moderately educated and skilled persons. This has prevented professional women from taking decision-making roles, which demand abilities for critical evaluation, immediate response to unfolding realities and strategic thinking.

Women who find it difficult to adjust to classroom teaching or cannot learn from the teacher either individually or in the classes can be reached only through television, video films or radio and wall papers, charts. Married women fall in this category. One-to-one teaching is a luxury, which can be afforded only by the economically secure individuals and institutions.

Dissemination of information through listening to radio is highly popular among the toiling poor and the housewives. Increasing the slot on educational programmes would help to cover a wide range of themes such as gender-justice, legal awareness, credit, minimum wages, environmental protection, employment generation schemes, scholarships, technical training, entrepreneurship training etc. Doordarshan Centres and All India Radio's regional-language programme officers should keep live contact with teaching faculties in the universities and schools to upgrade the knowledge base of today's Eklavyas in the dalit bustees (popularly known as Harijanwas), in the Muslim ghettos and in the tribal areas who are extremely diffident to approach caste Hindu teachers. In this context, it is an important duty of all Panchayati Raj institutions to reach out to 47 % of women in India who are not exposed to any electronic mass media.

For a successful implementation of the literacy mission and women's education and training, safe public transport for both women teachers and girls/women students is necessary. Areas earmarked for purdah culture (of both, Hindu and Muslim varieties) and areas with high prevalence of eve-teasing/sexual harassment of women should provide women with special buses during school/ college hours. Development of public transport, safety on roads and clusters of girls/ women traveling together can create a congenial atmosphere for women's mobility. For ensuring this, community-based networking and formation of special interest groups are a must. Careful nurturance of clusters of girls who are ready to do cerebral work, skilled work, semi-skilled work, unskilled work with a perspective of community's immediate and long-term needs has so far been a prerogative of the upwardly mobile sections of the society. Educationists and social workers need to adopt this approach to guarantee social development of economically, socially, culturally and educationally deprived sections of society. While doing this, we have to be extremely sensitive to the fact that religious feelings of each and every community are not hurt. Instead of the lecture method, if the dialogue-based method is introduced in the educational institutions, we can create human resources with high verbal articulation combined with democratic behaviour.

The gender gap in literacy has reduced in the last census years although the reduction has been marginal. This is also true with regard to many traditional indicators of gender equality like infant mortality, life expectancy etc. At the same time, there is also an apparent contradiction between the traditional women's empowerment indicators such as, the female literacy levels, sex ratio, mortality etc. with that of more proximate variables on gender relations, collected through the National Family Health Surveys in India (NFHS), like involvement in decision-making and violence against women etc. (James, 2004). The National Family Health Surveys (NFHS) of 1998-99 and 2005-06 indicate that the states performing better in gender equality, based on

traditional measures like literacy, sex ratio, mortality need not necessarily be a good representation of gender equality due to its poor correlation with proximate measures of gender like decision-making, violence against women (International Institute for Population Sciences and ORC Macro, 2000; International Institute for Population Sciences and Macro International, 2007).

NFHS-3 (2005-06) includes data on the following measures of women's empowerment:

- Currently married women who usually participate in household decisions (%)
- Ever-married women who have ever experienced spousal violence (%)

The data indicates that 36.7% currently married women usually participate in household decisions and 37.2% ever-married women have ever experienced spousal violence.

**Table 15.3: Percentage Distribution of Ever-married Women in the age-group of 13-49 by highest Level of Education attained, according to selected background characteristics and residence, India**

| Religion    | Illiterate | Literate<br><primary<br>Complete | Primary<br>School<br>Complete | Middle<br>School<br>Complete | High<br>School<br>Complete | Above High<br>School |
|-------------|------------|----------------------------------|-------------------------------|------------------------------|----------------------------|----------------------|
| Hindu       | 64         | 6                                | 11                            | 7                            | 8                          | 3                    |
| Muslim      | 66         | 10                               | 12                            | 6                            | 5                          | 1                    |
| Christian   | 33         | 11                               | 15                            | 15                           | 19                         | 8                    |
| Sikh        | 51         | 3                                | 19                            | 8                            | 14                         | 5                    |
| Jain        | 10         | 7                                | 14                            | 12                           | 33                         | 24                   |
| Buddhist    | 59         | 11                               | 13                            | 9                            | 6                          | 1                    |
| Caste/tribe |            |                                  |                               |                              |                            |                      |
| S.C.        | 81         | 4                                | 7                             | 4                            | 3                          | 0.5                  |

|       |    |   |    |   |   |     |
|-------|----|---|----|---|---|-----|
| S.T.  | 84 | 5 | 5  | 3 | 2 | 0.7 |
| Total | 63 | 7 | 11 | 7 | 8 | 3.4 |

Source: NFHS, 1993.

Committed male animators with mandated power from their respective panchayats can facilitate the task of:

1. Getting young girls out of the clutches of matriarchs and patriarchs in the family and in the kinship network who thrive on the labour of girl-children and young women. `Respect for elders plays a crucial role in hampering women from attending schools. Even when they are allowed to attend schools, the moment they return from school they have to forget about studies. We have reached a stage where boys and young men shun studying in the public libraries and more and more girls and young women are taking advantage of studying in the reading rooms and college libraries.
2. Taking active interest in mobilizing support for girls and women's enrollment in schools and colleges. This can happen when the male animators adopt the 19th century social reform policy i.e. `Reform begins from home', not with narrow casteist/communal perspectives but with the multicultural perspective. Women teachers who are powerless in their own families and in the community do not command moral legitimacy in the eyes of heads (male as well as female) of the household who take decisions about education of their daughters, sisters and daughters-in-law. Community leaders and village elders thoroughly scrutinize personal lives of gram-sevikas, anganwadi teachers, school teachers, head-mistresses, principals of schools and colleges, wardens (men and women) of hostels before enrolling their girls/women in any educational institutions.

Two major problems faced by Muslim girls have been:

- Tremendous fear in the minds of Muslim parents to send their girls out as a result of insecurity generated due to recurrence of communal conflicts in the recent past. This factor

comes in the way of Muslim girls attending secular schools (Women's Research and Action Group, 1994).

- Lack of employment opportunities and difficulty in finding marriage partners for educated Muslim women in India (Lateef, 1990).

### **Successful NGO Models in Non-formal Methods of Imparting Education**

Several successful NGO models are available focusing on non-formal methods of imparting education. Gender sensitivity and addressing the needs of women and girls is an important concern.

#### *Youth for Unity and Action (YUVA), Mumbai*

The main thrust of Anubhav Shikshan Programme of YUVA is conscientization of community-based youth through critical examination of first hand experience, learning from literature produced by marginalized sections of society, unlearning sexism, casteism and communalism through exercises such as role-play and role reversal, mutuality in the relationship between the teacher and the taught. Bands of youth trained in this manner after years of sincere efforts at community level start stagnating in the absence of more challenging tasks of new institution building, state-national-regional- global level work-experiences. A special branch of YUVA, which does budget analysis with human development perspective, has proved to be an effective tool for advocacy.

#### *Stree Mukti Sangathana (SMS) & Granthali, Maharashtra*

Since 1974, SMS has been involved in public education about women's rights through songs, skits, music ballets, plays, carnivals and mobile exhibitions. Three male animators (who were hero-worshipped by women members of SMS) from the fields of media, education and social movement played crucial role in this early phase. The main strength of this organization is long lasting team building and absence of hedonism. By 1985, the end of the UN decade, SMS

managed to go high-tech by marketing its productions through a series of audio and video cassettes, by making headway in the mainstream media (radio and television), several publications and a mouth-piece in Marathi. Its plays on socialization of the girl child, dowry, Pandita Ramabai were staged all over Maharashtra. Many non-Maharashtrians also expressed their interest in organizing the shows. This encouraged them to launch their Hindi production and allow other groups to perform these plays in several Indian languages. The spartan life style of the performers who could also handle discussions, sell books and explain posters to common citizens and villagers won the hearts of people across the class, caste and political boundaries which represent 85% of the population. In the post-1992 period, SMS has made special efforts to reach out to the minority communities (Muslims- 11%, Sikhs- 2% and Christians- 2.4% of the population) through their active participation in the Literacy Mission.

Granthali is a library movement spear-headed by the secular-minded intellectual elite of Maharashtra, which imbibed the ethos of the liberal humanism of the 19th century social reform movement. Publication of original Marathi works, translations from English and other regional languages, celebration of book-release functions in an educational and non-threatening manner and their distribution through exhibition-cum-sale-cum-discussion by celebrity intellectuals are the most attractive aspects of this movement. It conveys the message that intellectual stalwarts are not in their ivory towers but they are rooted in local culture. They do not despise ordinary mortals but respect them as socially useful human beings. Educational material generated by Granthali has been found useful for classroom teaching and teachers' training on social development issues.

#### *All India People's Science Movement, Women's Desk*

This organization has made more and more girls interested in application of knowledge of physics, chemistry, botany and zoology in their day-to-day life. Its chapter in Madhya Pradesh is

looked after by Eklavya, which is actively, working with schools, department of science and technology. Its journal in Hindi called Chakmak is extremely popular among school children.

They have made effective use of computers and internet facilities for area development.

In Kerala its chapter is known as Kerala Sastra Sahitya Parishad (KSSP) which works with educational institutions and voluntary organizations to impart science education through exhibitions, posters, booklets, demonstrations and jathas.

### *Inspiring Projects for Girl Students*

Young, underprivileged girls in the age group of 9 years to 14 years are getting education about real life issues. They acquire a postal address, a home in the city map and an identity of their own due to Vacha, Mumbai's Bal Kishori Action Research Project. Vacha regularly organizes educational melas for adolescent girls in which knowledge their health, difficult subjects like mathematics, accounts and English language is given. Prerana, an NGO based in the red light area, is trying to rescue the innocent children of commercial sex-workers from being sucked into the cesspool their mothers were dragged into, by educating the children and by providing shelter. CEHAT, Mumbai initiated an informal school, Sahayog for adolescent girls who had dropped out of middle and senior school in June 2000. These girls are preparing for open school examinations. In two years time, it has focused its attention in creating space and opportunity for adolescent girls, to revitalize community structures, to give direction for building an institution.

### *Health Education for Women*

Two decades of grassroots women's movements has made health education for women a topmost priority. Modules for health education prepared by Chetana (Ahmedabad) in Gujarati, Hindi and English, Masum-Cehat (Pune) in Marathi, Jagori (Delhi) in Hindi, Voluntary Health Association of India in several Indian languages have been found very useful for school health

programmes. Material on fertility awareness by Mahila Samooch (Rajasthan), Search (Gadchiroli, Maharashtra) and Stree Multi Sangathana (Mumbai), Forum for Women and Health (Mumbai) is useful for teachers' training and education of girls. Foundation course of SNDT Women's University has a course on Women in Changing India in which there is a module on health.

### **Role of Distance Education in Women's Social Development**

Correspondence Courses offered by over 100 Indian universities and newly established open universities have facilitated the tasks of girls and women who are unable to attend schools and colleges.

Contact Lectures conducted by University Grants Commission are watched by women and educational documentaries on women's studies telecast by Education Media Research Centre (EMRC) are found useful educational aids. There is tremendous shortage of regional language educational programmes on women on AIR and television. Individual women documentary makers and women filmmakers' collective such as Mediastorm (Delhi) should make a united effort to get more television time for women's education and educational programmes on gender issues.

### **Educational Input of the Social Movements against the Dominant Discourse**

Social movements have critiqued the dominant discourse, which refuses to examine power-relations while examining the existing education about socio-economic and cultural issues specific to women. At the same time, they have provided alternatives in terms of non-hierarchical methods of education, linkages between formal and non-formal education, inputs in curriculum revision, preparation of text-books for teaching totally new subjects such as environment and women, human rights, gender justice, methods of counselling, etc. Moreover,

the social movements have adopted different approaches to reach out to differently abled human beings, those who are totally disinclined to cerebral work, those who are ready for basic education and skills, those who are ready for higher learning. Non-hierarchical functioning and mutual respect are answers to harmonious functioning among these three sets of people working in the same institutions.

Globalization has made several conventional skills non-marketable, e.g. labour-intensive and drudgery-prone skills of artisan classes which are extremely important as home-based activities (especially for women with small children and the elderly, handicapped or ill family members) which can be done when the basic survival issues are sorted out. At the same time, it has opened new vistas for social development through multilateral economic/ trade arrangements, educational , professional , cultural collaborations, provided we are able to generate proper human resources to handle this. We will have to encourage courses on language learning, translations/ transliterations, travel and tourism, museology, development studies, comparative cultures, religious studies, diplomacy with a human face, systemic analysis and strategic thinking, human rights.

### **Dealing with Gender-biases in the Educational Institutions**

In response to Narendra Nath Kalia's Ph.D. thesis, National Council of Education, Research and Training had done similar work with regard to Syllabi of Central Schools. In the late nineties, we find actual changes taking place to some extent. Scarcity of gender-sensitive text-book writers with knowledge of parent discipline and ability to weave women's concern within the subject matter is the main bottleneck. The course content also needs to provide education in crisis management, confidence building, dealing with anorexia and bulimia among girl students.

### **Introduction of Women's/ Gender Studies as a Special Discipline**

Research-work under the banner of women's studies began immediately after the discussion of Towards Equality Report (1974) in the parliament. Indian Council of Social Science Research

(ICSSR) and UGC provided research grants to several institutions, university departments and individual scholars to conduct researches on women's issues. On the basis of these research materials, several text-books have been prepared (UGC affiliated institutions are using Women and Society in India by Neera Desai and Maithreyi Krishnaraj, Ajanta Publications, Mumbai, 1988. Four Indian Institute of Technology (IITs) are using Women in Indian Society edited by Rehana Ghadiali, Sage Publications, Delhi, 1988. )

In some universities special women's studies (WS) departments are formed and in several universities/colleges Women's Studies has been introduced as a subject in polytechnics and within the parent-discipline such as sociology, economics, psychology, literature, history, home science. WS as a special discipline is taught in the Police Academy (Hyderabad), Institute for Management in Governance-IMG- (Thiruvananthapuram), Institute of Economic Growth (Delhi), Shastri Institute (Mussoorie), Indian Law Institute -ILI (Bangalore), Institute of Rural Management- IRMA (Anand), National Institute of Rural Development - NIRD and Indian Institute of Technology- IIT (Mumbai), Academy of Defence Studies, autonomous institutions running courses of journalism and other mass communication techniques have incorporated gender studies in their syllabi. Only medical and engineering colleges, schools of architecture, music colleges, schools/faculties of fine arts and FTII (Film Institute, Pune) have fallen short in this direction. There is a need for both, Gender studies, which focuses on the analytical category, power and women's studies, which focuses specifically on women.

Several NGOs are also offering courses on women's studies, gender justice and gender and development. YWCA (Bombay), Sakti (Bangalore) SEARCH (Bangalore) and Indian Social Institute (Delhi and Bangalore) have been active in these fields for over a decade.

### **Need for New Initiatives for More Educational Institutions**

Interaction between educational trusts and enlightened funders can establish formation of more educational institutions for teaching, training and need-based research. This can be achieved

only when all groups of stakeholders (board of trustees, funders, people engaged in education management and representatives from local self-government bodies) discuss this issue in an ambience of transparency in a seminar/ workshop. Education and training on gender issues have gained much importance because of the “mandate from the top”. But to find gender -sensitive trainers is very difficult. NGOs wedded to the cause of a gender-just society will have to bring a major shift in their priority in favour of gender issues so that qualified women in these NGOs are not used as dancing dolls to maintain status quo. Moreover, there has to be shift in the paradigm, from paternalism and philanthropy to social justice and human rights (Amar Jesani, 1996).

### **Recasting Educational Institutions**

The New Education Policy, 1986 has made a realistic analysis of the crisis in the existing educational institutions and recommended democratization of their functioning.

If it happens, it will be truly beneficial for promoting the women's cause. It will encourage more and more highly talented educated women to take up the teaching profession. A dialogue-based approach in teaching methods can reduce alienation of girls from their studies. Skill upgradation of the existing staff to teach courses on development studies, environmental science, gender justice and human rights have begun in the big cities where they have been able to find highly motivated teachers who are ready to put in extra efforts to learn these subjects (which are interdisciplinary in nature, hence more demanding) and later on, teach these subjects over and above their regular work.

To facilitate inter-state, inter-regional and international trade, collaborative ventures in the fields of fine-arts, cultural activities, diplomatic ties, international conferences on women-specific issues; tolerant and emotionally mature women should be encouraged to learn more and more languages so that they can act as facilitators. For this, more courses on different languages should be introduced. Diploma courses to suit the needs of a fast changing economy should be

identified according to specific needs of the area. To achieve quick results in this direction, an audiovisual medium should be promoted, as absorption of information is easier.

### **Experiences of NGO-run Open Schools**

Rehabilitation centres for street children, child workers and ex-child prostitutes have experienced that formal education is very difficult to cope up with, for these children with special needs. Hence many NGOs and social work institutions have started open schools which offer a wide range of creatively designed courses. Along with functional literacy, vocational training is given. Teaching aids are devised to suit the inclination and abilities of the students. Special coaching is given to students who want to appear for the examinations of the formal education systems. If students find mathematics, science or English very difficult to cope up with, they can avoid these subjects. In Mumbai, Jeevan Nirvah Niketan (JNN), an Open School was started by a retired principal of the mission school under a tree in the slum in the early nineties. When Snehasdan, which established 15 homes of street-children in the same area, it had to adopt multi-pronged approach for education of the children. Those who managed to pick up fast, were admitted in the formal school. Those who could not, were admitted in the open school. In 1996, the Mumbai police executed a series of raids in the red-light areas and rescued child prostitutes who were sent for rehabilitation in shelter homes in the same area, which also needed open schools for the girls who could not adjust to formal education. A third category of students for the open school came from the child workers in the locality. The shelter homes constructed new buildings in their premises to house the open school in their premises. Now, the open school has a huge building with all modern amenities, well-equipped units for technical training and vocational courses, placement of students from professional social work institutions and school buses. JNN is situated in the premises of two shelter homes for women situated in the same campus. The constructive approach of the college of social work, the management of the

shelter homes, retired bureaucrats and police officers, social activists and print media contributed to the success story of the open school. Initial opposition to JNN ( because some of its students were ex-child prostitutes and street children) by the middle class neighbourhood was neutralized in due course as all measures were taken to keep the pimps, procurers and the mafia dons away from the vicinity of JNN.

### **Role of Panchayati Raj Institutions in Promotion of Women's Education**

Women's empowerment through education requires a focus on handling of day-to-day problems of the community, maintaining accounts, dealing with financial institutions, legal literacy, awareness about the functioning of governmental structures, record keeping, writing of minutes, voting pattern (supporting, opposing, abstaining, non-voting), systematic methods of discussion/ debate, role of a chairperson, mock-parliament, mock-legislative assembly, mock court trials, social audit, social accountability, basic knowledge about national history, economic affairs, diplomacy, multicultural outlook etc. This has posed a major challenge to our educational institutions.

Priority issues for village, tehsil and district panchayats have been education, employment generation, housing, labour relations, human rights and environment. Involvement of educated senior citizens who are economically secure, for education and training on the above subjects is the only answer to reduce the burden of the teaching faculty.

"The Department of Women and Child Development has decided to give cash assistance of Rs. 10000 to each voluntary agency, college, school or social welfare organization which takes up the task of educating women contestants to Panchayat bodies " (Mishra 1997). This amount should be used for reference material for the participants to build a reference library on social development issues and a nutritious diet for the participants.

Functional literacy to handle day-to-day survival needs of women from the socially and economically marginalized sections is a core area. Adult education programmes should adopt a need-based approach, which should include the following areas: reading of sign-boards; handling transport systems; managing bank accounts; handling official papers, records, ration cards, licenses; mainstreaming of tribal/ rural women's knowledge of forest resource management; and identification of secular minded teachers to work among the marginalized sections from different religious groups.

### **Educational Needs of Environmental Refugees**

The most difficult area of educational work is among the victims of floods, famines, displaced population due to mega projects, nomadic tribes, sex workers and the underworld. As this population constitutes nearly half of our population, our educationists will have to give up their ivory tower approach. NGOs working with these sections of society will have to get legitimate space in the mainstream educational bodies so that realistic curriculum can be developed.

### **Major Conclusion**

Induction of an increasing number of highly educated women with direct experience of activism in the women's movement in the mainstream educational bodies, literacy mission, departments of women and child development of state and central governments and research institutions is a welcome step to promote women's education and social development.

### **Check Your Progress Exercise 5**

**Note:** i. Use the space given below to answer the questions.

ii. Compare your answer with the one given at the end of this Unit.

1. List some of the NGO initiatives in the sphere of gender-sensitive interventions in education.
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### **15.7 EDUCATION AND HEALTH OF THE GIRL CHILD**

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For the first time in the post-independence period, the Girl Child became the subject matter for special enquiry among the official circles during the SAARC (South Asian Association for Regional Cooperation) Decade of the Girl Child (1990 –2000). Several baseline surveys, micro-studies, region- specific case histories and narratives provided the database for a macro-profile on health issues concerning the Girl child.

Recognizing this vital area of human capital development, the SAARC Declaration has highlighted three main areas for strategic intervention to improve quality of life for girls.

They are survival and protection of the girl child and safe motherhood, overall development of the girl child and special protection for vulnerable girl children in difficult circumstances and belonging to special groups. The Government of India has taken the following measures for capacity building among girl children:

- Juvenile Justice (Care and Protection of Children) Act;
- Integrated Child Development Scheme;
- Establishment of Childline Service, a 24 hour phone service for girl children on the streets for
- proper counselling and information about shelter homes, NGOs, hospitals;
- Special emphasis on girl's education through Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan;

- National Commission for Children, special mandate for girls;
- National Nutrition Mission to provide supplements to adolescent girls and expectant mothers;
- Campaign against child marriage;
- Special scheme to target quality of life of adolescent girls;
- Policy on HIV/AIDS keeping pace with new forms of sexual exploitation of girls, child abuse, proliferation of drugs and trafficking of children.

State governments have formulated State Plans of Action for the Girl Child appropriate to the conditions prevailing in each state. Karnataka, Madhya Pradesh, Tamil Nadu and Goa have taken the lead in this direction.

According to the Registrar General Sample Registration System (SRS), in 1997, girls constituted 35.4 % of total female population i.e. our country has more than 1/3 of total female population in the age group of 0-14 years. From 1951 to 2001, Life expectancy at birth for Indian girls has improved, both in terms of absolute years and in terms of percentages (Copeland and Shiva, 2000).

The girl child is perceived as a burden to be passed on to another family. Her contribution in the household economy is unacknowledged. The adverse attitude towards the girl child signals the catastrophe of serious demographic imbalance and degeneration of socioeconomic conditions. Unfortunately, the rejection of the unwanted girl begins even before her birth. Pre-natal sex determination tests followed by quick abortions eliminate thousand of female

foetuses before they can become daughters. Those unfortunate girls who manage to survive till birth and beyond, find the dice heavily loaded against them. In a male-dominated society, girls are denied equal access to food, health care, education, employment and even simple human dignity. Here sacrifice and dedicated services ensure the well-being of the family, but in return, she spends a neglected childhood devoid of proper education and health care.

### **Education of the Girl Child in India**

Today there are over 200 million illiterate women in India. It is estimated that for every 10 girl children who enroll in Class I, only 3 reach Class X. There is ample evidence to show that girls remain educationally backward as compared to boys despite the fact that both are from similar socio economic backgrounds. Gender disparity in education still remains a serious issue in India. The girl child is also a victim of the culture of women being restricted to domestic work and being burdened with family responsibilities at a very early age.

Drop-out rates for girls are very high particularly in rural areas. Recent studies have shown that for every 100 girls in Class 1 in rural areas, there are only 40 in class 5, 18 in class 8 and 1 in class 10. Low levels of skills and inadequate training, lack of information and low social status are consequences of such gender differentials (UNDP Report, 2006).

The new programme of the GoI has started offering free education at high school level to all girls of single child families. Those with two girls and no other children are entitled to receive discounts of up to 50%.

It is accepted that investment in girls' education is the key to empowerment of women since educated women are less likely to be oppressed or exploited and more likely to participate in

political processes. In addition, they are likely to have smaller families, and healthier and better-educated children.

In many villages in Bihar (India), there are no women/girls who can read and write. Here, as in six other states in the country, the Mahila Samakhya programme is mobilizing women into collectives, teaching them the skills needed to participate in the decision-making processes affecting the lives of their families. Five thousand villages have been reached since 1992. Inevitably, the women, empowered through this programme, demand an education for their children, especially for their daughters.

It is only *through education* that the girl child can arm herself to be independent and self-reliant, and hence have a fighting chance in life. The Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan and Secondary Education Campaign, both centrally sponsored schemes in the Union Budget of India have made mandatory use of 30% of total allocation for girl students (Indiabudget, 2008).

It is therefore, necessary that an immediate change be brought about to reduce and eliminate gender disparity and overall illiteracy in India.

### **Health Profile of Girls in India**

Health challenges concerning a girl child cover mortality, morbidity, nutritional status and reproductive health and linked to these are environmental degradation, violence and occupational hazards, all of which have implications for her health status. It is intricately related to the socio-economic status of the households to which she belongs and her age and kinship status within the households. Given the predominantly patriarchal set-up, girls get a lesser share in the household distribution of health, goods and services compared to men and boys (Sen and Dreze, 1999). There is data to show that in a situation of extreme food and scarcity, the adverse effect on the nutritional status of girls is greater than on boys. Girls in the 13 to 16 years age group consume less food than boys. However, in the intra-household

distribution of labour, girls shoulder the major burden of economic, procreative and family responsibilities. Due to the competing demands on their time and energy as well as their socialization, girls tend to neglect their health. The lesser access to food coupled with neglect invariably leads to poor nutritional status and a state of ill health for most of the girls. Changing determinants in the survival struggles of girls have created an alarming situation during five decades of post-independent India.

### **Juvenile Sex Ratio**

Declining Juvenile Sex Ratio (JSR) is the most distressing factor reflecting low premium accorded to the girl child in our country (Table 15.4). As per Census of India, JSRs have been 962, 945 and 927 for 1981, 1991 and 2001 respectively. DasGupta and Bhat (1997) while considering the concomitant trends in fertility and the juvenile sex ratio, concluded that there can be intensification of gender bias within fertility transition. Bhat and Xavier (2003), however, in an analysis on effect of fertility decline on son preference concluded that the decline in fertility has reduced the son preference in the north Indian states.

| States         | Index of Son Preference* | Rank |
|----------------|--------------------------|------|
| Andhra Pradesh | 13.8                     | 11   |
| Bihar          | 24.5                     | 4    |
| Gujarat        | 23                       | 6    |
| Haryana        | 14.3                     | 10   |
| Karnataka      | 20                       | 8    |
| Kerala         | 11.7                     | 12   |
| Madhya Pradesh | 27.1                     | 2    |

|                  |           |    |
|------------------|-----------|----|
| Maharashtra      | 18        | 9  |
| Orissa           | 23.4      | 5  |
| Punjab           | 20.3      | 7  |
| Rajasthan        | 25        | 3  |
| Tamilnadu        | 9.2       | 13 |
| Uttar Pradesh    | 21.6      | 1  |
| West Bengal      | 14.3      | 10 |
| <b>All India</b> | <b>20</b> |    |

**Table 15.4 Declining Juvenile Sex Ratio: Index of Son Preference for Major States in India**

**Index of Son preference =100 (E/C)**

Where, E =the excess number of sons over daughters considered ideal

C= the ideal family size.

**Sources:** Rajan S.I., U.S. Mishra and T.K. Vimla (1996) Choosing a Permanent Contraceptive: Does Son Preference Matter? Economic and Political Weekly, July p.20, p.1980.

The Third All India Survey of Family Planning Practices in India, ORG, Baroda, 1990.

Calculated by Eapen and Kodoth (2001).

The so-called BIMARU states (Bihar, Madhya Pradesh, Rajasthan, Uttar Pradesh) are at the top of the rank for son preference. Orissa was 5<sup>th</sup> in the rank in 1990. But in the last decade the situation has changed where DEMARU (Daughter Eliminating Male Aspiring Rage of Ultrasound) states such as Punjab, Haryana, Gujarat and Maharashtra have topped in son-

preference and pre-birth elimination of girls avers Prof. Ashish Bose (2001) “The unholy alliance between tradition (son-complex) and technology (ultrasound) is playing havoc with Indian Society.” (Bose 2001) Kerala ranks 12<sup>th</sup> in the index of son-preference. However the sharp decline in fertility and strong preference for the small family norm does raise the possibility of enhanced gender bias (Rajan and Srinivas, 2000).<sup>7</sup> In several states of India -- Maharashtra, Gujarat, Bihar, Uttar Pradesh, Rajasthan, Madhya Pradesh, Punjab, Haryana and Tamil Nadu sex-selective abortions of female fetuses have increased among those who want small families of 1 or 2 or maximum 3 children (Patanki et al, 1979). Communities that were practicing female infanticide started using sex-selective abortions (Jeffrey, Jeffrey and Lyon, 1984). Many doctors have justified female foeticide as a tool to attain Net Reproduction Rate (NRR) of 1 i.e. to attain population stabilization; the mother should be replaced by only one daughter (Macklin, 1995; Patel, 1995). But here also there is a gender bias. In order to attain population stabilization, a fertility rate of 2.1 is envisaged. There is evidence to indicate a sex ratio in favour of males and a prolonged duration of gender differentials in survivorship in the younger ages, resulting in a tendency towards masculinizing of the population sex ratio (Visaria, 2002).

In 2001, our country had 158 million infants and children, out of which 82 million were males and 76 million were females. There is deficit of 6 million female infants and girls. This is a result of wide-spread use of sex-determination and sex pre-selection tests throughout the country (including in Kerala) (Patel, 2002), along with high rates of female infanticide in BIMARU (Bihar, Madhya Pradesh, Rajasthan and Uttar Pradesh) states, rural Tamil Nadu and Gujarat. Millions of girls have been missing in the post-independence period (Patel, 2002).

### **Early Childhood Care and Nurturance**

A NFHS (International Institute of Population Sciences, 1995) study of 19 Indian states in 1992-93 revealed that girls were breast-fed for shorter periods than boys; they were less likely to be vaccinated than boys and are consistently less likely to receive treatment for diarrhoea, fever and acute respiratory infection. Child mortality in the 0-4 age group is 43 per cent higher for females (at 42 per 1000) than for males (29 per 1000). The 1994 UNICEF Report says that of the 12 million girls born in India every year, 3 million do not survive beyond the age of 15. As Table 15.5 shows, between 1981 and 1993, age-specific death rates for girls have declined but as compared to their male counterparts, they are higher.

**Table 15.5 Age-Specific Death Rates and Relative Risk (RR) of Dying for Girls in India**

Per '000

| Age Group | 1981   |      |      | 1986   |      |      | 1993   |      |      |
|-----------|--------|------|------|--------|------|------|--------|------|------|
|           | Female | Male | RR   | Female | Male | RR   | Female | Male | RR   |
| 0 to 4    | 43.3   | 39.2 | 1.10 | 38.6   | 34.7 | 1.11 | 24.8   | 22.7 | 1.09 |
| 5 to 14   | 3.1    | 2.7  | 1.15 | 2.7    | 2.2  | 1.22 | 2.0    | 1.6  | 1.25 |

Source: Office of the Registrar General, Sample registration System, 1995.

Diarrhoea alone claims close to 1.5 million infants each year in India -- that is, one every three minutes. Many girls already in poor health, marry between the ages of 14 – 16 years. They bear children while still young and malnourished themselves. An upswing of female deaths in the age group 15-19 years indicates the high mortality rate of teenage mothers. The sex ratio drops from 944 in the 5-9 age group to 912 in the 15-19 age group. Over 100,000 women in India die every year from causes related to pregnancy and childbirth. With a

maternal mortality rate between 400 to 800 per 100,000 live births, India's maternal mortality rate did not change in the previous decade (Joshi, 1999).

**Table 15.6: Top Ten Causes of Mortality Among Girls in Rural India ( %)**

| <b>Top Ten Causes of Mortality</b> | <b>0-4 age group</b> | <b>5-14 age group</b> |
|------------------------------------|----------------------|-----------------------|
| Bronchitis and Asthma              | 6.8                  | 1.6                   |
| Prematurity                        | 100                  | 0.0                   |
| Heart attack                       | 0.1                  | 1.2                   |
| Pneumonia                          | 78.6                 | 9.0                   |
| Cancer                             | 0.4                  | 1.3                   |
| Tuberculosis of lungs              | 0.7                  | 3.0                   |
| Non Pregnancy Anaemia              | 32.3                 | 7.9                   |
| Paralysis                          | 0.2                  | 1.7                   |
| Non classified                     | 35.5                 | 12.0                  |
| Gastroenteritis                    | 27.7                 | 15.8                  |

Source: Registrar General of India, 1995.

Table 15.6 reveals that Pneumonia, Non-Pregnancy Anaemia and Gastroenteritis take a heavy toll of female infants in the age group of 0-4 years. While in the 5-14 age group of girls, the death rate in percentage terms reduces drastically, still 9.5 % deaths due to Pneumonia and 15.8 % deaths due to Gastroenteritis demand immediate intervention.

### ***Malnutrition Among Girl Children***

Adolescent girls constitute nearly 16.75% of the total female population of 49.65 crore (Dhawan and Singh, 2010). Studies conducted in three metropolitan cities - Mumbai, Calcutta, and Madras, indicate that a significantly higher proportion of girls compared to

boys fall into Grade II and III malnutrition. The cumulative effect of poverty, undernourishment and neglect is reflected by their poor body size/ growth and narrow pelvis as they grow into adolescence, making child bearing a risk (Kuman, 1998) (Anil, 2002). Girls between 13-18 years of age show lower percentage of iron, protein, calories and Vitamin A. With the onset of menarche, an average Indian girl becomes highly susceptible to anaemia. A majority of poor adolescent girls are 12-15 cm shorter than their well-to-do peers. Eating disorders among the upper class girls due to a media image of 'a beautiful woman' who is extra-ordinarily thin makes even upper class girls anorexic. NIN (National Institute of Nutrition) studies have shown that 36% of upper class girls had deficit BMI (Body Mass Index) due to lower body weights due to their personal preferences and also due to conscious attempts to maintain low weight (Emmon, 1994).

The Government is considering a scheme to focus on adolescent girls in districts afflicted by severe malnutrition. The Rs. 4500 Rajiv Gandhi Scheme for Empowerment of Adolescent Girls (SABLA) is expected to improve their nutritional and health status and upgrade vocational skills. The Scheme may be "recast" to ensure qualitative coverage in districts worst affected by malnutrition before being expanded to universal coverage (Dhawan and Singh, 2010). While this scheme may also be implemented through anganwadi centres of the ICDS programme, it is being emphasized that an additional anganwadi worker may be inducted or additional honorarium may be paid to existing anganwadi workers to overcome the problem of overload. The scheme is expected to target 8.3 crore adolescent girls. Girls will be entitled to 500 calories a day.

### **Pregnant Girls and Girl Mothers**

With such health conditions, a large number of girls from poor households are pushed into early marriages, which are consummated almost immediately after menarche. Of the 4.5

million marriages that take place in India every year, three million marriages involve girls in the 15-19 years age group (UNICEF, 1994). Girls bearing their first baby between the ages of 14-18 are at obstetric risk and the subsequent result is low birth weight babies and perinatal complications, common among teenaged girls. These girls are at a higher risk for pregnancy-induced hypertension and eclampsia that includes grande mal seizure at delivery (Gopalan, 2000). The upsurge of female deaths in the age group of 15-19 years bears testimony to the high mortality rate of women. An estimated 16% women in this age group were already mothers or pregnant at the time of the NFHS-3 survey conducted in 2005-06.

Adolescent girls account for more than their share of abortion-related complications and deaths (Bandewar 2000). Unwed pregnant girls (victims of rape, incest or seduction), turn to abortion, whether or not it is legal. Faced with unintended pregnancy, they take desperate measure resulting in health risks of unsafe abortions such as sepsis caused by unsanitary instruments or incomplete abortion, haemorrhage, injuries to genital organs such as cervical laceration and uterine perforation and toxic reactions to chemicals or drugs used to induce abortion.

Adolescent girls' health plays an important role in determining the health of future populations, because adolescent girls' health has an intergenerational effect. The cumulative impact of the low health situation of girls is reflected in the high MMR, the incidence of low birth weight babies, high prenatal mortality and foetal wastage and consequent high fertility rates.

The MMR for India is high. Further, it is estimated that 15% of deaths in the reproductive age group (15-44 years) are maternal deaths. Mothers under age 15, have higher rates of premature labour, spontaneous abortion, stillbirth and LBW (Low Birth Weight) babies. In 1986, peri-natal deaths per 1000 births were 29.6, premature births were 20%, average birth

weight was 1.9 kg and maternal deaths per 1000 births were 3.8 among girls/women in the age group of 12 to 19 years (Johns Hopkins School of Public Health, 1995). The specific cause of maternal death shows that bleeding and anaemia are the two major causes of death followed by abortion and toxæmia. Severe anaemia among Indian girls is one of the important reasons for abortion, premature births and low birth and low birth weight of babies. NFHS-3 (2005-06) data shows that 56.2% ever married women aged 15-49 years are anaemic compared to 24.3% of the men in the same category. An estimated 57.9% pregnant women aged 15-49 years are anaemic.

It has been observed that many Indian girls enter motherhood without adequate preparation for it. This results in high wastage of human resources, increasing rate of maternal mortality as well as infant and child mortality. The most relevant cause behind these problems is ignorance of the mother, inadequate preparation of adolescent girls for safe motherhood and various undesirable practices prevalent in Indian society. Furthermore, 20 percent of women in the world become pregnant before attaining 20 years of age. This figure is much higher in a country like India. The incidence of teenage pregnancy, which is very high in India, is responsible for high infant and maternal mortality (NIPCCD, 1992-93).

Approximately 138 million of India's population is between the ages of 15-25 years. About 50% adolescent girls get married at below the age of 20 in Uttar Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh, Bihar and Rajasthan, which contribute to 40 percent of India's population. It is rather unfortunate, but true that in the majority of girl children in India, there is no period of "Adolescence" as they shift from childhood to adulthood and soon become a pregnant adult. Early child bearing in the rural and tribal areas has been responsible for high drop out rate among girls in the high schools. However, in the 50 years of Independent India, there has been considerable improvement in female literacy rates.

### Health Implications of Violence Against Girls

Domestic violence in both the parental and matrimonial home, battering, physical tears, death due to bleeding, rape, sexual harassment at the home, workplace and public places, eve teasing, kidnapping and abduction, prostitution, mental health issues including autism, sexual assault, molestation, rape, child sexual abuse, nuisance calls cause psychological disturbances among girls and women and pose a major threat for girls. The trauma of sexual violence sparks off tension and anxiety at a dangerous level. Their mental health problems are manifested in anxiety, fear, avoidance, guilt, loss of efficiency, lack of coordination, depression, sexual dysfunction, substance abuse, relieving the traumatic incidents through memory, suicidal attempts, eating disorders, disturbed sleep patterns, fear of encountering such a situation once again. It is found that girls who undergo extreme sexual violence experience a loss of self and self-esteem following the shock inflicted on them (Nair and Nair, 2002). Table 15.7 highlights the recorded crimes victimizing girls.

**Table 15.7: Recorded Crimes Victimizing Girls**

| <b>Crime Classification</b> | <b>1994</b> | <b>1995</b> | <b>1996</b> | <b>Punishable Under Indian penal Code</b> |
|-----------------------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------------------------------------|
| Child Rape (up to 16 years) | 3986        | 4067        | 4083        | Section 379 to 379                        |
| Kidnapping and Abduction    | 864         | 726         | 571         | Section 360, 361, 366, 367                |
| Procurement of minor girls  | 206         | 107         | 94          | Section 366 A                             |

|                                   |     |     |     |                     |
|-----------------------------------|-----|-----|-----|---------------------|
| Selling of girls for Prostitution | 34  | 17  | 6   | Section 372         |
| Buying of Girls for Prostitution  | 4   | 19  | 22  | Section 373         |
| Exposure and abandonment          | 491 | 570 | 554 | Section 317         |
| Infanticide                       | 131 | 139 | 113 | Section 315         |
| Foeticide                         | 45  | 38  | 39  | Section 315 and 316 |
| Child Marriage Restraint Act      | 53  | 57  | 89  |                     |

Source: Crime in India, 1996, National Crime Records Bureau, Ministry of Home Affairs.

As Table 15.7 reveals, incidents of child rape and abandonment have increased. A major problem in cases of crimes against girls is that of under-reporting. Over and above the crimes against the girl child punishable under the Indian Penal Code (IPC), there are also special and local laws to prevent child labour, child marriage and immoral traffic prevention. The Pre-Natal Diagnostic Technique (PNDT) Act 1994 has not been able to reduce sex-selective abortion of female foetuses. In response to Cehat petition in the Supreme Court of India, the Central and State governments are activating the state machinery to book the culprits.

### **HIV/ AIDS and STD Among Girls**

STD pathogens can more easily penetrate the cervical mucous of the girl than that of older women. The cervix of a girl is more susceptible to gonorrhoeal and chlamydeous infection as well as to the sexually transmitted human papilloma virus (HPV), which causes cervical cancer. They may be even more reluctant than adults to seek treatment for STDs because their sexual activity is frowned upon. Also, they may not know that they have a disease. They

may be too embarrassed to go to a clinic, have no access to a clinic, or be unable to afford services. They are instead taken to unqualified traditional healers or obtain antibiotics from pharmacies or drug hawkers without proper diagnosis. Improper and especially incomplete treatment of STDs may mask symptoms without completely curing the disease, making it more likely that STDs will be transmitted to others and that complications such as infertility will occur. In our country millions of adolescents live or work on the street, and many are forced to sell sex under extremely barbaric and unhygienic conditions that increase their exposure to STDs.

Young girls may be forced into sex or otherwise have little power in sexual relationships to negotiate condom use, particularly if their sexual partner is older—a double risk since older men are more likely to be infected. Belief that sex with virgin girls cures STDs among men has intensified trafficking of girls from the rural hinterland to the urban red light areas. Tourists seeking uninfected short-term sex partners increasingly pursue young girls and have paid sex with child prostitutes (Fernandes and Stewart, 2002).

### **Girl Child Labourers**

In 1986-87, 32.6 % of rural and 29.4 % of urban girls were never enrolled in schools due to the paid and unpaid work they had to do in homes, fields, factories, plantations and in the informal sector (NSSO, 1991). Sexual abuse at the work place is a hidden burden that a girl worker endures. The child labour policies, however, do not spell out anything specific to girl child workers. There is no implementation of prohibition of girls working in hazardous occupations as per Child Labour (Prohibition and Regulation) Act, 1986 (Jawa, 2002). About 6% of the males and females in rural areas and about 3% males and 2% females in age group 5-14 in urban areas were found to be working during 1993-94 (Department of Statistics, Ministry of Planning and Programme Implementation, 1998).

The **performance of the health sector concerning girl children** in recognizing and responding to their demands has been noteworthy. Public- private mix model is promoted to build capacity among girls through health intervention programmes of immunization, nutrition and public education. Government organizations are taking the initiative in collaborating with local, regional and international NGOs and the UN system.

### Check Your Progress Exercise 6

**Note:** i. Use the space given below to answer the questions.

ii. Compare your answer with the one given at the end of this Unit.

1. Comment on the health and nutritional status of adolescent girls in India.

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### **15. HOME AND WORK CONDITIONS AFFECTING WOMEN'S HEALTH**

The World Health Organization has defined health as “a state of complete physical, mental and social well-being” which is necessary for leading a productive and fruitful life. Health is a basic human right/ women's right. Attainment and maintenance of good health depends on women's access to nutritious food, appropriate medicine to treat illnesses, clean water, safe housing, pollution-free environment and health services. Thus, women's health is determined by the influencing factors at homes, work places, society and the state

Pollution of air and water, noise pollution and contamination of the environment affect everybody. Scarcity of fuel-wood, fodder, water and herbs as a result of deforestation have taken a heavy toll on women's health. Rural and tribal women have to walk for miles for these basic survival needs of human beings and domestic animals. Floods create deaths, destruction and epidemics. Desertification in Western India has accentuated women's survival struggles, as they have to depend on ad-hoc public works programmes. Global warming has resulted in resurgence of older epidemics such as cholera, typhoid, malaria, dengue, and haemorrhagic fever. Burgeoning sex-trade have made 2 million sex-workers potential carriers of HIV, STD, AIDS. Moreover, women in prostitution may suffer from T.B., other STDs, malnutrition, malaria and skin diseases. At present, there is an evidence of rising HIV rates among young married women who are infected by their husbands. Data from 7 cities in India of ante- natal clinics reveals that HIV-AIDS prevalence rates among pregnant women are 2% to 3.5 % in Mumbai and 1% in Hyderabad, Bangalore and Chennai.

Modern lifestyle and environment has increased breast and uterine cancer among Indian women. Techniques meant for detecting cancer (e.g. self-examination of breast and pap-smere) are rarely used by women. As a result, detection of cancer and its treatment at earlier stage becomes impossible.

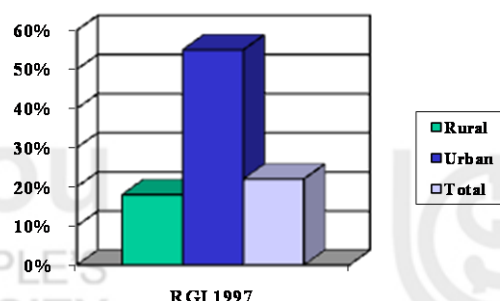
All types of fruits are cornered by liquor industry and alcoholism is aggressively promoted among the toiling poor. As a result, men don't contribute for daily necessity of the households. Women have to shoulder major burden of household expenditure. Use of bio-fuels- wood, dung, crop residue resulting into indoor air-pollution takes away the lives of 5 lakh women annually.

### **Women and Mental Health**

The most neglected area concerning women has been her mental health. Stress generated due to major life events such as break up of marriage, widowhood, illness in the family, financial hardship and substance abuse destroy an individual's ability to cope with and function effectively. Suppression of the extremities of an abusive relationship results in acute mental stress and trauma. In countries like India, economic dependency along with social and financial pressures trap women in abusive relationships, both physical and mental, forcing them to hide their anguish. Social workers and psychiatrists are approached by husbands to issue “mentally unfit” certificates so that they can flash them in a court of law to demand divorce. Relatives do not want to keep mentally ill women in the family. Even after their recovery, they have to languish in the mental asylum. There is a need for half- way- homes where mentally ill women can work for few hours under the supervision of couple of professionals and then go home in the evening. Psychotherapy, mutual and group counselling should be promoted. Shock therapy and chemical treatment should be avoided as it cabbagifies women in distress.

### ***Percentage of Institutional Deliveries in India -1994***

|                                                       |       |
|-------------------------------------------------------|-------|
| % of women who received                               |       |
| * antenatal check-up by health professionals, Nurses- | 49.2  |
| * Home Visit by health worker during pregnancy –      | 21%   |
| * Tetanus Toxoid coverage of Pregnant women –         | 53.8% |
| * Anaemia Prophylaxis coverage among pregnant women – | 50.5% |



### ***Health-care Facilities for Women***

As women are perceived as mothers, not as individuals in their own right, they are covered under MCH (mother and child programme). Even MCH does not cover majority of Indian women. Only 49.2 % of total pregnant women received antenatal check-up by health professionals. Health workers visited only 21% of pregnant women. Tetanus toxoid coverage of pregnant women was 53.8% and Anaemia prophylaxis coverage among pregnant women was 50.5%. Majority of Indian women are left with no choice than to deliver at home. Every 5000 population has an auxiliary nurse midwife (ANM) with responsibility to attend childbirth. Only negligible parts of home-births are attended by ANMs. Institutional deliveries constituted only 22 % of total deliveries at the national level. Urban areas were better covered: 55 percent as against a very meagre 18% in rural areas.

There is a need to situate women's health in the overall macro parameters. Gender divide in the access of health care and health cost is so sharp that women have to access informal providers and informal care. Gender audit in health should be done on the basis of identifying issues for reorientation at each stage of women's life cycle and focussing on the problems of each age group of women. To address the problems concerning women's health, a holistic life span approach is needed. Women as growing human beings, homemakers, workers, mothers and elderly citizens face different types of health related issues. Women's health is determined by the material reality generated by socio-economic, cultural forces as well as gender relations based on subordination of women. It is important to make men aware about women specific health needs. Improvement in women's health is a precondition for development of her family. For an effective public education on the above-mentioned issues, charismatic personalities should teach the "Women and health" module. How to engender

medical education? This question needs to be addressed. There is also, a need for gender sensitive books for the health practitioners.

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### **15.8 WOMEN AND WATERSHED DEVELOPMENT IN INDIA: ISSUES AND STRATEGIES**

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As per the 2001 Guidelines for Approach and Strategy for Integrated Watershed Development formulated by the Government, every watershed project should start with general awareness raising, followed by the establishment of user groups (UGs) and self-help groups (SHGs) that include women. Household production systems are always encouraged by forming SHGs, especially of women, who are given training in their choice of business. Representatives of all the groups, together with those from other villages, go forward to form the watershed committee. This committee of 10 to 12 members representing various sections of society is primarily responsible for carrying out projects under the guidance of the project implementing agency (PIA). The participation of different common interest groups including SHGs fuels satisfactory implementation. According to the Hariyali Guidelines for new projects under the Area Development Programme, Gram Panchayats, would implement the projects under the overall supervision and guidance of the Watershed Development Team (WDT) constituted by PIA. The Gram Panchayat shall constitute SHGs and UGs with the help of WDT from amongst landless/asset-less poor, agricultural labourers, women, shepherds, Scheduled Caste/ Scheduled Tribe groups having [a] common identity and interest who are dependent on the watershed for their livelihood. It has been recommended that separate SHGs should be organized for women, Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes, etc.

(Government of India 2003: 6)

As elaborated by Swarn Lata Arya (2007), it is quite common to find the following gaps in watershed development projects:

1. Lack of a clear understanding of the concept of gender and lack of an analysis of gender roles and responsibilities.
2. Lack of policies and strategies that foster a gender-sensitive approach and affirmative action.
3. Misconceptions on development issues relating to women include:
  - i. economic and environmental development automatically means an improvement in the quality of life and status of women;
  - ii. Specific activities targeted purely at women are likely to succeed; and
  - iii. that women's development is synonymous with material benefits or physical project outputs such as the creation of assets.

### **The Role of Women in Watershed Development Projects**

Common pool resources not only meet daily household needs for fuel and fodder, but also provide livelihood options for landless and poor women almost in every part of the country. Soil and water conservation measures taken under watershed management programmes on common property resources such as village common lands, forest and water change the state of natural resources, especially water, soil and vegetation. This has consequences for the way women use resources.

The imposition of access restrictions on common and forest land has led to successful regeneration of the resources in watershed development areas. Women, however, rarely benefit from this regeneration, mainly because they are unable to pay for rights to cut and carry fuel and fodder. As a result, many women have been forced to reduce or sell their livestock. Furthermore, women have to go further a field to fetch fuel wood, increasing the time spent in collection. Thus, without understanding the mechanism between gender relations in the use of natural resources, development efforts in common property resources (CPR) often curtail rather than increase women's resource access. Further, most of the activities undertaken under watershed management projects are land based. Women users belong to poor and landless households and hence they are usually unable to contribute user charges. Even if they do, they may not benefit greatly from such labour, since the areas are common. Poor women are likely to face more constraints to participation than men in view of their already heavy work burden. Provision should be made for reviewing the plan if women are unable to participate and contribute. Even in the case of crop improvements on arable lands, increase in agricultural productivity might occur as a result of watershed development, but the gains are usually appropriated by men and increased drudgery is disproportionately borne by women. Interventions such as irrigation and other technological improvements have habitually failed to take into consideration the existing imbalance between men's and women's ownership rights, division of labour and incomes. For example, by raising the value of land, irrigation brings about social change, which usually favours men. Irrigation systems also tend to favour mono-cropping, often for the production of cash crops, and thus may exclude provisions for a more diversified cropping pattern supporting a variety of food crops. As men usually control cash crops, decisions regarding the scheduling of irrigation water tend to be made without consideration for women's farm and household activities.

## **Generation/Dissemination of Technologies Specific to the Problems of Women**

The rural production system is a multi-enterprise system requiring a wide range of technologies/ matching skills and other factors to improve the overall productivity of land and labour. Because of rural women's relatively lower educational attainment, their potential to take full advantage of emerging technologies is curtailed. Burdened by their domestic tasks and family obligations, and controlled by social restraints, women find it very difficult to allocate time to be away from home to attend technology training programmes. Furthermore, poor rural infrastructure development, such as domestic water distribution, long searches for fuel, and inadequate transportation facilities, increase women's workload and reduce their opportunities and time to learn new technologies and for experimentation.

## **Nature of Women's Participation**

It was stated in the original guidelines that: Acknowledging that Mahila Mitra Kisans can play a significant role to improve the economy of households if properly organized and trained in activities included under household production system (mushroom, sericulture, beekeeping, etc.) a two tier training programme—one at the district level and the other at the watershed/village level shall be organized with the objectives of promoting formation of self help thrift groups of women through Mitra Krishak Mandal (MKM). (NWDPR 1994b: 27). It has been observed from the experience of even the most successful watershed management projects that women's participation is synonymous with their training in sewing and embroidery, carpet weaving, and other art and craft activities. Even in plant nursery training schemes, women are used as labour and rarely allowed to contribute to the selection of species to be raised in the nursery. Knowledge and skills determine an individual's position

in the hierarchy to implement project activities. Unfortunately, training programmes in watershed management target men rather than women.

Along with the project implementing agency (PIA), it is the Village Watershed Committee (gram panchayat as per the new guidelines) that is responsible for planning and decision making in WDPs. Most women are unaware of the role they can play in these. The PIA's efforts to involve women are often limited to 'awareness camps' or explanation of the concept of watershed development in women's meetings. The mandatory requirement of at least one woman or an adequate number of women on committees encourages tokenism and does not demonstrate a committed effort to involve women in decision making. A basic constraint on women's access to extension in agriculture is due to the general perception that women are primarily homemakers rather than decision-making farmers—a perception that rationalises focusing extension services on male farmers who are expected to direct the work of female family labour. It is common knowledge that programmes influence the position of women in a different manner than that of men. Planners and designers of watershed development programmes influence the position of women with their gender ideology via assumptions, which determine the structure and content of the programmes. Another aspect of soil and water conservation programmes, which influences the position of women, is the effect they will have on the state of natural resources.

### **Approaches to More Effective Involvement of Women**

It is now accepted as an axiomatic truth that sustainable development is possible only when the common objectives of both women and men are jointly evolved and met, and issues

pertaining to women receive a special focus. The project should address gender issues in the following specific ways:

- Recognition of women farmers' productive role;
- Economic empowerment of women through project activities;
- Water becomes women's strength;
- Need for making women stakeholders in the water users' associations.

### Check Your Progress Exercise 7

**Note:** i. Use the space given below to answer the questions.

ii. Compare your answer with the one given at the end of this Unit.

1. List four ways in which gender issues can be addressed in watershed development programmes.

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## 15.9 SUMMING UP

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Social infrastructure provisions help to provide support to poor, vulnerable sections of the population in particular. Women constitute a significant proportion of the country's poor people and have to bear the burden of neglect and discrimination. This Unit explores the dimensions of social infrastructure, social capital and social sustainability. The Eleventh Plan's social infrastructure provisions are examined in detail in terms of a gender analysis. Provision of social infrastructure, both in terms of resource allocation and types/ quality of facilities and services, is clearly gendered.

Viewing social infrastructure through the gender lens is of critical importance. Provision of social infrastructure and ensuring social protection needs to be focused around practical and strategic gender needs.

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## 15.10 GLOSSARY

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**Social infrastructure** can also be described as a system of social services, networks and facilities that support people and communities. The scope of social infrastructure teams usually revolves around education, housing, health, income, safety, recreation and leisure and cultural expression.

**Soft and Hard Infrastructure:** Social infrastructure is more than simply the provision of physical facilities. Therefore, in considering the broader context of social sustainability, a necessary factor must be the elements known as “*soft*” infrastructure as well as *physical or ‘hard’ infrastructure*.

There is hard infrastructure which is focused on provision of basic utilities i.e. water, gas and electricity, waste, transport provision (roads, rail, air) that provide the framework in which a community transacts economic, social and environmental activity. Then there is hard infrastructure such as community facilities and public buildings which are essential in supporting community life.

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## 15.11 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS EXERCISES

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### Check Your Progress Exercise 1

- Social infrastructure includes housing, educational, recreational and law and order facilities that support the community's need for social interaction
- It covers facilities such as health provision, early years provision, schools, colleges and universities, community, cultural, recreation and sports facilities, places of worship, policing and other criminal justice or community safety facilities, children and young people's play facilities
- Social infrastructure can also be described as a system of social services, networks and facilities that support people and communities. The scope of social infrastructure teams usually revolves around education, housing, health, income, safety, recreation and leisure and cultural expression.

Social infrastructure is more than simply the provision of physical facilities. Therefore, in considering the broader context of social sustainability, a necessary factor must be the elements known as “*soft*” *infrastructure* as well as *physical* or “*hard*” *infrastructure*.

There is hard infrastructure which is focused on provision of basic utilities i.e. water, gas and electricity, waste, transport provision (roads, rail, air) that provide the framework in which a community transacts economic, social and environmental activity.

Then there is hard infrastructure such as community facilities and public buildings which are essential in supporting community life.

### **Check Your Progress Exercise 2**

The NREGA provides some explicit entitlements for women to facilitate their full participation. These include:

- *equal wages for men and women*. The guidelines spell out clear instructions for equal payment of wages for men and women. 'Equal wages shall be paid to both men and women workers and the provisions of the Equal Remuneration Act, 1976 shall be complied with.' (p. 26)
- *participation in management and monitoring of the programme*. As per the guidelines, a local Vigilance and Monitoring Committee is to be appointed with members from the immediate locality or village where the work is undertaken, to monitor the progress and quality of work. 'The gram sabha will elect the members of this Committee and ensure that SC/STs and women are represented on it.' (p. 44)
- *participation in social audit*. The guidelines mention a social audit forum, convened by the gram sabha every six months as part of the continuous auditing

process. There is stress on the quorum of these meetings maintaining female participants alongside those from other disadvantaged groups. 'The timing of the forum must be such that it is convenient for people to attend – that it is convenient in particular for REGS [Rural Employment Guarantee Scheme] workers, women and marginalized communities.' (p. 56)

- *providing support for child care, and convenience to households.* The guidelines mention the need for a crèche at the work site, and for the works to be convenient for families: 'If some applicants have to be directed to report for work beyond 5 km of their residence, women (especially single women) and older persons should be given preference to work on the work sites nearer to their residence.' (p. 18) Also, 'If several members of a household who share the same job card are employed simultaneously under the Scheme, they should be allowed to work on the same work site.' (p. 18)
- *ensuring that single women are eligible.* Finally, through recognizing a single person as a 'household', the Act makes it possible for widows and other single women to access this work.

### Check Your Progress Exercise 3

Gender mainstreaming of social security includes addressing the concerns of both women and men at all stages of the planning, implementing, monitoring and evaluation process. Three important components of the concept of Social Security for women are:

- Promotional component that aims at improving endowments, exchange entitlements, real incomes and social consumption;
- Preventive component that seeks to avert deprivation in more specific ways; and a
- Protective component that ensures relief against deprivation.

Social security measures that look after overall needs-- employment, sustainable income, ownership of assets, food, health care, child care, maternity care, old age support, housing and other locally-defined needs (transport, water, skills) are planned and implemented in Latin America, Africa and Asia. Economic security is directly linked with social security because economic security is a primary means by which people are able to obtain social security. Social security is a means to increase and maintain productivity.

#### **Check Your Progress Exercise 4**

The Eleventh Five Year Plan needs to not only recognize and value social reproduction but work pro-actively to redesign development services and macroeconomic policies that ensure social security and support services for the majority of women (CBGA, 2009). Gender commitments of the EFYP must reflect into budgetary commitments coupled with greater efficiency and effectively targeted and utilized resources for women to guarantee substantive equality for women. Enhancement of public spending on social infrastructure is the only way to gender-inclusive growth.

Studies need to be commissioned to highlight the gap between plan outlay and outcome, local and global implications of pro-poor and pro-women budgeting, alternative macro scenarios emerging out of alternative budgets and inter-linkages between gender-sensitive budgeting and women's empowerment (Patel, 2009).

There is an urgent need to sensitize economists about the visibility of women in statistics and indicators by holding conceptually and technically sound training workshops by gender economists.

The most difficult task in the gender analysis of budget is to compile gender desegregated data on allocation and expenditure on pro- women and gender-neutral schemes which are not generated from the existing formats and schedules of budgetary procedures and reporting systems. Again, mere expenditure analysis does not give any true picture about the actual impact of such expenditure on women. This certainly calls for more in-depth analysis on sectoral issues over a larger than annual time frame. It is also necessary to formulate uniform guidelines and procedures so that valid comparisons and inferences can be made at the regional and national level.

The Ministry of Women and Child Development needs more vociferous and visionary leadership, political will and courage of conviction to strive to not only fulfill the promises made by the Eleventh Five Year Plan but also expand the democratic space for women and girls in socio-cultural, economic, educational and political spheres.

#### **Check Your Progress Exercise 5**

YUVA, SMS, Granthali, All India People's Science Movement (Women's Desk), Vacha, Prerana, Cehat, Chetna

#### **Check Your Progress Exercise 6**

Adolescent girls in India suffer from poor health and nutritional status. This can be attributed to both neglect and discrimination in their formative years. The early age at marriage results in pregnancies at a young age when the girl is already bearing the burden of supporting needs for her own growth and development. Improper medical care results in high morbidity and mortality rates.

### **Check Your Progress Exercise 7**

Recognition of women farmers' productive role; Economic empowerment of women through project activities; Water becomes women's strength; Need for making women stakeholders in the water users' associations.

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**15.13 QUESTIONS FOR REFLECTION AND PRACTICE**

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1. Explain how social infrastructure provision can be engendered.
2. What are the criteria you would use to evaluate the extent to which particular social infrastructure measures/ programmes/ projects meet practical and strategic needs and interests?
3. What is mainstreaming of social protection for the unorganized sector?
4. Discuss gender issues in education and social development.