

Country Paper

INDIA

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Country Paper

India

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## Introduction

This paper is in four sections:

Section I: gives my views on the role and functions of this Centre. While there is a rather elaborate programme lay-out for the Centre, I would suggest the Centre steps out of these typical UN or government formats and launches itself on non-conformist lines. I have put down how I think this can be done in this section.

Section II: briefly raises what I consider philosophical or ideological issues where consideration ought to precede any attempt at identification of women's basic needs; and instrumentalities to satisfy them. I have only mentioned two as illustrations, but it is my view that this area of vision and goal setting is not sufficiently discussed or understood by women-developers but needs attention.

Section III: sets out some data/information and comments. Against the check-list of information suggested in the guidelines for a country paper circulated by the Centre, India has a good amount of published books and monographs.

The first part of this section gives the references against the check-list.

The second - some tables and comments culled out of these documents and some others (List of Tables\*).

The third - reference material in the same areas and a list of projects that have been identified as successful endeavours in the field of women's progress.

The Indian experience and effort for this subject of women's progress has been, in my opinion, quite systematic and strong. Apart from the pre-independence women's movement and work, there has been the resurgence from 74-75 especially at the level of research, deliberations and policy statements. Therefore, there is a good amount of detailed material of the country paper kind - which is almost too much to summarise in a "Base-line data type paper. The Report of the Committee on the status of women deserves special mention. So also the booklet "Critical Issues on the Status of Women" just brought out by the Indian Council of Social Science Research. There are also equally useful government documents and exercises - notably: Blue Print; <sup>for Action</sup> Compendium of Programme; Statistical Profile; and many more.

There are other exercises being undertaken within government which are worth considering as ways in which governmental machinery can be nudged into doing something about women.

The fourth part of this section gives some references to this effort but a further list of government notes and memos (also attached) would give better coverage of this effort also.

However, it must not be overlooked that all this has not meant that women are better off after 75. The effort has not reached there - and will not till a woman's movement develops and grows from the grass roots. How to get the regeneration, the energy moving from women themselves to recognise their needs, to reach for their solutions, to command power or assert it are still questions.

To that extent the focus of the effort to do something about women perhaps lies outside research and training. That is one of the key subjects we should discuss or how to shape research, training to serve the needs of a women's movement.

## Section I

In discussing the role of a Centre such as this one, certain realities must be faced. As I see them they are:

(1) that the real work of changing existing conditions of inequality or exploitation of any group - women or otherwise can only be done within the nation's and depends heavily on their political ideology. In the case of women an additional factor would be the power of the women's movement or the women's lobby within the country.

(2) the experience gained so far of the impact of international or regional institutes of this kind on policy making is not extremely encouraging. These institutions have tended to become research and academic oriented. Their documents provide basis for celebration amongst scholars and institutions, networked into the "development set". They become havens for scholars or scholarly minded administrators to get a break from their work. Their policy documents do not get into the political mill of the nations they are supposed to serve.



(3) the countries attached to this Centre are not homogeneous. One may think here of differences in economic levels, cultural and religious moves, political ideology etc. But apart from differing in these aspects, they would also differ in the kind of work they have been able to do at the national and official level - as well as at the micro level - on this issue of "how to give women a better deal". Where there has been much activity and interest, there should be less of a role for the Centre to play and therefore representatives of such countries may minimise their needs. Where there has been very little activity at the national level, the Centre may have a stronger role. These variations have to be frankly identified, with no protocol problems or inhibitions.

Against this background, or these qualifications, I would categorise three basic roles for this Centre:

- 1 Propaganda
- 2 Training
- 3 Technical Services

I will spell out the composition of each of these roles as I see them.

## 1 Propaganda

By propaganda, I obviously mean dissemination of information. Therefore, there will have to be the following components for propaganda.

- a Research
- b Seminars and Discussions
- c Documentation

### (a) Research

I have some strong views on the kinds of research and documentation to be done. I am against collection of data for their own sake, against any total effort at collecting all available data. I think data banks are expensive and wasteful and can provide work only to scholars and researchers.

I will give two illustrations, however, of the kind of research that I would like to see done at the Centre.

#### Illustration (1) Testing of important hypothesis

There are certain hypotheses which are floating around in the world and appear in discussions of; what to do about

women'. For example a well known one is that modernisation displaces women. Another propounded by some leaders of the industrial sector is that women are costlier to employ than men because of the facilities they require. A third is that as women recede from "economic" roles, they also recede in power and tend to get pushed out of existence. Statistics revealing declining work participation rates of women are associated with statistics revealing declining sex ratio.

The Centre should collect empirical data which could either affirm or negate some of these hypotheses even if it is at a sectoral level or regional level. To do this, they have to first have brain storming sessions with researchers in this field, identify what kind of data has to be collected for substantiating such hypothesis and sponsor the research.

#### Illustration II

There is a great deal of interest on how to bring women into the zone of wage employment, social security, health and education - on the premise that women at the moment are not getting the benefits of these developments in equal shares as the men. The question is how to ensure that they do.

There is also information on projects and programmes, scattered across the region, in which a miracle has actually happened and women's lives have been enhanced. Case studies of such projects could be prepared for understanding what are the crucial levers for women's progress, as well as for circulation amongst countries.

(b) Seminars and Discussions

As said earlier, there should be some sessions on (i) identifying hypotheses/myths/prejudices that require combatting by fact based analysis.

and (ii) identifying the kind of data/information that should be collected to correct support or correct the prevalent notions.

But, seminars and discussions should not be limited to this research role but towards "propaganda" - or "public education".

Under 'Training' and under "dissemination of information" I have suggested that group meetings should be used to enter the minds and project designs of the political and administrative media leadership. This is spelt out in detail in the three sections.

(c) Documentation

This will follow very much from some of my suggestions on research. Only that data which is relevant to combat ignorance, develop action programmes should be collected.

(d) Dissemination of this Information

As I said in the preamble to this section, these Institutes, Centres as they stand, are weakest in their capacity to influence national/or even international policies. Therefore, this role of propaganda is one in which this particular Centre should attempt to chart a totally new course - and I would like to think aloud on some ways and means of doing so.

First, I reject the value of "networks" as they exist now. There are innumerable women's networks operating at the international level, and national level communicating what is going on. There are innumerable UN and other international agencies' news letters. Then there are government links where memoranda for example come from say ESCAP to New Delhi and remain there especially if the action recommended involves basic changes in approach.

How then should policy-makers be influenced or linked to? A tentative incomplete list would consist of politicians, funders, and influential newspapers (Journalists). Administrators are also important, but unfortunately they do not stay long enough in one field and secondly balk at any ideological changes in approach. Industrialists, industrial policy designers; not to forget rural developers also are key to women's progress. But that way the list would include everyone.

What could be done is to take up a programme which would be phased out and each year concentrate on a different "Parameter". Then that year the propaganda would reach the appropriate particular sector of people.

How can the Centre beam its research output to these persons?

Here I would say both under the "Seminar-Discussion" role as well as the "Training" role it is politicians and funders, journalists and project administration that should be called. Women experts talking to each other or women journalists meeting is not the best way of spreading ideas. That happens anyway. New groups have to be brought in for "orientation".

National newspapers are an important media. The Centre should try to enter into the "feature" business.

These are not an "expert's" thoughts - it is an attempt to charter a new course in linkages with the "consciousness raising" side of the subject: and everyone will agree that action does not take place unless there is this awareness.

The functions I have outlined for the Centre, the content of research, the direction of training and the servicing of neglected groups of women, all have built-in linkages with influencing policy.

## 2 Training

It is my view that one of the most vital roles the Centre can play in the field of training is to expose the various international funding and financial agencies including the U.N. agencies' development programmes divisions to the various phenomena that are taking place at the grass roots level in relation to women. Having collected enough case material and evidence on the various debated issues, they should identify key personnel of the World Bank, UNDP and other aid agencies and expose them to this information in workshops and orientation courses.

It is almost criminal to see heavily financed projects flooding small countries with money and good intentions but washing away the women right off the scene (see Case Study, India).

The need of the countries from this region would vary in this regard but this kind of inward education or in house education is, in my opinion, not only a vital role for the Centre but the role it can play without any of the constraints which it would face if it tried to enter into the countries. If it can develop any models for this kind of "education" of the planner and the funder, then it could be used within countries by others.

There are many other spheres of training which I am sure will be brought out at by the group here. For example the whole question of vocational training - to rehabilitate women and assist their entry into the non-traditional sectors; training that women require in order to create and manage women's institutions. Then there are the training of "cadres" who are to go out and initiate women's organisations especially amongst the rural poor and so forth.

These are areas where probably where the content and the style of training would have to be developed within nations especially as language is an extremely important consideration



in grass root work. In India at a recent attempt to train such cadres, it was found that 4 languages would be required to make the discussion meaningful. Therefore, it was decided that it would have to be done at the Regional or language level.

However, the experiences of successful experiments at such "orientation" organised by the Centre can give material - training modules for countries.

### 3 Technical Services

It is in this area that I see the most vibrant and significant role for this Centre. Agencies both local, regional, national as well as international are looking for projects to fund. The intentions of all these projects would be to reach the poor, and where it is specifically for women, to reach the poor women. However, it is very often the case that funding agencies do not know what kind of project design would achieve this purpose. The Centre can organise this service. How? First, through extensive probing and networking, the Centre should put together directories not only of successful projects with varying foci but also directories of personnel from the region and if necessary from the rest of the world who could provide technical services in project formulation to the specific

agencies to specific target groups.

### Illustration

(1) The urban self-employed have been effectively formed into a union in the direct access to bank credit in Ahmedabad (India). There are other cities where there are self-employed women living on the fringes of the urban economy - poor, insecure but struggling. A local bank may be willing to finance a similar project if it could conform to banking rules of economic viability. A team selected and sponsored by the Centre could formulate a project for the country/the group after undertaking the appropriate kind of survey, assessment, understanding local laws and institutions and work out the modalities.

(2) There is a large, well-funded by regional development plan in Panama (this was presented as a case study in Study Seminar 59, held at the Institute of Development Studies, Sussex in January 1977).

While the architectural and engineering aspects, the resource inventory and econometric model building aspects of the project are all perfectly done, the question of how to get the people's participation in this project, especially that of the women, has been left undone, if not totally out of consideration.

One of the young architects from this project who happened to be a woman, at a seminar held earlier this year -, was seeking guidance from other members of the seminar who had worked in such a people's participation programme on how to integrate this element into the overall plan for the region.

If she could have had a team mobilised by an international agency which uses local knowledgeable people as well as those who have combated with these challenges in other countries to study the problem at the local level -, and offer some guidelines, it could be a valuable service.

(3) Another illustration of how this has been done is when UNICEF in Bangladesh invited Ms. Ela Bhatt of Ahmedabad, - who has successfully organised a trade union of 12,000 self-employed women in the city of Ahmedabad in India - to give them specific advise on how to design women's projects. This invitation was possible because a person from the Bangladesh UNICEF office attended a seminar to which Ela Bhatt had also been invited.

Banks both national and international are willing to fund projects which are economically viable - but the experience of designing bankable projects which is still a scarce resource especially where the project seeks to serve the needs of destitute

women. The Centre could identify particularly neglected spots in the region where women are especially disadvantaged; identify particular foci which would generate productivity, do pre-investment surveys and then prepare viable projects which it could take to banks for financing. For this, it would have to mobilise skills from the region.

One of the advantages of playing this role in the region namely technical services for project implementation, is that the funding of such services can become part of the various financial flows that are going backwards and forwards between wealthy countries, financial institutions and the countries of this region. The cost of providing such technical services by the Centre could be borne by the project's funds.

It may appear that this proposal is no different from the usual one where an international agency sends an expert Committee or an expert to guide government or non-government projects; but in fact it is different in that this would require in depth survey cum designing of a project for a specific target group for which the Centre would then canvass the funds. In this case also, there would not be any requirement of a permanent secretariat at the Centre but constant communication within the region for what is going on, what is needed and how to get that also done.

Planning

Another way of looking at the tasks of the Centre, while appearing more conventional might in fact be more practical is as follows:

Step 1) The group here decides what are the priority areas for women, what they would like to see happen to women in the next 10 - 15 years. Priority areas from the usual bundle - health, education employment welfare, legislative support.

2) The next step would be to identify and collect base line data under these headings in each country (this could be government cum research effort).

3) The next : to assess the gap between the base line and the priorities and set targets for the countries.

4) To examine existing schemes against base line and identify areas of expansion change etc. (this would be a research job).

5) To design ideal projects in order to achieve these targets.

6) Call a meeting of planners, policy makers, social workers and expose them to these plans.

7) To lobby and ensure that these national plans are implemented.

Speaking for India, I think to some extent, such an exercise has already been done but it is a format which is usually adopted by such centres and can be effective especially in countries where this still needs to be done.

## Section II

Participants at this meeting have been asked to try to identify the basic needs of women of their country. It seems to me that this territory has been rather well trodden over by both national and international documentation.

The crux of the situation is that women are not receiving the benefits of development in equal share with the men.

The argument is usually phrased as follows:

Women are producers of goods and services as emphatically as men yet they are undervalued. They are powerless and they are always left out of the gains of development whether it is in the field of employment, health, politics and so on. Most women would agree with the argument upto this point. The disagreement begins to appear in identifying

- 1 what are the priorities for action
- 2 what are the strategies of action

I would like to spend some time on these "disagreements" as they raise fundamental issues on what place women want in society.

The trend today in all policy documents both international and national is to emphasise that programmes would be deliberately directed towards the poor in other words the trickle down theories are rejected (Ingrid Palmer has gone over these aspects extremely well in her paper).

Once the goal is set as reduction of poverty, the identification of basic needs becomes fairly simple as the poor need nutrition, health, education, housing, security, political power, a supportive law. In looking at women and their basic needs, if we follow this approach, we would also make an identical list of the needs of women. What we would add is that poor women need all this and they need more of it or they need it more <sup>w</sup>intensely as they are lagging behind the men in all the respects. In other words, amongst the poor, the women are the poorest and therefore satisfaction of these needs has to be intensive and especially beamed on this sub set of the poor.

By following this strategy and these arguments, would we not make the basic needs of women identical with the basic needs of the poor? Is this adequate? There is some controversy about this even amongst women even in the developing world.



Some sincere women lobbyists would recommend another approach which would emphasise the role of woman as homemaker. Their argument is that her activity as homemaker namely as one who provides food, reproduces and brings up the child, are economically productive roles. It is only when Society programmers and policy makers recommend that women's traditional role is a productive role that women will have some equal access in any society. In this quest for recognising the domestic worker as a producer in the unconventional sense, there is no income barrier. Women from all classes suffer from this particular obstacle - that is their non-masculine roles are not considered economically valuable.

An eminent women leader of India Smt. Kamaladevi Chattopadhyay at a workshop in Delhi, held a couple of months ago, deplored the tendency of some sections of the women's movement in India to emphasise the need for employment and wage work as the most vital need. She argued that this by itself would not reduce the indignities and disregard that women experience. She wanted that there should be a change in the concepts. While women do work for earning income and therefore need all the facilities that men enjoy in that range of activity, the basic needs of poor women as well as that of women who do not work is for society to recognise that their work in the home is economically productive work.

This argument is expressed as the "wages for house work" movement in the West, - but most women from the developing countries feel that it is not applicable in countries that have surplus labour and acute poverty.

But there are deeper implications to this approach. For example:

in the definition of the term gainful activity which is the measure which surveys in all countries of the world use to decide who is a worker and who is not, the conventional definition includes only production and exchange of goods and services. Domestic work and child rearing are not considered to be gainful activity.

The plea of women who would like woman as a domestic worker, to be recognised as a producer, is that this would entitle women as domestic workers to the support of law, the government and most important, society.

Consequently, there would be public investment in communal facilities, public utilities social services so that this work can be less arduous and more effective.

After all there is nothing radical about seeing a woman agricultural labourer or bricklayer as a productive person. What is radical is to see a woman who is washing clothes or feeding her baby, or cooking food as a worker, as someone performing a vital function in the economy.

Therefore, it is not so obvious that it is only when we are pushing for basic needs for poor women as a bundle of goods that will go to the poor that we are "radical". Perhaps it is those who want a change in fundamental concepts who are radical and the ENA people old-fashioned.

In this context, I would like to set out my own views. (I must add here that I found Ingrid Palmer's paper especially page 4, para 4 and page 6 inspiring). The basic investment for women from the neglected or poorer sections of society would probably hinge around reduction of physical hardship - reduction of the wear and tear of household chores, of too frequent births and so on as a first step.

An extensive network of community services in rural areas which include easy access to water, fuel, creches, common kitchens might humanise their lives - but the choice of the

priorities would depend on specific micro level situations. All I am pleading here is that we should not get intimidated by the present trend to just shift literature and thought available on poverty and the poor to women.

Another issue is on how to get about improving redistributive justice. As I said earlier, there are enough models from political ideologies on this issue.

The trend now is to think of organising women into institutions or association which have linkages built into them so that they can exercise their power in local public bodies.

Here too, the question of clash of interest between the poor and the rich, are one occupation and another is sought to be softened by suggesting that they should be organised around common economic interests and made to play their role in the clash of interests that exist in every village or rural entity.

Such a view is upheld not only in Marxist ideology but in sisterhood ideology. There is also the fact that in traditional countries women would not be able to form any kind of organisation which is not based on sex segregation.

But here, there are some short term and long term questions that have to be at least looked at.

For example, while it is easy to argue that the household and family are not harmonious entities where women and men are equal. (Again I refer to Ingrid Palmer's paper (page 9)), it is also troublesome to suggest that given the existing situation, women as an organisation could compete with the fraternal men of organising for power especially as they would be emerging from the same households.

In an interview done on women in weaver households belonging to the muslim community in J&K, women found the question of separate identity absurd. They prepare the yarn and the loom along with the children before their men weave the cloth whose sale provides the source of their livelihood.

The fact that they found the question about associating independently, their feeling about being unpaid etc. absurd may be attributed to the fact that they are not brainwashed by their culture. It might be argued that some consciousness raising may make them aware of their need and oppression. While there is some truth in this, we cannot ignore the fact

that for a long time to come, these families would continue to earn their living through this particular work of weaving which would entail a certain intra-gaining relationship. They see their work as a joint activity towards maintenance of themselves and their children.

It is difficult for us from the academic or internationalised community to be certain, what should be the nature and role of the women's organisations or the various mobilisations of women that are being recommended. This is an argument against organisations of women. I totally affirm that these are the crucial links for canalising development as well as power.

What I am raising here are issues or questions about what would be the ideological base of these organisations, what would be the texture of their relationship with other organisations especially with male dominated organisations.

Most of my discussions with sociologists in India make me very hesitant in suggesting any kind of juxtaposition of males and females in India in a local setting.

The literature on organising the poor peasants in India has begun to show the heterogeneity of this class of people and the problems of bringing them under a common front. Similar problems will assail us if we over simplify the effort to organise women into power groups.

A great deal of additional information, knowledge of the deep desires and views of these poor rural women, is necessary. The experience in this conflict of resolution in these societies etc. also must be studied and understood before we jump into the arena of organising women. I have talked of training cadres within countries for use in mobilising women in the field of rural development. This is an important task but it has to be handled with great circumspection.

For a long time I have believed that women-developers should also introspect and visualise the "end-society" or "scene" - which they are wanting to achieve. But in the hustle and rush of poverty-eradication, funding, seminars and laments, these areas of ideology, of the goals are neglected. I hope some reflections will also be allowed and encouraged by this Centre. I have only raised two issues on which women disagree. There are more. These should also come for discussion.

Conclusion

Speaking for myself I do not think we know enough about what is in the minds of rural women, their attitude to the men, their families to be able to plunge our ideologies into their social fabric.

Therefore, in summing up, I would say apart from all the goods that are identified for poverty eradication, women especially have two more basic needs.

- 1 the need for society to recognise their traditional role as home-makers and child producers as an economically productive role, as significant as working in a factory.
- 2 for women to be associated with other women in order to find their own special solutions to the problems of inequality and oppression.

I would add that it is in these two areas that there is a strong difference of opinion amongst intellectuals and policy-makers but it is, therefore, even more important that they are debated and understood.



*Bibliography*: *Programs* *Social Med. and Employment of Women*

SECTION III A

Country Index : Data Requirements and Sources

Data requirements

Source of Data

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Tables (unless otherwise specified)

Remarks

1. *Health & Nutrition*  
4. (i) Piped water

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See Tables Health 1 and 2, Section III

(ii) Malnutrition (a)

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Page 2-5 Deficiency signs in women.  
Pages 62-155 Deficiency signs in infants and children

(b)

Pocket Book of Health Statistics of India, Ministry of Health, 1976

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See Table Health 3, Section III

*ii*  
*Female & infant malnutrition*  
*Page 4*  
(iii) Control over and access to money income

(a)

Programming Women's Employment, some Illustrations, Institute of Social Studies, August 1977 (sponsor: UNICEF)

Chapters 2, 3, 4 and 5

(b)

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Pages 83-90

	<u>Data requirement</u>	<u>Source of Data</u>			
		<u>Publication</u>	<u>Page</u>	<u>Table</u>	<u>Remarks</u>
	<del>(iv) Female and infant mortality</del>	<del>CSWI</del>	<del>17,18</del>	<del>11</del>	
2. (a)	<i>Employment</i>				
(i)	National development Plan	(a) Women in India, Chaper 2, 3, A Compendium of Pro- 4, 5, 6 grammes, Department of Social Welfare, 1975. (b) Special programm- es on the welfare of women, Note of the Department of social welfare, December 1977.			
(ii)	Informal Sector	(a) CSWI (b) From Dissociation to Association, Report on Self-Employed wo- men's Association of Ahmedabad, 1975 (spon- sor: Indian Council for Social Science Research)	Chaper V, Sec- tion II		

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	<u>Publication</u>	<u>Page</u>	<u>Table</u>	<u>Remarks</u>
(iii) Manpower demand projections	Demography India, Chapter 3. J. P. Ambanawar, as quoted by Dr. Asok Mitra in his unpublished research on trends in employment and unemployment since 1961, (1971)			
<sup>3</sup> <del>(iv)</del> Social Welfare Measures	(a) Women in India, Chapter 6 A compendium of Programmes, Department of Social Welfare 1975			
	(b) Draft Fifth Five Year Plan, 1974-79, Planning Commission, Government of India			
<sup>(iv)</sup> <del>(vi)</del> Choice of technology	CSWI		Chapter V, Section Iv	
<sup>(v)</sup> <del>(vii)</del> Trade Unions	(a) From Disassociation to Association,  (b) Employment Review, Directorate General of Employment.			

Data requirement

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Table

Remarks

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(c) Section III, this paper.

Tables, 5, 6, 7.

(vii)  
(viii) Development assistance

(a) Women in India, A compendium of Programmes, op cit.

(b) Blue Print of Action Points and National Plan of Action for Women, February 1977, Department of Social Welfare, Government of India.

(vii) Control over and access to money income (B, C)

~~2. (b) 5~~ Background information about women

(a) CSWI

(b) Indian Women, a Collection of Essays, edited by Devaki Jain, Ministry of Information and Broadcasting, Government of India, 1975.

<u>Data requirement</u>	<u>Source of Data</u>			<u>Remarks</u>
<u>Publication</u>	<u>Page</u>	<u>Table</u>		
3. <u>Social Welfare Measures</u> From Page 3				
5. <u>Background information about women</u> From Page 4				
4. (i) <u>Social, Cultural and Religious factors</u>	(a) MN Srinivas, Religion and Society among the Coorgs of South India, Oxford Clarendon press, 1952			
	(b) Adrian Mayer, Caste and Kinship in Central India, London: Roubledge and Kegan Paul, 1960			
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	(b) Family & Kinship: A study			

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6. <u>Government Policies</u>	(a) CSWI		Chapter VIII	
	(b) Blue Print of Action Points and National Plan of Action for Women, op.cit.			
	(c) Women in India, A compendium of Programmes, op.cit.			
	(d) Resume of the Re- commendations of the Committee on the status of Women in India and the Empowered committee thereon, Women's welfare Division, Department of Social Welfare, 1976.			

Section III B

Table Demography 1 - Sex ratio in India and States, 1921-71  
Females per 1000 males

State	1921	1931	1941	1951	1961	1971
Andhra Pradesh	993	987	980	986	981	977
Assam	908	886	886	877	876	901
Bihar	1,016	994	996	990	994	956
Gujrat	944	945	941	952	940	936
Jammu & Kashmir	870	865	869	873	878	882
Kerala	1,011	1,022	1,027	1,028	1,022	1,019
Madhya Pradesh	974	973	970	967	953	943
Maharashtra	950	947	949	941	936	932
Mysore	969	965	960	966	959	959
Orissa	1,086	1,067	1,053	1,022	1,001	989
Punjab	821	830	850	858	864	874
Rajasthan	896	907	906	921	908	919
Tamil Nadu	1,029	1,027	1,012	1,007	992	979
Uttar Pradesh	909	904	907	910	909	883
West Bengal	905	890	852	865	878	892
All India	955	950	945	946	941	930

Source: Committee on the Status of Women 1975, P 15.

Table Demography 1

Sex Ratio

Demographers have pointed out that in the period 1901-1971, the sex ratio has declined from 972 women per 1000 males to 930 women per 1000 males. The differential in male-female population

which was 4 million in 1901, increased to 20 million in 1971. The hypotheses which have been advanced to explain the decline in the sex ratio include the higher under-enumeration of females in the Indian Census on account of the 'burdah' system, the preference for sons and the consequent neglect of female infants, the adverse impact of excessive childbearing on the health of women, and the practice of not spending on the medical treatment of women. The relative weight of these causes is not known. Thus for instance, if the declining sex ratio has been largely caused by increasing under-reporting over the decades, the phenomenon may be regarded as purely statistical. However, despite the absence of empirical evidence, there is a consensus among social welfare officers, women's groups and some academicians that the declining sex ratio is a manifestation of the 'dwindling sex'.<sup>1</sup>

There are inter-state variations in the sex ratio, both cross-sectional and time trends. While in some states such as

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- 1 (a) cf 'Critical Issues on the Status of Women', ICSSR, September 1977 Publication No. 107, Page 4.  
(b) CSWI, Page 11.  
(c) Blue print of Action Points and National Plan of Action for Women, Department of Social Welfare, Government of India, February 1977, Page 7.



Punjab (874 females per 1000 males in 1971) the sex ratio is significantly adverse for females (1000 females in 1971), in other states such as Kerala it is most favourable (1019 females per 1000 males in 1971). However, whereas there are signs of a correction in the adverse trend in this century in states such as Punjab, Jammu & Kashmir, W. Bengal etc., there are other states with a relatively more favourable male-female ratio in 1971, but as a part of a declining trend in the sex-ratio in the last 3-4 decades. States that exhibit the latter characteristic include Uttar Pradesh, Tamil Nadu, Gujrat, Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra etc. A few other states such as Rajasthan, Assam, Bihar, Orissa, Kerala etc., show a fluctuating trend in sex ratio in the period 1901-1971.<sup>1</sup>

The recent interpretation of this data in terms of women's relative ability of <sup>to</sup> earn an income in different states (i.e. favourable sex ratio for females in state where women engage actively in agriculture etc.) is being called into question on account of the declining trend in the sex-ratio in those states where women's participation is allegedly high. Without empirical evidence of the displacement of women workers from gainful employment, and the subsequent decline in the sex ratio, this obser-

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Source: <sup>1</sup> CSWI, Page 15 and Asok Mitra, implications of the Sex Ratio in India's Population as probed in Critical Issues, ICSSR.

vation cannot be regarded as academically acceptable despite its patent importance to the question of women's 'survival'. The issue is likely to remain open ended until rigorous associations are established between sex ratio and the productive role of the female. However, as the CSWI has pointed out, *such an investigation must avoid generalisations which blur* casual associations, and focus on a homogenous socio-economic stratum/community and other variables "which contribute the main thrust in shaping these averages".

Table Demography 2 - Expectation of Life at Birth, 1921-71

Decade	Years	
	Male	Female
1921-31	26.9	26.6
1931-41	32.1	31.4
1941-51	32.4	31.7
1951-61	41.9	40.6
1961-71	47.1	45.6

Source: Critical Issues on the Status of Women, ICSSR, September 1977.

Table Demography 2

The average expectancy of life in the country was 47.1 *for males* and 45.6 *for females* in 1961-71.

Life expectancy has increased in the last 50 years for both males and females, but at a faster rate for males than for

females, so that the gap between the male and female expectation of life has actually been increasing.

The primary causes of the slower improvement in the life expectancy of females as compared to males are the neglect of female children in the age-group 0-10 years, and mortality at child birth in the age group 15-34 years. The maternal mortality rate is 573 per 100,000 live births (1968). Life expectancy is higher in urban areas than in rural areas because of the relatively poorer medical care available in the rural areas.

Table Demography 3 - Age-specific Death Rates, Rural India  
1969

<u>Age-group</u>	<u>Males</u>	<u>Females</u>
0-4	58.3	70.2
5-9	5.8	7.4
10-14	3.0	2.7
5-14	4.5	5.3
15-19	2.1	4.2
20-24	3.9	5.5
25-29	3.7	5.5
30-34	4.1	6.4
35-39	6.5	6.1
40-44	8.5	7.6
45-49	13.2	9.4
15-49	5.3	6.1
50-54	18.7	16.2
55-59	28.3	20.2
60-64	44.0	38.7
65-69	59.9	52.2
70+	123.0	119.5
<u>Total</u>	<u>18.2</u>	<u>20.1</u>

Source: Committee on the Status of Women in India (CSWI), 1975.

### Table Demography 3

Estimates for 12 states<sup>1</sup> show that in the rural areas, the infant mortality rate for females was 148 per 1000 live births, as compared to 132 per males<sup>in 1971.</sup> The differential in death rates continues through pre-school years, 0-4, where the death rate for male children is 58 per 1000, and the female *death* rate is 70. In the age-group 5-14, the male death rate is 4.5 per 1000, and the female death rate is 5.3. In older age groups until 35-39 the differential appears to widen. For instance, in the age group 15-19, the male and female death rates are 2.1 and 4.2 respectively; the death rates increase to 4.1 and 6.4 respectively for males and females in the age group 30-34. Thereafter there is a reversal in the pattern of mortality, and female death rates fall below male death rates. At all ages above 39, the female death rate is lower, sometimes significantly lower, than male death rates. However, for the rural population as a whole in 1969, there were 18 deaths per thousand males and 20 deaths per thousand females.

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1 Sample Registration System (SRS), Registrar General's Office.

Employment of Women

Table Employment 1 Trend in Distribution of Women Workers in Agriculture Industry and Trade 1911-1971

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<u>Year</u>	<u>Agriculture</u>	<u>Industry</u>	<u>Female</u>	<u>Total</u>	<u>Female workers as percentage to total female participation</u>	<u>As %age total labour</u>
1911	30,898 (73.9)	6,137 (14.7)	4,767 (11.4)	41,802 (100)	33.73	34.44
1921	30,279 (75.5)	5,409 (13.5)	4,407 (11.0)	40,095 (100)	33.73	34.02
1931	27,177 (72.3)	5,147 (13.7)	5,276 (14.0)	37,600 (100)	27.63	31.17
1951*	31,062 (76.8)	4,554 (11.2)	4,923 (12.1)	40,539 (100)	23.30	28.98
1961	42,274 (79.6)	6,884 (11.6)	5,244 (8.8)	59,402 (100)	27.96	31.53
1971	25,060 (80.1)	3,307 (10.5)	2,931 (9.4)	31,298 (100)	11.86	17.35

1941 figures are omitted as they are based on 2% sample.  
 Figures in paranthesis are percentages of women workers.

\* Figures do not include Jammu & Kashmir

Source: 1 Census of India 1961 paper No. 1 of 1962 - Final Population.  
 2 CSWI, Page 153. Pocket Book of Population Statistics - Census  
 cerenary 1972 total.

Table ~~Employment~~ - Important Manufacturing Activities  
 ment 2: in Which the Ratio of Female to  
 Male Workers has Shown ~~Way from~~ Long Term  
Decline 1911 - 1961

Manufacturing Activities	[Female workers per '000 Male workers)				
	1911	1921	1931	1951	1961
Processing of Foodgrain	12,075	7,779	7,065	1,520	831
Bread & other bakery products	1,644	1,466	1,662	447	64
Production of Vegetable oils	688	656	595	347	458
Nets, rops, cordage, etc.	1,962	1,295	-	-	1,236
Foot wear and their repair	232	201	141	88	81
Earthenware pottery making	572	540	490	402	507

Source:

Critical issues on the Status of Women, ICSSR, Sept. 1977.

### Tables Employment 1 and 2

In the decade 1961-71, while the male & female population increased by 25 per cent and 24 per cent respectively (20% and 21% in the working age group), the number of men workers <sup>increased</sup> by 15.2%, while that of women declined by 41.4%. The Census basically measures the level of employment of men and tends to ignore the interchangeable roles of women as housewives and gainful workers. Thus women's work as unpaid helpers in family enterprises is not taken into account systematically in the Censuses (Table Employment 3).

Time trend data for the period 1911-71 shows a declining participation of women, both as percentage to total female population and as percentage to total labour. 1961 is considered an aberration because of the liberal definition of 'worker' which included unpaid family workers in the enumeration of 'workers'.

In agriculture, in the decade 1961-71, there was a substantial decline in the total number of female workers. However, the bulk of the fall was accounted for by the decline of 72.0% in female cultivators. Despite the increase

of 12.5% in female agricultural labourers in 1961-71, a large number of females who were earlier reported as cultivators were displaced from agricultural occupations. On the other hand, in the same period, male cultivators registered an increase of 3.75%, and male agricultural labourers increased by 83%.

In industry, women's participation shows a general stagnation and distinct decline after 1961. The commonly held reason for the decline in women's participation in industry is the transformation of 'domestic' and cottage industries such as hand-spinning, weaving, paper, jute articles etc. from labour intensive production to mechanisation. These industries traditionally employed females, who were displaced to a greater extent than males, because cottage industries that predominantly employed males (such as smithy, carpentry, pottery etc) were not affected significantly by <sup>these changes. Technological change and the rationalisation of</sup> the process of production reduced the demand for unskilled labour and generated stiff competition for household industries such as hand weaving, oil pressing, rice pounding etc. from factory production.

In services, the participation of women has declined precipitately in the decade 1961-71 on account of the "virtual disappearance" of women from trade and commerce. With



the development of modern organised marketing and increase in the number of intermediaries and wholesale trade, the marketing of products of traditional and household industry, which was one of the important avenues of earning for women in the earlier period have been gradually disappearing.

In 1971, 94% of women workers were engaged in the unorganised sector of the economy, of whom 81.4% were in the agricultural sector, and the rest in non-agricultural occupations. Some of the non-agricultural occupations of female workers in the unorganised sector are poverty-induced occupations in manufacturing and trade. Such occupations include activities such as dealing in used garments, junk-smithy, wending of fruits and vegetables etc. Women workers in the unorganised sector, both agricultural and non-agricultural are beyond the reach of laws that seek to protect the security and working conditions of labour. For the first time in India, self-employed women workers of the unorganised sector have been unionised in Ahmedabad, a city in the western state of Gujarat. The union is known as the Self Employed Women's Association (SEWA).

6% of total women workers in the country are employed in the organised sector, 2.7% being in industry and 3.3%

in the tertiary sector. While the ratio of female to male employees in the public sector has shown a steady increase in the last 15 years; It still remains below 10 per cent hundred men. In the private sector, where the ratio was consistently higher than the ratio in the public sector until 1967, the trend altered after 1967 and <sup>the</sup> ~~a~~ ratio worsened in the subsequent years. Since 1972 there has been a slight improvement in the ratio of men to women employees in the private sector.

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employment

3: 23.

Percentage of Unpaid Family Workers in the Labour Force in Rural and Urban India by Age and Sex (1958-59, 1959-60, 1960-61, 1961-62)

Age	Rural <sup>1/</sup>		Urban <sup>2/</sup>	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
10-14	47.5	55.5	34.5	52.5
15-19	36.0	49.7	22.0	41.5
20-24	26.0	45.5	13.5	31.7
25-29	17.0	42.5	8.4	26.1
30-34	10.7	40.3	4.3	22.1
35-39	6.3	38.6	2.5	18.8
40-44	3.7	37.0	1.6	16.4
45-49	2.5	35.6	1.1	15.4
50-54	2.2	34.5	1.2	15.0
55-59	2.4	33.6	1.5	15.1
60-64	2.7	33.0	2.1	15.3
65-69	3.3	32.6	3.5	15.5
70-74	4.2	32.4	5.5	16.0
75 +	5.6	32.2	8.8	18.0

1/ Based on the NSS data from 16th and 17th Rounds (1960-61 and 1961-62 respectively).

2/ Based on the NSS data from 14th and 15th Rounds (1958-59 & 1959-60 respectively).

Source: Report of the Committee of Experts on Unemployment Estimates, 1970.

Table Employment 3.

This table shows that a higher proportion of persons, especially females in rural areas, work as unpaid family labour. Various practices have been adopted by decennial Censuses regarding the inclusion or exclusion of this group of workers in the working labour force in the country. The unpaid family members help both in family enterprises and in wage employment where their contribution to the family earning as helpers of the 'earning' member is not always recognised. Most of them fulfil dual roles by engaging in economic and household activity. Estimates of the 1971 Census show that 2.3 million females were reported as non-workers because their main activity was housework, although they engaged in some secondary 'gainful' activity (Committee on the Status of Women in India, page 154).

The 14th and 15th Rounds of the National Sample Survey suggest that in rural India the proportion of females in the labour force and particularly of unpaid female family workers falls from a peak during July-August to a low during May-June. The lack of availability of opportunities for gainful work in the lean agricultural season (May-June) tends to cause withdrawal of the unpaid family workers from the labour force.

Table ~~Employment~~ <sup>ment 4:</sup> Comparison of Male and Female Workers (by Industrial Categories)  
and Non-workers, All India 1901-71

(Females per '000 males)

Year	Popu- lation	Total Workers	Primary Sector				Secondary Sector		Tertiary Sector		Non- Workers
			I	II	I+II+III	IV	IV+V+VI	VII	VIII	VII+VIII+IX	
1901	972	504	431	1051	534	-	543	405	65	350	1707
1911	964	525	427	1054	560	-	548	513	62	390	1676
1921	955	516	463	952	545	-	501	479	65	379	1629
1931	955	453	289	1006	466	-	423	396	41	410	1656
1951	947	408	357	857	470	-	291	187	61	257	1580
1961	941	460	498	819	552	663	348	119	22	210	1581
1971	930	210	135	498	248	265	142	59	34	108	1726

(I) Cultivators (II) Agricultural Labourers (III) Mining, Quarrying, Livestock, (IV) Household Industry (V) Manufacturing Other than Household Industry (VI) Construction (VII) Trade and Commerce (VIII) Transport, Storage and Communication (IX) Other Service.

Source: <sup>Critical Issues</sup> (Initial Source on the Status of Women, ICSSR. September 1977).

#### Table Employment 4

The ratio of females per thousand males in total workers shows a general worsening in the ratio since 1911, with 1961 being an exception (as pointed out in Table Employment 1 the definition of worker used in the 1961 census was such that it included the vast majority of unpaid family workers whose main activity is non-gainful, but whose secondary activity is gainful in terms of either earning a direct income, or assisting in the earning of income).

Of the three sectors viz. primary, secondary and tertiary, in 1971, the ratio was most adverse in the tertiary sector. However, the changes in the ratios of females employed per thousand males in the decade 1961-71 point to a general decline in the ratio in all three sectors, particularly in the primary and secondary sectors.

The displacement of women from household industry (category IV) is evidenced from the decline in the ratio from 663 in 1961 to 265 in 1971. Even allowing for the change in the definition of workers, a drop of this magnitude appears to be indicative of a general trend against female participation in household industry.

In agriculture the displacement of women cultivators (category I) on account of the resumption of land by owners who discontinued formal leasing out of their land as <sup>a</sup>back-lash effect of <sup>the</sup>land reforms legislation, is evidenced by the drop in the ratio of female cultivators per thousand male cultivator. The steep drop in the female:male ratio in agriculture labour in the same period shows that the dispossessed female cultivators were not absorbed in agricultural labour to the same extent as the male ex-cultivators were. (cf. Table Employment 1)

The displacement of females in trade (category VII) is seen in the decline in the female:male ratio of worker in trade in the period 1961-71. This ratio has declined steadily since 1911.

Transport, storage and communications (category VIII) is the only occupational category in which the female:male ratio has improved in the decade 1961-71, although it is far lower than the level achieved in 1951 or any of the earlier decades of the century.

TABLE EMPLOYMENT 5 : Number of Registered Trade Unions (Workers' and Employers') and Membership of such Unions submitting Returns (1961-62 to 1968)

Year	No. of Regd. Trade Unions	No. of Unions submitting returns	Percentage 3 to 2	Members of Unions submitting returns			Percentage of women to total membership
				Men	Women	Total	
1961-62	11,614	7,087	61.0	3,607,039	370,164	3,977,203	9.3
1962-63	11,827	7,251	61.3	3,334,755	346,987	3,681,742	9.4
1963-64	11,984	7,250	60.5	3,628,211	348,865	3,977,076	8-8
1964-65	13,023	7,543	57.9	4,113,355	352,927	4,466,282	7.9
1965 (Apr-Dec)	13,248	6,932	52.3	3,564,582	222,917	3,787,499	5.9
1966	14,686	7,244	49.3	4,078,146	313,501	4,391,647	7.1
1967	15,314	7,523	49.1	4,196,698	328,749	5,525,447	7.3
1968	16,716	8,851	52.9	4,699,944	421,067	5,121,011	8.2

N.B.: Figures upto 1964-65 relate to the financial years while the figures for 1966 onwards relate to the calendar years. The figures for 1965 relate only to nine months i.e. April - December.

Source: Ministry of Labour.



TABLE EMPLOYMENT 6: Number and Membership of Workers' Trade Unions by sex

Year	No. of Regd. Trade Unions	No. of Unions submitting returns	Membership		Total
			Male	Female	
1962-63	11,620	7,144	3,319,730	3,46,847	3,666,577
1964-65	12,744	7,380	4,088,614	3,52,655	4,441,269
1966	14,370	7,086	4,055,663	3,13,105	4,368,768
1968	16,409	8,689	4,673,280	4,20,481	5,093,761

N.B.: Figures upto 1964-65 relate to the financial years while the figures for 1966 onwards relate to the calender year.

Source: Ministry of Labour.

TABLE EMPLOYMENT 7 : Number and Membership of Employers' Trade Unions by Sex

Year	No. of Regd. Trade Unions	No. of Unions submitting returns	Membership		
			Male	Female	Total
1962-63	207	137	15,025	140	15,165
1964-65	279	163	24,741	272	25,013
1966	316	158	22,483	396	22,879
1968	307	162	26,664	586	27,250

N.B.: Figures upto 1964-65 relate to the financial years while the figures for 1966 relate to the calender year.

Source: Ministry of Labour.

Table Employment 5, 6 and 7

In 1968 the number of women workers who belonged to registered trade unions was 420.5 thousand, or 0.013 per cent of total women workers of 31.3 million in 1971. Allowing for the discrepancy in the two base years, it is unlikely that the coverage of women workers by registered trade unions was significantly higher in either of the two years. In 1968 there were 4.7 million men members of registered trade unions in the country, as against the total men workers of 149.1 million in 1971. Using the two different base year figures, approximately 3.1 per cent of men workers were covered by trade unions.

The Unionisation of women workers was notional before the '50's and gathered momentum in this decade. However, membership of women in workers' unions and employers' unions in the period 1961-62 and 1968 shows stagnation in absolute terms and a decline in the percentage of female members to total members of trade unions in the country.

State-wise data on membership of workers' trade unions shows that female membership is relatively higher (40,000 and above) in states such as Andhra Pradesh, Assam, Kerala and West Bengal. Amongst the employers' unions, states which accounted for the largest number of female trade unionists (100 or more) in 1968 were Andhra Pradesh and Maharashtra.

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The Unionisation of women workers was notional before the '50's and gathered momentum in this decade. However, memberships of women in workers' unions and employers' unions in the period 1961-62 and 1968 shows stagnation in absolute terms and a decline in the percentage of female members to total members of trade unions in the country.

State-wise data on membership of workers' trade unions shows that female membership is relatively higher (40,000 and above) in states such as Andhra Pradesh, Assam, Kerala and West Bengal. Amongst the employers' unions, states which accounted for the largest number of female trade unionists (100 or more) in 1968 were Andhra Pradesh and Maharashtra.

Industry-wise break up of membership of male and female trade unionists for workers unions shows that in each of the industry groups 'Manufacturing', 'Agriculture, Forestry and Fishing' etc, 'Mining and Quarrying' and 'Services' there were 30,000 or more female trade unionists in 1968. Among the employers' unions, the industry groups which accounted for the largest number of female trade unionists in 1968 (50 or more) were 'Transport and Communications' (other than workshops), 'Services'.

Table Health 1      Distribution of Indian Villages by  
Water Supply as on 31.3.1974

Type of water system	Number of villages	Population covered (1971 Census)	Percentage of population covered
1. Tube-wells with hand pumps and piped water (safe)	39	20	4.5
2. Adequate and fairly safe water supply through simple wells and hand pumps (Fairly safe)	239	200	46.0
3. Simple wells (Not safe)	185	160	36.0
4. Problem villages yet to be covered	113	60	13.5

Source: 53rd Estimate Committee Report, Ministry of Works and Housing, 1974.

Table Health 1

Of the 576 thousand villages in India, villages with 4.5 per cent of the population have safe water supply system, where a 'safe' source is that which is not contaminated and the supply is adequate. The mode of supply includes piped water. Another 46 per cent of the rural population has access to fairly safe water supply systems consisting of simple wells and handpumps.

However, 49.5 per cent of the population is covered by contaminated and/or inadequate water supply systems. Of this category of the population, 13.5% of the population lives in villages in which there has been no state intervention (as on 31.3.1974) with respect to improving the water supply system.

According to a survey conducted by the Ministry of Works and Housing in 1972-73, there were 152 thousand 'problem' villages in the country i.e. those villages which did not have a source of drinking water within a 'reasonable distance' (approximately 1.6 Km) or where the drinking water source was endemic to diseases such as cholera and guinea worms, or where the water had excess of salinity, iron or flourides. In the country as a whole, the total population dependent on 'problem' sources of water was 122.8 million in 1972-73, disaggregated according to the nature of the 'problem' of drinking water in Table Health 2.

Table Health 2 Distribution of 'Problem' villages with respect to drinking water, 1972-73

	<u>No. of Problem villages</u>	<u>Population (million)</u>	<u>Percentage distribution of population in problem villages</u>
1. Those which do not have assured source of drinking water within a reasonable distance (1.6 Km.)	90,656	74.83	60.9
2. Those where the source of water is endemic to water diseases like cholera and guinea worms	37,041	26.00	21.1
3. Those sources of drinking water which suffer excess of salinity, iron and fluorides	24,778	21.93	17.9
	<hr/> 152,475 <hr/>	<hr/> 122.76 <hr/>	<hr/> 100.0 <hr/>

Source: 53rd Estimate Committee Report Ministry of works and Housing, 1974.

Table Health 2

In 1972-73, 74.8 million of the population of the country was located at a distance of more than 1.6 Km. from an assured source of drinking water, while 48 million of the population had access only to seriously contaminated water.

The distance of a village from non-potable sources of water used for bathing and cleanliness, and washing of animals etc, often determines the standard of hygiene of the community. In the traditional division of labour which has evolved, women are responsible for fetching water from the local source.



Micro studies have revealed that women spend 1-3 hours per day, each day of the year, in fetching water. In addition to the time spent on fetching water, there is a considerable physical strain in transporting 2 or 3 vessels of water, women also spend a considerable amount of time in washing clothes (and less often utensils) at a different location than the source from which drinking water is fetched.

TABLE HEALTH 3. Percentage distribution of ailing male and female adults according to treatments employed to cure illnesses in six rural communities 1957

Treatment taken	<u>Bora</u>		<u>Dhanare</u>		<u>Mirajgaon</u>		<u>Mithbaon</u>		<u>Midalqi</u>		<u>Nalwar</u>	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
Doctors	28.1	12.3	17.5	16.4	73.6	53.6	55.4	51.6	68.6	23.7	52.1	12.1
Medicines	28.1	19.2	5.8	1.9	0.4	7.7	3.7	5.7	-	7.2	0.5	2.9
Mantriks	2.4	26.0	16.0	23.5	0.9	2.3	0.5	1.2	2.3	3.3	1.0	4.4
Domestic Traditional Remedies or No Treatment	41.4	42.5	60.7	58.2	25.1	36.4	40.4	41.5	29.1	65.8	46.4	80.6
Total	10082	73	206	213	1235	220	213	506	86	599	192	1190
Information about the type of treatment not given	1	1	-	4	-	-	1	39	1	4	-	20

Source: Implications of the sex ration in India's population. As/hok Mitra  
Survey conducted by Dr. Kumudini Dandekar

### Table Health 3

In a survey of 6 rural communities conducted by Dr. Kumudini Dandekar in 1957, the differences in practices relating to the treatment of males and females have been highlighted. She observes, "Among non-adults there were 513 male non-adults ailing as compared to 730 females in the year of the survey. The difference in the two sexes, in terms of ailing, could not be explained by their slightly different numbers in the surveyed area. Among the non-adults, the percentage of males getting some medical treatment was much higher than the percentage of females. The same is true for adult males and females. Moreover, the male/female differences were very striking in the backward villages which enjoyed less communication with the outside world". From data on the expenditure on treatment she demonstrates that women generally received free, traditional treatment, or no treatment at all, as compared to men.

*Commenting*  
*Continuating* on the bias against women's medical treatment Dr. Asok Mitra<sup>1</sup> observes that by tradition for the country as a whole female babies, children and adults are taken to hospitals or consigned to the care of doctors at a much later stage than male, babies, children and adults. Data on death records from several cities are analysed by Dr. Mitra to show that "the proportion of deaths from the twenty very important killer illnesses in India is higher for the majority of these illnesses in the age groups 0 and 1-4 among females than among males".

<sup>1</sup> Implications of the Sex Ratio in India's population, Asok Mitra, 1977 (Survey conducted by Dr. K. Dandekar)

Table Health 4: Percentage distribution of deaths due to maternal causes by age - India, 1972 (Rural)

<u>Child birth and complicated pregnancy</u>	15 - 34	35 - 45	Total
1. Abortion	60.7	39.3	100.0
2. Eclampsia	87.0	13.0	100.0
3. Placenta <sup>Pravia</sup> Precaria	73.3	26.7	100.0
4. Haemorrhage in delivery	86.7	13.3	100.0
5. Post-partum haemorrhage	94.4	5.6	100.0
6. Anaemia of pregnancy	76.0	24.0	100.0
7. Abnormal presentation	92.9	7.1	100.0
8. Puerperal sepsis	78.6	21.4	100.0
9. Not classifiable as above	76.2	23.8	100.0
	<hr/>	<hr/>	
	Total 78.8	21.2	

Source: Pocket Book of Health, Statistics of India, Ministry of Health and Family Planning, 1976.

Table Health 5: Average number of children born alive to current mothers by age groups - Rural India, 1969

<u>Age Group</u>	<u>Average number of children</u>
15 - 19	1.3
20 - 24	2.1
25 - 29	3.5
30 - 34	4.8
35 - 39	5.8
40 - 44	6.4

Source: Pocket Book of Health Statistics of India, Ministry of Health and Family Planning, 1976

### Tables Health 4 and 5

The major health problems of women in the reproductive age groups stem from complications related to pregnancy and excessive child-bearing and malnutrition. The practice of denial or low access of women to health services worsens the complications. Women are traditionally denied access to medical services because of their lower status in society. Their low productivity on account of excessive child-bearing, which undermines <sup>their</sup> her health, limits their employability and wages. This in turn devalues their status and reinforces <sup>their</sup> her function as a producer of children, setting in train the events that thwart <sup>their</sup> her emergence as a healthy, productive member of society.

The Indian Council for Medical Research has pointed out that "about 70 per cent of pregnant women in the countries suffer from anaemia which contributes to increased risk to their <sup>~</sup>upborn children and 40 per cent of maternal deaths." Women of child-bearing age (15-45 years) represent 21.2% of the total population (1971). At a given time, it is estimated that there are 20 million pregnant women in the country. Haemoglobin estimations carried out by Indian Council for Medical Research in various parts of the country show that about 30 per cent of all pregnant women are anaemic, with haemoglobin levels below 10%. Iron deficiency is largely responsible for anaemia. However, a study sponsored in the WHO has shown that anaemia in Indian women, unlike women

in western countries, is not overcome satisfactorily even after their diet has been supplemented with iron during pregnancy. Malabsorption of iron, folic acid and vitamin B 12 is related to the leakage caused by chronic amoebiasis, malaria, other wasting diseases, intestinal parasitic and helminthic infections and chronic malnutrition. There is a high incidence of maternal deaths due to anaemia and malnutrition in the country, particularly in the rural areas.

Deficiency signs are also observed in a large proportion of children in the age group 0-15 years. Surveys of children of school-going age reported by the Indian Council <sup>for</sup> ~~for~~ Medical Research indicate that 22 per cent of the children show one or more signs of nutritional deficiency. The common deficiencies are B-complex deficiency, vitamin A deficiency, phrynoderma and anaemia.

TABLE EDUCATION 1 : Percentage proportion of literates  
in total population by sex, 1971

		(percentage of population)			
		All Areas		Urban	
		Males	Females	Males	Females
(i)	Population	100	100	100	100
(ii)	Illiterate	61.10	81.67	39.01	58.50
(iii)	Literates without educational level	13.78	7.39	15.08	13.11
(iv)	Primary	11.86	6.28	15.89	13.01
(v)	Middle	7.33	2.92	13.31	8.47
(vi)	Matriculation of Higher Secondary	4.77	1.42	12.83	5.55
(vii)	Non-Technical Diploma not equal to degree	0.05	0.02	0.12	0.06
(viii)	Technical diploma not equal to degree	0.11	0.04	0.29	0.08
(ix)	University degree or Post Graduate degree	1.00	0.26	3.47	1.22

Source: Pocket Book of Population Statistics, 1972, Registrar General and Census Commissioner of India (estimated from 1% sample date)

Table Education 1.  
The literacy rate for the population as a whole in the country is 29.45 per cent (1971). Excluding the pre-school age group, 0-4, the percentage literacy rate for the country is 33.84. The comparative ~~rate~~ <sup>male-</sup> female percentage literacy rates are

	Males	Females
(1) Including age group 0-4	39.45	18.69
	42.28	21.48

Of the literates a large proportion have no educational level. Hence too

contd....

level. Here too there is a discrepancy between males and females in the proportion of total literates who have an educational level, being 25.12 per cent of the total male population, and 10.94 per cent of the total female population. In absolute numbers, the number of male literates with an educational level is 70.94 million, and the number of female literates with an educational level is 28.78 million. Roughly the male:female ration between literates with educational level is 2.5:1. This uneven distribution of literacy between the sexes is sustained in all the categories included in the disaggregation of literates with educational level. For instances, at the Primary level female literates were 33 per cent of all Primary level literates. After middle School, there is a substantial widening of the gap between the proportion of male and female literates among total literates, of all matriculates and higher secondary level literates, women comprise 21.7 per cent. Among all technical and non technical diploma holders, women are 25.4 per cent of the total. At the level of University education, women graduates and Post graduates are 19.1 per cent of the total graduates and Post graduates



TABLE EDUCATION 2: Age-specific literacy rates by sex, 1971(percent literates of  
population)

<u>Age Group</u>	<u>LITERACY RATE</u>		
	<u>Male</u>	<u>Female</u>	<u>Total</u>
Below 15	27.91	13.98	29.95
15 - 24	61.54	32.50	47.47
25 - 34	49.27	18.75	33.94
35 +	37.05	10.43	24.53

*Source: CSWI, 1975*Table Education 2

Age-specific literacy rates show that for the population as a whole, as well as for males and females separately, the highest literacy level is reported in the age group 15-24, and the lowest level is recorded in the age group below 15. The contrast between male-female literacy rates is most marked in the age group 35 +. In the age groups below 35, the differential between male-female literacy is slightly less, nevertheless significant.

TABLE EDUCATION 3 : Enrolment of girls, 1950-51 and 1973-74 by Educational level

Class groups	Corresponding age groups ( years )	1950 - 51		1973 - 74	
		Enrolment of girls (million)	As proportion of total enrolment in class group (percent)	Enrolment of girls (million)	As proportion of total enrolment in class group (percent)
I - V	6 - 11	5.38	28.1	24.40	37.6
VI - VIII	11 - 14	0.53	17.0	4.54	30.9
IX - XI, XII	14 - 17	0.19	14.0	2.34	27.1
University Education	17 - 23	0.08 (1955-56)	14.8 (1955-56)	0.68	23.5

Source: CSWT, 1975.

Time trend data on enrolment shows that the rate of growth in girls' enrolment in Schools is higher than the corresponding rate for boys at all levels from enrolment in Primary Schools to enrolment in Universities. Subject to the qualification that enrolment is not synonymous with retention on account of drop-outs from the educational system, Table Education 3 shows that female enrolment has gained substantially in the period 1950-51 to 1973-74.

However, even today there are wide divergences in the pattern of enrolment of girls and boys as observed from the enrolled population in different age-groups as a proportion of total population (Table Education 4)

contd...

TABLE EDUCATION 4: Enrolment of girls and boys as a proportion of total population in relevant age groups

Age Groups	Male enrolment as proportion of population	Female enrolment as proportion of population	Total
6 - 11	100.2	66.4	83.9
11 - 14	48.3	22.2	35.6
14 - 17	31.0	12.0	22.0
17 - 23	7.5	2.3	4.96

Source : Committee on the Status of Women, 1975.

The preceding tables on education and literacy in India provide empirical evidence of a bias against female education in the country especially in the rural areas. Commenting on the tendency to keep girls away from School, the Department of Social Welfare<sup>1</sup> has pointed out that the neglect of women's education is traditional, and is related to the perception of women's role as non-productive members of the household. The responsibility of domestic chores, the fear that education might alienate girls from traditions and social values, early marriage and social ~~inhibitions~~ <sup>inhibitions</sup> against girls pursuing education after marriage, the prevalence of child labour, the irrelevance of the school curriculum in training the girls for supplementing family income, unsuitable timings etc., all inter-<sup>act</sup> ~~act~~ to re-inforce the prejudice of society against girls' education.

<sup>1</sup>Blue Print of Action points and National Plan of Action for Women. Department of Social Welfare, Government of India.

Data References - Section III B i

1. Committee on the status of women, Department of Social Welfare, Government of India, 1955.
2. Blue Print of Action Points and National Plan of Action for Women, Department of Social Welfare, Ministry of Education and Social Welfare, February 1977.
3. Hand Book on Social welfare Statistics, Department of Social Welfare, Ministry of Education and Social Welfare.
4. Pocket Book of Health Statistics of India, Ministry of Health and Family Planning, 1976.
5. Critical Issues on the Status of Women. Indian Council for Social Science Research, New Delhi, September 1977.
6. The Indian Woman : A Statistical Profile, Ministry of Education and Social Welfare, Ministry of Education and Social Welfare, 1975.
7. Nutrition Atlas of India, National Institute of Nutrition, Indian Council of Medical Research, Hyderabad, 1971.
8. 53rd Estimates Committee, Ministry of Works and Housing 1974.
9. Implications of the sex ratio in India's Population, Asok Mitra, Seminar on 'composite culture and process of National Integration, Dr. Zakir Husain Educational and Cultural Foundation, 1977.

~~Section III (C)~~

~~Select bibliography of~~ Recent Women's  
Studies in India

(i.) Official Publications

<u>Publication</u>	<u>Department</u>	<u>Year</u>
1. Indian Women by Devaki Jain	Publications Division Ministry of Information & Broadcasting Government of India	1975
2. Women in India A compendium of Programmes	Women's Welfare Division Department of Social Welfare	1975
3. Handbook on social welfare statistics	Department of Social welfare, Ministry of Education and Social welfare, Government of India	1974
4. The Indian Women A statistical profile	Ministry of Education and Social Welfare Department of Social Welfare, Government of India	1975
5. Blue Print of Action Points and National Plan of action for Women	Department of Social Welfare Government of India	1977
6. Resume of the Recommendations of the Committee on the status of women in India	Ministry of Education and Social Welfare Department of Social welfare, Government of India	
7. Employment Review 1973-74	Directorate General of Employment & Training, Ministry of Labour, Government of India	1975
8. Women in Industry	Labour Bureau Publication Ministry of Labour, Government of India	
9. How Science Agri Expo Nutrition Special	Farm Information Unit Directorate of Extension, Ministry of Agriculture & Irrigation	Oct-Nov 77

II.

Publications of the Indian Council for  
Social Science Research (ICSSR)

(11)

*Studies sponsored by the Indian Council for Social Science Research*

- |               |  |  |      |
|---------------|--|--|------|
| 1.            | Programme of women's studies   | Indian Council for Social Science Research<br>11PA Hostel Building<br>Indra Prastha Estate<br>Ring Road<br>New Delhi 110 002 | 1977 |
| 2.            | Women in a Developing Society - 1<br>From Dissociation to Rehabilitation<br>Report on the Experiment     | - do -   | 1975 |
| <del>3.</del> | <del>Report on the experiment to promote self employment in an Urban Area</del><br>- Devaki Jain         | <del>- do -</del>  |      |
| 4.            | Women in a Developing Society - 2  | - do -   |      |
|               | Women Construction Workers<br>Report of two surveys  | - do -   | 1975 |
| 5.            | Critical Issues on the status of women<br>Employment, Health Education<br>Suggested Priorities of Action |  | 1977 |
| 6.            | Status of Women in India<br>A synopsis of the Report of the National Committee                           |  | 1975 |

<u>S.No.</u>	<u>Research Work</u>	<u>Author/Institution</u>	<u>Year</u>
1	On the Socio-Economic conditions of women The National Sample Survey and Labour Ministry Surveys	Indira Rajaraman (Indian Institute of Management Bangalore)	1971
2	Implications of the Sex Ratio in India's Population	Ashok Mitra (Jawaharlal Nehru University, Delhi)	
3	Note on Mahila Mandals	Devaki Jain (Institute of Social Studies 222, Jorbagh New Delhi)	
4	Women & Poverty Eradication	Devaki Jain	1976
6	National Population Policy in Relation to National Planning - Ashok Mitfa	Ajit Bhagat Memorial Lecture Ahmedabad	1977
6	Economic Role of Cottonpod Unshellers & Handloom Weavers	Ela.R. Bhatt Self Employed Women's Association Ahmedabad	1977

Reports of the Institute of Social Studies and  
affiliate organisations.

<u>S.No.</u>	<u>Name</u>	<u>Sponsored by</u>	<u>Year</u>
1	An Evaluation of the Socio Economic Programme of the Central Social Welfare Board	Department of Social Welfare Government of India	1977
2	Programming Women's Employment some illustrations	UNICEF 11, Jorbagh	1977
3	Women in the Tea Plantations A study of Plantation Workers in the Nilgiri Wynad Area of South India	Indian Council for Social Science Research	1976



Section III C (ii)

Select Annotated Bibliography of Projects  
Employing/Mobilising Women

Projects examined by Indian Cooperative Union  
(AIFACS Building, Rafi Marg, New Delhi-1) that have been  
effective in employing/mobilising women.

Project Name Shri Mahila Grih Udyog Lijjat  
Pappad Society

Address C/o Vedcchi Gramodyog Vikas Kendra  
Valod 349 640  
District Surat, Gujarat

Contact Person Shri Niranjana Shah

The Lijjat pappad centre at Valod was established  
in 1968. It provides work to approximately 480 women of  
whom 165 are Muslim. The women earn between Rs.100-150 per  
month for 5-6 hours of work per day. They work on an  
average for 20-35 days a month. It is take more work except  
at the Golan branch where the women come and work in a shed.

The annual sales currently average about Rs.22 lakhs

(1976-77) A sum of Rs.40,000 is generated as gross profit every month, of which Rs.8,000 - 9,000 is the net profit. After all the costs have been covered the rest is given as dividends to the women workers.

A percentage of earnings is compulsorily saved for each worker. This amount at present totals about Rs.85,000 accumulated over 9 years.

The central characteristic of the organization is the distribution of dough which is prepared at the centre itself according to strictly laid formulas. This is collected by the women from the centre every morning and rolled pappads are brought back to the centre the same evening. The organization check the rolled pappads and make the payment on the basis of the quantity rolled.

The success of the scheme can be said basically to depend on two factors the managerial supervisory skill of the men and women who staff the organization which ensures the excellent quality maintained throughout the year, and the in rate skill of the women of the region to roll five pappads.



Raw material (cotton or yarn) is provided to workers at the Centre, which is generally spun or woven in home production units. Payment is piece-rate, in cash on delivery at the centre. The annual production of a field centre is approximately Rs.1.5. to Rs.25 lakhs. Workers are assisted with credit for purchasing equipment, but are free to accept work additional to that provided by the Centre.

Dastakar Anjuman X

Address: C/o Directorate of Industrial  
and Commerce, Srinagar  
Jammu & Kashmir

Contact Person : Shri M.N. Dhar  
Secretary

The Dastakar Anjuman, a registered non-profit society, ~~has~~ was established in 1966 to provide work to women specially in the poorer households.

Approximately 800 to 1000 persons including about 600 to 800 women and children draw sustenance from this

A (already covered)

operation. The average employment period is 7 hours a day but there are wide variations in the number of days in a year for which work is available for different households. As majority of those employed however get work for 180 days or more in a year.

Essentially, the Anjuman acts as a bridge between the isolated rural households on the one hand and the market, the sources of credit and raw materials on the other.

These centres plan work for the weaving households, provide raw material and designs and inspect and collect woven material when ready and arrange for payment of wages to workers.

Project Name X Shri Vithal Sanyukta Sahakari  
Sheti Society  
(Shri Vithal Joint Co-operative  
Farming)

Address MHAISAL, District Sangli,  
Maharashtra

Contact Person Mr. T.M. Deval

Date of Initiation 1.1.1969

One hundred and forty Harijan families of the village benefit from this project covering about 700 people. These persons are organised into a joint co-operative farming society. The members work on the Joint Cooperative Farm earning Rs.3/- per day which is regular but supplementary income.

Before the formation of the Society a large number of these families were indebted and most of their land was mortgaged to some money lender. After the Cooperative Society was introduced, they regained their land and their debts were liquidated. They also started to send their children to school.

✓ A

Project Name                      Adivasi Development Group  
of Shetkari Shet Majoor  
Panchayat

Address                              Savarsai, Taluka Pen  
District Kolaba  
Maharashtra

Contact Person                      Mukund Kolhatkar

Date of Initiation                      1973

About 300 Adivisai's (Katkari's) are members of the cooperative society which covers the villages of Savarsai, Navarsi & Hemadi, in Taluka Pen. The members work either in their fields or as bricklayers, earning between 4-5 Rs. per day for about 200 days in the year.

The project has been financed by the Bank of India and the Asian Trade Union College. The women have been trained in stitching, home crafts and bricklaying. They are also taught hygiene & cleanliness. After <sup>enlisting themselves in</sup> the Project their <sup>increased</sup> annual income has doubled, and their paddy production <sup>increased</sup> from 1000 to 1500 Kg. per year.

Project Name	Vimla Welfare Centre
Address	Chittoor Road, Cochin 682018 Kerala
Date of Initiation	28.9.1961
Contact Person	Miss. T. George

The Vimla Welfare Centre is a registered Society, a socio-economic unit financed by the (CSWB) Central Social Welfare Board. The financial outlay was 3,500. The centre makes table mats, doormats, coasters, handbags etc. and employ 1000 women from the suburbs & rural areas of Eranakulam.

The reason for starting the unit was to give women of the lower income group better opportunities for economic, social and cultural improvement and to teach them a craft which would enable them to earn wages and thereby supplement the family income. The women get regular employment throughout the year earning between Rs.150-200 per month.

The unit has been running at a profit. In 1975 value of Production was 712542.70 and the value of sales worth 813,670.03.



Goods are sold in the local market at the State the national level and some are even exported.

Project Name	Tiruvilla Sewing Guild
Address	Tholassery Tiruvilla P.O. Kerala
Contact Person	Mrs. I. Kurian Mrs. M.C. Geogre

The Tiruvilla Sewing Guild is a registered society, which was given a grant of 11,000 by the Central Social Welfare Board.

There are about 100 women who do cross stitch embroidery on household <sup>union</sup> ~~union~~. They work for about 3-4 hours daily and earn an income of about Rs.100 per month which supplements the family income.

The unit has been running at a profit, the value of sales exceeding the value of Production every year. In 74-75 the value of production was 50,994 while that the sales was 55,914, yielding a profit margin of 4920.

Project Name	Nirmala Mahila Mandal
Address	Mariapuram, Cuddappah Dist. Andhra Pradesh
Contact Person	Father Alexius
Date of Initiation	2.2.1975

The Nirmala Mahila Mandal is a cooperative venture with 45 women who make candles. Also 18 buffaloes have been distributed to 18 women under the dairy Project which was introduced only in April 77. The women work at the centre and earn between Rs.2-4 per day. This income is supplementary to the household income.

This unit was given a loan of Rs.3,000 by the Industries Department and another 3,000 by the Women's Welfare Department.

For the Dairy Project basic principles of animal husbandary is being organized by the Animal Husbandary Department and Father Alexius.

Though there is scope for improvement this institution is an active one working for the welfare of the Rural Women.

Project Name	Settigunta Wooden Harcombs & Toy workers cooperative Production and sales Industrial Society.
Address	Settigunta, Rajampet Taluk Cuddapah District Andhra Pradesh
Contact Person	Sakshipala Venugopal
Date of Initiation	30.11.1974

This unit is a registered cooperative society under the Industries Department and received loans of Rs.11,000 from them. It is a wooden comb making centre. The raw material - Rairi or Alli wood being available in the local forest.

Although only 11 females are employed in this project the wages are high and they earn between Rs.12/- to Rs.16/- per day.

Project Name	YWCA Handicraft Centre
Address	75, Old Roshampura Najafgarh Delhi
Contact Person	Miss Shanti Daniel
Date of Initiation	1963

The Y.W.C.A. has introduced a women's Industrial Cooperative Society to provide employment and overall development of the women surrounding the Najafgarh area. Beginning with Rs.130 (each member had shares worth Rs.10) the cooperative has at present a turnover of 2 lakhs per annum.

There are 325 women who are employed in making and embroidering attractive reed articles from the locally available grass. The reed articles have typically village motifs embroidered on them, the idea being that it is the women themselves who devise and produce the articles with a little guideline given by the Y.W.C.A. staff. Thus emphasis is laid on local initiative and existing resources.

The Market for these reed article was developed through the Cottage Industries and State Empria at Delhi. <sup>Later</sup> ~~Later~~ OXFAM began to place orders which the Society has complied with.

Project Name	Kottayam Social Service Society Palm Fibre Unit
Address	Parakunnu Vanniyoor P.O. Via Kuzhithurai Kanyakumari Dist. Tamil Nadu
Contact Person	Rev. M.D. Sahayam
Date of Initiation	1964

This is a cooperative non-profit charitable institution, managed by the Kottar social service society. There are 37 women who are employed daily by the Centre in making palmfibre articles and earn about Rs.60 per month- This income is regular, but supplementary to the family income. A compulsory Savings has been started for them, which gives them a security for unforeseen needs and provides for their marriage.

The annual Profit is divided as <sup>follows</sup> follows:

50% bonus to workers

40% to the unit

10% to K.S.S.S.

Project Name	Chalala Pandya Khadi Karyalaya
Address	Chalala Dist. Amreli Gujarat
Contact Person	Nagardas Joshi
Date of Initiation	1938

The Chalala Pandya Khadi Karyala provides employment to about 1000 persons of whom approximately 700 are women. The centre provides a regular income to those sections of the population i.e. Rajputs who are traditionally barred from wage work outside. For the majority spinning is a supplementary income to the household, but the only steady income. The earnings are between Rs.4-5 per day, averaging about Rs.125 per month when 5-6 hours are spent on spinning.

Project Name	Indo Dutch Project for child welfare
Address	6-3-885 Somajuguda Hyderabad, 500004 Andhra Pradesh
Contact Person	H.W. Butt
Date of Initiation	1969

The Founders for the Indo Dutch Project for child welfare are the Netherlands Organisation for Development Cooperation, the Netherlands UNESCO centre and the Netherlands committee for UNICEF.

A large number of women are engaged in the preparation and distribution of Protein Packets consisting of whole wheat, split chick peas, shelled peanuts, jaggery and skimmed milk. In addition the women are engaged in the preparation of unadulterated spices. The members were assured a wage of a Rupee per kg. The earnings which were supplementary to the family income varied from Rs.50-75 per month.

In addition to providing supplementary income to the local women the Indo Dutch Centre has introduced poultry and Dairy units, Primary education and Creches.

X

Name : Kaira District Co-operative Milk Producer's Union Ltd.  
Anand, Gujarat.

The basic approach of the Kaira Milk Union has been to co-operativise dairying in rural areas of the district in such a manner that processing and marketing are collectivised within the framework of a self owned dairy cum animal husbandry organisation. This system of operation emphasises the unity of purpose increasing income from dairying - and equality of the members.

Starting in 1948 with 2 villages co-operatives producing 250 litres of milk a day in March 1975 the figure had risen to 844 milk societies with a membership of 2,43,000 and a share capital of 44,18,000.

Each village in the union has one Co-operative society. Any resident of the village may become a member of the society if he owns a milch buffalo and undertakes to sell milk only to the society. The function of each society are in general to arrange the collection and payment for milk received from its members and to improve and extend dairy operations in the village. However in recent years the dairy co-operative in Kaira has so widened its field of activity that its interests now range from the construction of schools to the development of a water supply system for the village.



The Union also provide free service in setting up artificial insemination centres. Parallel to the Programme of improving stock is the animal health and hygiene programme. Free weekly veterinary services are provided to the cattle which belong to the members.

The Union also manufactures a <sup>balanced</sup>~~balanced~~ feed called Amul Dan, which had proved to be highly nutritious and balanced feed concentrate though considerably cheaper. What is more it is readily available to the dairy farmers in Kaira at regular and stable prices.

The greatest achievement at Kaira is that it is essentially a rural development co-operative, which has successfully used the production, marketing and advertising techniques of big business to make dairy farming a huge import saving industry.

X

Vedchhi Pradesh Seva Samiti

Vedcchi Pradesh Seva Samiti is situated at Valod, one of the 15 Talukas of Surat dist. in Gujarat. It was formed in 1948.

The aim of the Samiti is to improve the economic conditions of the people especially the weaker sections of the population including women by enabling them to supplement their income through agriculture, live stock, crafts, and industries besides providing <sup>ities</sup> ~~opportunities~~ for self employment.

The programmes also work for the development of human resources through education and training and improving <sup>the</sup> ~~way~~ and standard of living through better sanitation, health and nutrition and recreation without adversely effecting the cost of living.

The entire taluka ~~of~~ 40 villages are covered by some programme or the other<sup>s</sup>.

Sahajiw<sup>w</sup>anwadi, Urubi Devachi  
Taluka Naveli Dist. Pune

A

Sahaj<sup>w</sup>anwadi is an agro-industrial cooperative folk school situated at Uruti Devachi in Taluka Maveli of Pune dist.

This is an economic programme intended to <sup>decrease</sup> ~~decrease~~ the pressure on the agricultural land by drawing off surplus agricultural labour and providing a livelihood to take them above the poverty line. The programme aims to give an integrated methodology of work combining training and education.

The villages are given employment cum training through (1) brick building (2) Oil Ghani with 10 grinders (3) Poultry (4) Dairy with cross breed cows.

Bharatiya Grameen Mahila Sangh, Indore M.P. A

The Bharatiya Grameen Mahila Sangh was established in 1961 and its membership has grown from 5-5000 women. The programmes of the Bharatiya Grameen Mahila Sangh include (a) Literacy classes (b) Organisation of Mahila Mandals (c) Balwadis (d) Training centres (e) Running of a destitute children's home and (f) a Bakery unit (g) vocational courses.

The extension programmes of the sangh are spread in 30 in 30 villages and <sup>Cover</sup>~~cover~~ the entire district.

The Pondicherry State Women's Association

A

Pondicherry State Women's Association was started in 1946, in order to provide basic amenities to the women. Handicrafts, and a small socio economic unit of stationary was started to provide employment to women.

Stree Seva Mandir

AA

Stree Seva Mandir is a registered voluntary social service organization with its headquarters at Madras. The organisation was established in 1949.

During its 28 years of hard and dedicated work, thousands of destitute, <sup>disprivileged</sup> ~~disprivileged~~, orphan, economically poor and socially backward women and children receive a new basis and meaning for their live.

The institution aims at total rehabilitation

- i) Institutional care - Food and shelter programmes  
250 in males.
- ii) Education - Formal schools- 2400 pupils. Non formal courses. 100 adults.
- iii) Vocations training - Schools - 450 trainees non formal courses. 250 women.
- iv) Employment - Production cum training units - 125 women.
- v) Community welfare.

Kailas Trust

Village Ellora  
District Aurangabad  
Maharashtra

4A

The objectives of Kailash Trust are to

- (1) Improve health
- (2) teach young villagers and women productive skills and create employment for generation of wealth
- (3) improve village life through hygiene sanitation, preventive measures and medical facilities

† To fulfill these objectives

They have started a training cum production unit to manufacture surgical gloves and rubber bands. A dispensary of mobile went with a ambulance and a 6 bed hospital run by trained and competent staff looks after the curative needs of the village population. In addition families in villages are reached through Mahila Mandals. Through these women are taught about nutrition, child care and also about the importance of developing kitchen <sup>gardens</sup> ~~gardens~~, poultry and dairy.

Self Employed Womens Association

C/o Textile Labour Association

Bhadra

Ahmedabad

AA

Contact Person : Mrs. Ela R. Bhatt.

The Self Employed Women's Association (SEWA) is a trade union of poor, self employed working women in Gujarat. It was pioneered to associate and organise illiterate self employed women who engage in petty trades to earn a living. These women are junksmiths, garment workers, old cloth dealers, milk maids and others. SEWA has endeavoured to give them strength, opportunity dignity and hope.

SEWA which was established in 1972 and by 1974 had a membership of 6,667. Today (1977) there are about 10,667 working women who are its members. Each of them pays a subscription of Rs. 3 to make SEWA the only union of its kind in the country, self sufficient.

Not only does SEWA organise the self employed women into an union, it protects its members from the exploitation of private moneylenders and other big traders. SEWA <sup>approached</sup> ~~went to~~ the nationalised banks to solve this problem. By the end of 1976/<sup>the</sup> banks had extended credit amounting to Rs. 30 lakhs to 8,000 women members of the union.



In 1974 SEWA also started its own bank (Shree Mahila Sewa Sahakari Bank) with a share capital of Rs 60,000. Today there are about 10,000 working women who have accounts in the banks whose working capital has gone upto 7.19 lakhs.

SEWA also evolved its own social security scheme for its members. It found that the death rate of the Self Employed was higher than that of Industrial Workers. This led to the launching of Schemes like the Maternity Benefit a Death Benefit Programmes followed by the benefit scheme for women.

List of Voluntary Organisation in Rural development

Reference "Profiles of the participating organisations"

Seminar on Voluntary efforts for Rural Development August 12-13  
1977.

Gandhi Peace Foundation 223 Deen Dayal Upadhaya Marg, New Delhi.

List of ongoing projects represented at the workshop for social ~~re~~ mobilizers held at the Gandhi Peace Foundation, 223, Deen Dayal Upadhaya Marg, New Delhi.