GENDER BUDGETING IN INDIA

ASHOK K LAHIRI LEKHA S CHAKRABORTY P N BHATTACHARYYA

in association with

HIRANYA MUKHOPADHYAY ANURADHA BHASIN

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Chapter 1 Introduction

Prima facie, budget appears to be gender-neutral. Public expenditure and revenue are not intrinsically gendered. But, gender neutrality should not allow the budgetary policies to ignore gender specific needs. Budgetary policies can have differential impacts on men and women because of the systemic differences between the sexes in relation to the economy. A gender-sensitive budget aims at examining budgetary resource allocations through a gender lens. It is not a separate budget for women; rather it is a dissection of the government budget to establish its gender-specific impact and to translate gender commitments into budgetary commitments. It also examines the gendered incidence of budgetary policies for effective targeting of public spending and offsetting any undesirable gender-specific consequences of previous budgetary measures¹.

Gender budgeting stress *reprioritization* rather than an increase in overall public expenditure and in particular, the *reorientation* of programmes within sectors rather than changes in the overall amounts allocated to particular sectors². Moreover, one of the key thrusts of a gender-sensitive budget is to ensure a greater visibility of the *care economy*³ in fiscal policy measures and its inclusion in a system of satellite accounts into the National Accounts System. In other words, gender budgeting manifests a conspicuous gender lens to budgetary resource allocation; with a greater visibility of women's unpaid work and its inclusion in a system of satellite accounts System.

1.1 Rationale for Gender Budgeting

Existing gender-neutrality of macroindicators ignores the feedback mechanism between gender-relations and macrocconomic policy. The assumption of labour force exogeneity in the treatment of the care economy in the prevalent macrocconomic policy making is dubious. Integrating gender perspective into macrocconomic policy has dual dimensions: an equality dimension and an efficiency dimension. In the context of growing recognition that problems of inequality can not be resolved by the *trickle down effects* of macrocconomic policies, the concerns of gender-inequality needs to be built in to the macrocconomic policy framework. Apart from the basic principle of promoting equality among citizens, gender equality can benefit the economy through efficiency gains. From the *efficiency* consideration, what is important is the social rate of return of investment in women, and in cases, this can be greater than the corresponding rate for men. There is a growing awareness that *gender inequality is inefficient* and costly to development. Empirical literature draws attention to these efficiency dimensions of integrating gender perspective into macrocconomic policies (Box 1). For example, the striking *good mother thesis* noted that women tend to have a higher marginal propensity

¹ Elson (1999)

² Esim (2000)

³ The care economy represents domestic (reproductive) work together with voluntary community work.

to spend than men on goods that enhance the capabilities of children⁴. These empirical evidences suggested that the likelihood of children being enrolled in school goes up with their mother's educational level, and mother's extra income has more positive impact on household investments in nutrition, health and education of children than extra income accruing to fathers. Also, literature on gender inequality in labour markets shows that eliminating gender discrimination in occupation and wages could increase not only women's income, but also national income.

Men and women frequently have different priorities for budgetary policies and are affected differently by most of these policies due to the gender differentials in the constraints, options, incentives and needs. Men and women face different constraints, assume different socially determined responsibilities and consequently make different social preferences. Legacies of adverse intra-household gender relations inhibit women from playing their rightful role, contributing to the economy, and getting their due share of the economic benefits in many countries, particularly developing ones. Women therefore are affected by and respond to the budgetary policies differently from men. Disaggregation by gender is vital because there are systemic differences between men and women in relation to the economy⁵.

The existing gender-neutral budgets ignore the gender specific impacts of budgetary policies. Generally, budgeting involves four components: (i) the budgetary allocation of resources to various heads, (ii) the actual Government outlays on various heads, (iii) an accounting of how resources are utilised for a particular purpose (e.g. on administrative overheads and wages and salaries, operation and maintenance, etc.), and (iv) an evaluation of the effectiveness of the resources utilised in delivering the intended results. Gender budgeting involves looking at all the four components from the point of view of women as beneficiaries. While many public goods and services like defense are not amenable to gender partitioning, many others have differential impact on the two sexes. For example, outlays for augmenting the supply of safe drinking water can benefit women more than men by cutting down on the time spent in fetching water from the river or ponds. The existing practice of budgeting does not pay any special attention to the impact of budgets on women.

⁴ Çağatay (1998)

⁵ For detailed discussion, see Himmelweit (1998)

Box 1 Gender Inequality as an Efficiency Issue: Empirical Evidences

- Research on agricultural productivity in Africa shows that reducing gender inequality could significantly increase agricultural yields. For instance, Saito and Spurling (1992) have shown that giving women and men farmers in Kenya the same level of agricultural inputs and education could increase yields from women farmers by more than 20 per cent.
- Failing to invest in education lowers GNP. Hill and King (1995) noted that everything else being equal, countries in which the ratio of female-to-male enrolment in primary and secondary education is less than 0.75 can expect levels of GNP that are roughly 25 per cent lower than countries in which there is less gender disparity in education.
- Eliminating gender discrimination in occupation and pay could increase not only women's income, but also national income. For instance, Tzannatos (1991) noted that if such gender discrimination in Latin America were to be eliminated, not only could women's wages rise by about 50 per cent. but national output could rise by 5 per cent.
- Gender inequality reduces the productivity of the next generation. A World Bank study (1995) reported that increases in women's well being yields productivity gains in the future. The study noted that the probability of children being enrolled in school increases with their mother's educational level and the extra income to mothers has more positive impact on household investment in nutrition, health and education of children than extra income to fathers.
- Gender inequality hampers a positive supply response to Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP). Gender inequality can constrain supply responses if women have many other demands on their time such as producing food, fetching water and fuel and caring for children: these constraints will be intensified directly if macroeconomic policy reduces provision of social and infrastructural services and therefore increases time burdens. Palmer (1995) noted that cutbacks in public expenditure in social infrastructure worsens the status of women.

Source: Elson (1999).

1.2 Global Perspective on Gender Budgeting

The last two decades of twentieth century witnessed a tremendous metamorphosis at the theoretical and empirical level regarding the economic invisibility of womens' work (Box 2). Worldwide there is a growing recognition of the need for a fundamental rethinking of macropolicy framework from a gender perspective. United Nations Conferences of 1990s have affirmed a global consensus on the need of a new approach to macropolicy in *Sustainable Human Development* paradigm, which takes gender equality along with poverty eradication, environmental regeneration, sustainable livelihoods and employment creation and democratic governance as its corner stones. A logical entry point to such *people-mattered* macrocconomic policy framework can be 'gender-aware, pro-poor and environment-sensitive' budgets⁶. The United Nations Fourth World Conference on Women, generally referred to as the Beijing Conference (1995) and the subsequent Beijing Platform for Action contributed to the emergence of an international

⁶Çağatay, Keklik, Lal and Lang (2000).

consensus in integrating a gender perspective in all policies and their budgetary dimensions.

Australia was the first country to develop a gender-sensitive budget. A comprehensive assessment of gender differential impacts of the Federal Budget has been undertaken in Australia since 1984. The form in which gender budgeting took place in Australia established a model whereby each government agency was required to provide a *gender audit* (an audit of the annual Federal Budget of the government's achievements in relation to women and girls). It was strongly emphasized to Departments that a comprehensive gender analysis of mainstream public expenditure were relevant and not just those expenditures directly allotted to women and girls. It was found that expenditures specifically targeted to women and girls in Australia made up only less than 1 per cent of the total budget⁷.

The gender-sensitive budget in South Africa, which was initiated in 1995, was a joint effort of parliamentarians and non-governmental organisations. This parliamentary-NGO initiative has undertaken a detailed gender-sensitive analysis of expenditure portfolios like education, health, welfare, housing, labour, trade and industry, land affairs, agriculture, safety and security, transport, energy, foreign affairs as well as the cross-sectoral areas of public sector employment and taxation⁸. Later, during 1997, there began a parallel initiative within the Department of Finance, as a pilot for the Commonwealth initiative to integrate gender perspective into macroeconomic policy. In 1998 *Budget Review* (the document tabled along with the Budget), there were a number of sections that discussed gender issues in the various Departments, which was a big step forward as the *Review* had never previously mentioned women or gender in South Africa⁹.

Box 2 New Household Economics

The dynamic interaction between the 'invisible segment' of the economy, viz., the household production of non-marketed goods and services, and that of market economy marked the microfoundations of gendering the macroeconomic policies. This dynamics captures the intra-household intensity and allocation of time between the two sets of economic activity. The New Household Economics applies market-oriented criteria to intra-household gender asymmetries in the time allocation and choices regarding labour force participation in domestic unpaid work. The dominance of this rational choice models continued around Gary Beckers' economics of family, but the critique of neoclassical writings grew louder in the eighties sprouting from the negative consequences of gender-dimensions visualised in these writings; the most prominent being Amartya Sen's bargaining model whose notions of cooperative conflicts captured the intrahousehold dynamics in a more realistic manner and it is a step ahead from the harmonious rational choice models.

Source: Beneria (1995).

⁷ Bundlender and Sharp (1998)

⁸ This outside government women's budget initiative produced a three-book series, viz., The Women's Budget (1996), The Second Women's Budget (1997) and The Third Women's Budget (1998), edited by Debbie Bundlender and published by Institute for Democracy in South Africa (IDASA).

⁹ Gita Honwana Welch (1998)

The Commonwealth initiative to integrate gender into national budgetary processes has been initiated on a test basis in four more countries other than South Africa such as Fiji, St Kitts and Nevis, Barbados and Sri Lanka. Sri Lanka joined the Commonwealth countries' pilot project in 1997. The initial gender-sensitive budget exercise in Sri Lanka was coordinated by the Department of National Planning. It focussed on the portfolios of health, education, public sector employment, agriculture. industry and social services. The first stage of the pilot was complete with the establishment of a gender conscious planning mechanism in the allocation of resources coupled with greater capacity for sex-segregated data collation, and a special reference in the Budget Speech for 1999 of women's contribution to the economy, viz., in the sectors of agriculture, manufacturing and industry, and foreign remittances. Private remittances. of which about 75 per cent came from women working abroad, financed around 15 per cent of imports in 1997, while women in plantations and in the free trade zones together contributed 53 per cent to exports in 1997¹⁰. An inter-ministerial committee, comprising of representatives of the Ministries of Education, Health, Social Services, Industries, Agriculture, Ministry of Women Affairs and the Department of Census and Statistics was set up to assess the progress and performance of the gender budgeting project in Sri Lanka. The survey-based report found that there was equality of access and usage in mainstream public expenditure; 48 per cent of recurrent expenditure in the education sector, 56 per cent in the health sector and 57 per cent in the social services sector benefited females. The report stressed that there is no need for an increase in funding for women, what was needed was an evaluation and redesign of the existing programmes, and devising appropriate benefit impact monitoring systems that would be sensitive to gender imbalances. Two workshops were conducted in order to present the findings of the studies to a wider audience, including donors and academicians.

Canada, UK, Mozambique, Namibia, Tanzania and Uganda are the other nations in the process of gendering the national budget. In Canada, members of *Centre for Policy Alternatives*, a social justice research group, have developed a gender-sensitive budget as part of the Centre's annual Alternative Federal Budget¹¹. Though there is no formal guidelines regarding gender budgeting, Human Resource Development Canada (HRDC) is committed to implementing a gender-based analysis as a part of the policy and programme development process in Canada. Following its international commitment to the Platform for Action initiative, the Government of Canada adopted the *Federal Plan for Gender Equality (1995-2000)*. The plan was prepared through the collaboration of 24 Departments and agencies, led by 'Status of Women Canada' (SWC). The first of the *Federal Plan's* eight objectives made a commitment to government-wide implementation of gender-based analysis (GBA) in the development of policies, programmes and legislation¹². GBA is about collecting reliable gender-disaggregated information about the policy area of concern, and understanding the gender trends in the economy that might have an impact on a proposed policy, programme or piece of legislation¹³.

¹⁰ Department of National Planning & Ministry of Finance and Planning, Sri Lanka (2000)

¹¹ Bundlender and Sharp (1998)

¹² For details, see "Gender-based Analysis Directorate" in <u>www.swc-cfc.gc.ca/gba-acs</u>

¹³ Human Resource Development Canada (1997)

In UK, *Women's Budget Group*, an NGO consisting of researchers and activists. is in the forefront of putting gender-sensitive budget analysis on the policy agenda. Their core recommendations to the UK Government is the inclusion of a comparative 'gender impact statement' published with every Budget and Public Expenditure White Paper. In Mozambique, the Ministry of Planning and Finance has initiated a gender-sensitive budget exercise, with financial assistance from the Swiss Development Corporation. In Namibia, the staff of Ministry of Finance worked with consultants from the Swedish International Development Agency (SIDA) and produced an analysis of selected portfolios for the 1998 National Budget. In Tanzania, the Ministry of Finance and the Planning Commission, with assistance from SIDA and the NGO, *Tanzania Gender Networking Program*, has parallely undertaken gender-sensitive budget exercises. In Uganda, the strong parliamentary *Women's Caucus* and the affiliated NGO *Forum for Women in Democracy* have taken the lead in initiating a gender budget exercise, initially focussing on selected portfolios¹⁴.

In India, a special reference in the Budget Speech for 2000-01 pertaining to the access of women to national resources marks the dawn of gender-sensitive budgeting. Subsequently, Economic Survey (2000-2001) contained an entire section on 'gender inequality' for the first time. India's commitment to gender equality makes the case for gender budgeting a compelling one. India became a signatory of the Convention for the Elimination of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) on July 30, 1980. CEDAW, adopted by the United Nations General Assembly on December 18, 1979, is comparable to an international bill of rights for women. India ratified the convention on July 9, 1993, subject to some reservations, including its right to implement articles in conformity with its policy of non-interference in the personal affairs of any community without its initiative and consent. Removal of inequalities in the opportunities and predicaments of identified groups of the population has been an important objective in the Indian Republic over the last fifty years.

Gender equality is recognised as a part of the fundamental human rights enshrined in the Indian Constitution. Articles 14, 15, 16, 39, 42 and 51 of the Constitution are relevant in this context. On February 19, 1999, the National Development Council, one of the highest policy making bodies in the country, adopted the empowerment of women and socially disadvantaged groups as agents of socio-economic change and development as a specific objective of the Ninth Plan (1997-2002). One of the strategies adopted for achieving this objective was to identify a "Women's component plan" to ensure that not less than 30 per cent of funds and benefits flow to women from developmental sectors. In October 1996, the Planning Commission specifically directed Central Ministries and Departments, and the States to identify a "women's component" in the various schemes and programmes with which they are concerned to facilitate achieving the objective of empowering women during the Ninth Plan.

¹⁴ The cross-country experiences on gender budgeting are mainly compiled from *Bundlender and Sharp* (1998).

Apart from the *Women's Component Plan*, which covers only the plan expenditure of the Government, and relates to women, the concept of *Gender Budgeting* has gathered momentum for analyzing the whole budgetary process through a gender lens. The Department of Women and Child Development, Ministry of Human Resource Development, Government of India in collaboration with United Nations Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM) has taken the initiative of Gender Budgeting in India and a study was entrusted to the National Institute of Public Finance and Policy (NIPFP). An entire section on 'gender inequality', which contained in the Economic Survey, 2000-2001 was based on the Interim Report on Gender Budgeting done by NIPFP. This report *constitutes* the final report of NIPFP assignment.

A consensus was arrived at the UN Regional Conference on Gender Budgeting, 2001 in deepening the process of Gender Budgeting in India to the State level and also in extending the gender budgeting initiative to other countries in South Asia.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

The study aims at the diagnosis of existing degree of gender-inequality in India through the gender-segregation of the relevant macrodata; valuation of the existing non-National Accounts System (NAS) unpaid work of women and prescribe policy suggestions to build-in a gender-sensitive national budgeting process.

The study focuses on three major issues:

i. Providing some broad parameters to identify the status of women in the Indian economy. Wherever possible, the study collates sex-disaggregated data on (a) education statistics, such as literacy rate and gross enrolment ratio (b) labour force participation rates, (c) poverty, and (d) health statistics such as life expectancy, nutrition, morbidity and infant mortality. In the process, the study also carries out some cross-country comparisons.

ii. *Quantification of the contribution of women to the Indian economy*. According to one global estimate, the 'invisible work' done by women - in homes and in maintaining labour force and keeping the social framework in good order - is worth \$ 11 trillion (UNDP, 1995). The study attempts to collate the available estimates for India and to develop a framework by which womens' unpaid work can be taken into account in a system of satellite accounts to the NAS.

iii. *Measuring government expenditure on women*. How resource allocation of different ministries affects men and women differently will be the primary focus. For women, some public services are more important than others. For example, education, health, especially maternity care and child welfare, water supply and forestry (through fuel wood supply) have a direct bearing on women's welfare. Simultaneously, the study looks at the direct tax treatment of women.

1.4 Data

Gender budgeting involves a three-fold procedure: collation of gender-segregated data; the promotion of an institutional stake for establishing a mechanism for policy dialogues for the Gender Budget Initiative; and the application of gender-sensitive technical tools. Broad gender-sensitive indicators across countries is compiled from the United Nations Women's Indicators and Statistics (WISTAT) database reported in United Nations Statistical Division (2001) *The World's Women 2000: Trends and Statistics*; World Development Indicators and other databases of the World Bank and UNDP Reports. The gender-disaggregated data at the national level is heavily drawn from Census, *Sample Registration System* of Registrar General of India, National Sample Survey, National Family Health Survey rounds and *Time Use Survey* of Central Statistical Organization. The budgetary figures are drawn from Central Government Budget documents. As this gender budgeting is the first exercise of its kind in India, generation of gender-disaggregated data from the existing budgetary statistics and national accounts itself posed a considerable challenge.

1.5 Analytical Framework

Sharp (1998), an Australian economist provides an analytical framework for the analysis of gender budgets at the federal and state levels. In Sharp's framework, each Department's allocations can be broken up into three categories of expenditure: (i) expenditure specifically targeted for women, (ii) expenditure for equal employment opportunities within the public sector, and (iii) mainstream budget expenditure. The three categories add up to 100 per cent of budget. The mainstream budgetary expenditures have to be assessed for their gendered impacts. The strong assumption beneath this analytical framework is that all public expenditure, if not proved otherwise, has gendered impacts. It is criticised on the ground that certain public expenditure cannot be gender partitioned as they are non-rival in their consumption.

The analytical framework followed in this study is slightly different from Sharp's framework that was followed in the Australian and South African gender budgets. We catagorised public expenditure into three groups:

- (i) specifically targeted expenditure for women,
- (ii) public expenditure with pro-women allocations, and
 - (iii) mainstream expenditure assessed for gendered impacts.

The first and third categories of expenditure broadly conform to Sharp's framework. But the difference arises in the second category. This second category is of great importance in India due to a significant women component in certain composite schemes, and a significant deviation between the budget estimates and actuals.

The study intends to utilise the *gender-disaggregated public expenditure benefitincidence analysis* to analyse the third category of mainstream expenditure¹⁵. For any public service, what is needed is data on the utilisation of services by gender, that is the number of units or amount of a particular service utilised by men/boys and women/girls. First, the unit cost of providing a particular service — for example, the cost of providing primary schooling to a child, or of running a hospital bed with all the attendant facilities — has to be assessed. Then, gender-disaggregated benefit-incidence can be calculated as the product of the unit cost of providing a particular service and the number of units utilised by the two sexes. In certain cases, the calculation can be simplified by just multiplying the total public spending on a service by the ratio of women users to total users.

1.6 Structure of Report

The Report is organized as follows. Chapter 2 looks into a gender diagnosis of access to resources, while chapter 3 discusses women's contribution to the economy. Chapter 4 provides some empirical evidence of the link between fiscal policy and gender development in a simple econometric framework. Chapter 5 analyses the impact of budgets on women and chapter 6 concludes.

¹⁵ Elson (1999) has suggested seven tools which can be utilized for the gender-sensitive analysis of budgets, viz., gender-aware policy appraisal; gender-disaggregated beneficiary assessments; gender-disaggregated public expenditure incidence analysis; gender-disaggregated tax incidence analysis; gender-disaggregated analysis of the impact of the budget on time-use; gender-aware medium term economic policy framework, and gender-aware budget statement.

Chapter 2 Gender Diagnosis in India

In the backdrop of Women's Empowerment Year 2001, this chapter aims at the analysis through the gender lens of various indicators, including access to resources, such as education and health, and participation in economic activity. The objective is to determine the specific nature of the gender situation in the country to design appropriate remedial interventions. Gender inequalities in access to education, health care and nutrition can lead to *capability deprivation* and adversely affect productivity, efficiency and economic growth. The latest data from Census 2001 indicate that the relative deprivation of women continues to be significantly high in India.

2.1 Health Profile

Females have an evident biological advantage of survival over males. Despite this biological advantage, the sex ratio is generally adverse to women in India. The problem of "missing women" is primarily the consequence of high levels of female mortality, which begins *at birth, after birth or even before birth*. The decennial censuses conducted in India suggest that there has been an almost monotonic decline in the sex ratio in India. In 1901, the sex ratio was 972 females for every 1000 males; by 1991 it had reached the lowest point at 927. In Census 2001, the sex ratio increased by six points to 933. The technological advancement of prenatal screening methods such as ultra-sonography or amniocentesis appears to have contributed to the decline in sex ratio.



Chart 1: Sex Ratio in India

Statewise decomposition of the sex ratio over the period 1901-2001 reveals mixed trends of social, cultural, economic and political influence on the relative magnitude of

Source: Census of India, 2001

excess female mortality across the country. In 2001, only Kerala and Pondicherry had sex ratios of 1058 and 1001, respectively. The other States and Union Territories (UTs), where the sex ratio was above 950, are Andhra Pradesh (978) Chattisgarh (990), Goa (960), Himachal Pradesh (970), Karnataka (964), Manipur (978), Meghalaya (975), Orissa (972), Tamil Nadu (986) and Uttaranchal (964). The north Indian belt of Delhi (821), Haryana (861), Punjab (874), Uttar Pradesh (898), along with Andaman and Nicobar Islands (846), Dadra and Nagar Haveli (811), and Sikkim (875), account for a large part of the alarmingly low sex ratio in India (*Appendix 1*).

Although the overall sex ratio improved in Census 2001 compared to that of 1991. the child sex ratio (sex ratio in age group 0-6 years) declined to 927 in 2001 relative to 945 in 1991 (Table 1). Declining sex ratio in the age group of 0-6 years has become a matter of serious concern. It is alarming to note that the number of States/UTs with sex ratio below 900 has doubled over the last one decade, from three (Punjab, Haryana and Chandigarh) in 1991 to six (Delhi, Himachal Pradesh and Gujarat in addition to the earlier three) in 2001. It is to be noted that in Punjab, where the problem of "missing girl child" is acute, the child sex ratio in 2001 was only 793, a decline from 875 in 1991. Though Kerala's sex ratio is favourable to women at 1058, the sex ratio of 0-6 years is only 963. Kerala is the only State in which the sex ratio has always been above 1000 and it is the State with the highest sex ratio in India. The overall sex ratio in Kerala has increased from 1004 in 1901 to 1058 in 2001, except for a slight dip in the years 1961 (1022) and 1971 (1016). Though large out-migration of males contribute to the favourable sex ratio in Kerala has been an advanced State in terms of the problem of missing women. The adverse child sex ratio in Kerala is a source of concern.

able 1: Sex ratio	(ICIII)	ales per	rooo ma		
States/UTs	1991	2001	States/UTs	1991	2001
Punjab	875	793	Pondicherry	963	958
Haryana	879	820	Arunachal Pradesh	982	961
Chandigargh	899	845	Manipur	974	961
Delhi	915	865	Kerala	958	963
Gujarat	928	878	West Bengal	967	963
Himachal Pradesh	951	897	Andhra Pradesh	975	964
Uttaranchal	948	906	Assam	975	964
Rajasthan	916	909	Andaman & Nicobar.	973	965
Uttar Pradesh	927	916	Jharkhand	979	966
Maharashtra	946	917	Mizoram	969	971
Daman & Diu	958	925	Dadra & Nagar Haveli	1013	973
Madhya Pradesh	941	929	Lakshadweep	941	974
Goa	964	933	Chhatisgarh	984	975
Ja mmu & Kashmir	NA	937	Mcghalaya	986	975
Bihar	953	938	Nagaland	993	975
Tamil Nadu	948	939	Tripura	967	975
Karnataka	960	949	Sikkim	965	986
Orissa	967	950	INDIA	945	927

Table 1. Say ratio (0.6) in India

(females per 1000 male)

Source: Census, 2001

The adverse child sex ratio is quite pronounced in the following districts of the country according to Census, 1991: Salem (849) in Tamil Nadu; Bhind (850) and Jaisalmer (851) in Rajasthan; Amritsar (861), Faridkot (863) and Bhatinda (865) in Punjab; Kathel (854), Jind (858), Kurukshetra (867) and Hissar (867) in Haryana. Athreya and Chukanth (2000) had noted that the practice of female infanticide is widespread in a contiguous belt of districts in Tamil Nadu running from Usilampatti in Madurai to Salem and Dharmapuri. Data on female infant deaths due to 'social cause', an euphemism for female infanticide from Primary Health Centre (PHC) records, showed that, on an average, around 3000 cases of female infanticide occur in a year in Tamil Nadu. This amounts to around one-sixth to one-fifth of all female infant's death in the State. Of these, Dharmapuri and Salem account for 1000 to 1200 each.

World wide, women tend to live longer than men. In countries like Norway and Australia, the average female tends to outlive men by more than five years, while in medium and low human development countries, the difference in life expectancy at birth across gender is about two to three years on average. In Sri Lanka, a medium human development country, however, women tend to outlive men by six years. Neutralisation of the natural biological advantage of women by gender discrimination results in the difference in life expectancy at birth across gender to be as low as around one year in countries like India, Nepal, Bangladesh and Niger and only a few months in Pakistan (Table 2). However, life expectancy has increased for both men and women in India over the years, with a reversal in trend and an increasing difference between female and male life expectancy since 1981 (Chart 2). Since 1981, the female life expectancy at birth has

marginally surpassed that of males in India and the gender gap of 0.3 years in the eighties has increased to 1.4 years by the mid-nineties.

Country	Life expect birth ¹	ancy at	Maternal Mortality Rate ²	Child mortality rat [CMR] ³	
	female	male		female	male
Norway	81.3	75.4	6	-	-
Australia	81.7	76.0	-	-	-
Sri Lanka	75.0	69.3	60	9	10
China	72.5	68.3	55	11	10
Indonesia	67.7	63.9	450	20	19
India ^a	61.8	60.4	540	36.7	24.9
Pakistan	59.5	59.8	-	37	22
Nepal	57.8	58.3	540	-	-
Bangladesh	59.0	58.9	440	47	37
Mozambique	40.8	38.8	-	82	84
Ethiopia	44.9	43.3	-	-	-
Niger	45.1	44.5	590	202	184

Table 2. Global Comparison of Selected Health Indicators for Females

Relates to 1999. Source <u>Human Development Report</u>, 2001.

² Per 100,000 live births. Relates to 1980-1999. Source: <u>Human Development Report, 2001</u>.
 ³ Relates to 1988-1999. Probability of dying between the ages of one and five, per 1000.

Source: World Development Indicators, 2001, World Bank.

^a Source: National Family Health Survey (2000), India and SRS Estimates, Registrar General of India.



Chart 2: Trends in Life Expectancy at Birth in India

Source: SRS Estimates, Registrar General of India

Female disadvantage in mortality is most pronounced in the reproductive years of life, with maternal mortality continuing as an important cause of death for women. There are striking differences in lifetime risk of maternal mortality between high human development countries and low/medium human development countries. In Norway, maternal mortality rate is as low as six per 1000 live births, compared to 400-500 per 1000 live births in India, Nepal, Bangladesh and Indonesia, and above 500 per 1000 live births in Niger (Table 2). According to National Family Health Survey (NFHS) second round of India, 2000, the average maternal mortality rate was 540 deaths per one lakh live births in 1997-98 as against the rate of 424 in NFHS first round conducted in 1991-92. This deterioration is mainly due to the lack of timely health care for pregnant and post-partum women. The differentials are wider for urban and rural maternal mortality rates. The rural maternal mortality rate is much higher than the urban rate (434 compared with 385 in NFHS-1 and 619 compared with 267 in NFHS-2).

The key indicators for tracking the increasing maternal mortality rates in India are low proportions of births attended by medical professionals and inadequate antenatal care. According to the data of the second round of NFHS, only 33.6 per cent of births are delivered in a medical institution. Apart from institutional deliveries, less than a half (42.3 per cent) of the deliveries in India are assisted by a health professional. The institutional delivery ranges from 94 per cent in Kerala and 90.8 in Goa to a low of only 12-16 per cent in Nagaland (12.1), Bihar (14.6) and Uttar Pradesh (15.5). NFHS-2 data showed that only 20 per cent of pregnant women in India received antenatal care, with the benefit of antenatal care varying from 65 per cent in Kerala and 61 per cent in Goa to a low of only 4 per cent in Uttar Pradesh. Infections, haemorrhage, hypertensive disorders, continuous abortions and anaemia are the prime reasons behind maternal deaths in India. A great proportion of maternal mortality can be prevented with better access to medical care. Better maternal health care requires neither advanced medical technology nor expensive drugs, but more trained professionals to attend births and better antenatal care including immunization programmes for expectant mothers.

Child mortality rate captures the effect of nutritional disadvantage and lack of proper access to medical care. Despite the natural biological advantage of females, the female child mortality rates over the corresponding male rates indicates discrimination against girl children in medical care and nutrition. Except Sri Lanka, all other countries in Table 2 have higher child mortality rates for females than males, with the difference at about 12 to 18 points in countries like India, Pakistan and Niger.

Reflecting the nutritional neglect and lack of proper medical care to girl children in India, there is a distinct reversal of gender differentials in mortality with increasing age (Table 3). There is a remote possibility that recorded childbirths include hidden female infanticide. Dreze and Sen (1997) noted that the anthropological evidence suggests that female infanticide, when it does occur, take place very soon after the birth. But the figures depicted that bulk of excess female child mortality did not occur in the neonatal stage. The reasons beneath female child mortality may be far beyond female infanticide: and may lie in the practice of preferential treatment for boys and neglect of female children in the intra-household allocation¹⁶. It is noted from Table 3 that neonatal mortality is slightly higher for male (50.7) than female (44.6) children, while the postnatal mortality is higher for female (26.6) than male (24.2). The adverse trend deepens with increase in age. Under five mortality rate is as high as 105.2 per thousand for females compared to 97.9 per thousand for males, reflecting inadequate medical care and nutritional disadvantage for a girl child as she grows.

The nutritional status of children under three years calculated on the basis of anthropometric data by NFHS-2 revealed that around half the children under three are underweight, with 45.3 per cent male and 48.9 per cent female children disadvantaged nutritionally. The Survey further noted that the median duration of breast-feeding is two months shorter for girls than for boys (Table 4). Gender biases in feeding practices results in chronic under-nutrition and micronutrient deficiencies in the average girl child. In South Asia, there are evidences of inequitable feeding practices for boys and girls from infancy, limiting the capacity of a girl child to grow to a healthy adulthood.

Mortality rate	male	female
Neonatal Mortality Rate ¹	50.7	44.6
Postnatal Mortality Rate ²	24.2	26.6
Infant Mortality Rate ³	74.8	71.1
Child Mortality Rate ⁴	24.9	36.7
Under-five mortality Rate ⁵	97.9	105.2
URBAN		
Neonatal Mortality Rate	37.8	28.8
Postnatal Mortality Rate	16.0	15.5
Infant Mortality Rate	53.8	44.3
Child Mortality Rate	14.6	19.7
Under-five mortality Rate	67.6	63.1
RURAL		
Neonatal Mortality Rate	54.3	49.0
Postnatal Mortality Rate	26.4	29.7
Infant Mortality Rate	80.7	78.6
Child Mortality Rate	27.9	41.7
Under-five mortality Rate	106.4	117

 Table 3: Mortality rates among children: Gender Differentials

Note: ¹Children (boy/girl) per 1000 livebirths dying in the first month of life.

 2 Children (boy/girl) per 1000 livebirths dying after the first month of life but before the first birthday.

³ Children (boy/girl) per 1000 livebirths dying before first birthday

⁴ Children (boy/girl) per 1000 livebirths dying between the first and fifth birthdays.

⁵ Children (boy/girl) per 1000 livebirths dying before the fifth birthday.

Source: National Family Health Survey-2, 2000, India

¹⁶ Dreze and Sen (1997)

Nutritional Status	Male	Female	Total
a. Undernourished]		
i. Underweight (weight-for-age)	45.3	48.9	47.0
ii. Stunted (height-for-age)	44.1	47.0	45.5
iii. Wasted (weight-for-age)	15.7	15.2	15.5
b. Severely Undernourished			
i. Underweight (weight-for-age)	16.9	19.1	18.0
Ii. Stunted (height-for-age)	21.8	24.4	23.0
Iii. Wasted (weight-for-age)	2.9	2.7	2.8
Median Duration of Breast Feeding	26.4	24.6	25.4
(in months)			

Table 4: Nutritional Status: Gender Disaggregation¹

Note: ¹Percentage of children under 3 years classified as undernourished on three anthropometric indices of nutritional status, according to selected demographic characteristics, India, 1998-99.

Source: National Family Health Survey-2, 2000, India.

Going beyond the national average of infant mortality rate of girls at 68.0 per 1000 live births and boys at 69.8, the available data indicates enormous difference between States¹⁷. Infant mortality rate in Kerala is as low as 15.3 for girls and 13.7 for boys. In urban areas of Kerala, the infant mortality rate of female (14.9) is less than that of male (18.0). The experience of Kerala highlights that a poor income State, with appropriate policies and co-existence of private and public sector institutions in health care sector can ensure a better health status of the population. Conversely, the states of Orissa (IMR of 97.3 for males and 96.0 for females), Madhya Pradesh (89.6 for males and 89.5 for females) and Uttar Pradesh (85.2 for males and 83.5 for females) were the highest three States in infant mortality rates.

The rural-urban break up of IMR figures reveal an entirely different scenario. The gender gap in IMR unfavourable to girls ranges from 28.4 and 29.3 in urban Jharkhand and rural Haryana to 16.1 and 18.4 in urban Manipur and rural Punjab. The high infant mortality rates of boys in rural Orissa (101.2), rural Chattisgarh (116.5) and the significant gender gap unfavourable to the boychild in urban Uttaranchal (53.6), urban Uttar Pradesh (30.5), urban Rajasthan (33.0), urban Punjab (40.3) are also a matter of equally grave concern. IMR does not reflect the incidence of female focticides and the fullest extent of protein energy malnutrition (PEM) across gender. Furthermore, female babies have the natural biological edge of survival than male babies. Thus it is hard to decipher the extent of gender discrimination from IMR alone. However, the sequence of deprivation in health and nutrition iterate itself when malnourished and chronically anaemic mothers give birth to unhealthy babies, who are in turn at risk of disease and death. Timely immunization programmes, proper medical care and campaigns to prevent communicable diseases can considerably reduce the toll.

¹⁷ These figures relate to year 2001 provided by Sample Registration System.

Given the health status of population across gender, India lags far behind in achieving the goals set by the International Conference for Population and Development (ICPD) held at Cairo in 1994. The *ICPD goals* included reduction of infant and under-5 mortality rates by one-third, or to 50 and 70 per 1000 live births respectively, whichever is less by the year 2000. Furthermore, maternal mortality rate should have been decreased to half of the 1990 level by year 2000, and a further one-half by 2015. Irrespective of the policy initiatives taken by the Government of India under the *National Family Welfare Programme* (1996) to improve the reproductive health status and *National Reproductive and Child Health Programme* (1997) to reduce the child mortality by providing immunization against vaccine preventable diseases and reduction in maternal mortality rates by providing essential emergency obstetric care, we have not achieved the *ICPD goals*.



Table 5: Statewise D	Total			Rural			Urban		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Andhra Pradesh	66.3	68.9	63.5	75.4	79.2	70.6	37.4	35.1	39.9
Assam	75.6	74.7	76.4	78.6	77.8	79.5	35.8	36.1	35.6
Bihar	62.8	63.2	62.3	68.6	64.3	62.8	55.1	52.5	57.7
Gujarat	63.2	61.7	64.8	70.1	67.9	72.6	44.6	45.7	43.3
Haryana	67.7	59.1	78.4	69.8	56.8	86.1	58.0	69.4	43.5
Katnataka	57.7	58.6	56.7	69.4	73.4	65.1	24.5	18.5	31.5
Kerala	14.5	13.7	15.3	13.8	12.4	15.4	16.4	18.0	14.9
Madhya Pradesh	89.5	89.6	89.5	95.8	94.9	96.8	55.3	59.6	50.7
Maharashtra	48.2	47.8	48.5	58.2	64.1	51.9	31.3	20.5	42.8
Orissa	96.7	97.3	96.0	100.2	101.2	99.2	64.6	63.8	65.5
Punjab	53.1	50.5	56.4	57.0	48.8	67.2	39.3	56.5	16.2
Rajasthan	81.2	78.9	83.9	84.7	79.9	90.5	59.1	73.5	40.5
Tamil Nadu	52.4	50.3	54.5	58.1	57.5	58.8	39.4	33.8	45.1
Uttar Pradesh	84.4	85.2	83.5	87.6	86.1	89.4	65.8	80.1	49,6
West Bengal	52.1	60.7	43.0	54.7	61.9	47.1	40.3	55.1	24.0
Arunachal Pradesh	35.4	43.0	27.9	37.4	46.0	29.2	ΝΛ	NΛ	NΛ
Chhatisgarh	77.6	92.1	62.0	94.5	116.5	71.3	47.1	49.4	44.4
Goa	16.7	26.3	6.6	22.3	32.0	11.4	8.5	17.2	0.0 ¹⁸
Jharkhand	71.2	63.7	79.1	76.1	69.8	82.6	48.1	34.0	62.4
Himachal Pradesh	54.1	56.9	51.1	55.0	58.0	51.9	37.0	38.8	34.9
Jammu & Kashmir	NΛ	NΛ	NΛ	NA	NA	NΛ	NΛ	NA	NA
Manipur	22.8	22.1	23.7	24.6	25.8	23.1	17.1	9.6	25.7
Meghalaya	61.3	66.6	55.6	64.7	71.4	57.6	25.6	22.2	30.3
Mizoram	13.7	18.8	8.9	14.0	23.2	6.2	13.2	12.8	13.6
Nagaland	31.7	21.3	42.5	NΛ	NA	NΛ	31.7	21.3	42.5
Sikkim	46.1	49.7	42.4	46.8	50.3	43.3	17.6	29.4	0.0
Tripura	27.1	22.6	31.8	26.9	23.8	30.2	28.5	14.6	40.9
Uttaranchal	52.4	60.0	43.8	75.3	65.4	87.4	27.3	53.6	0.0
Union Territoties									
Andaman&Nico.Isl	13.9	10.5	17.1	17.1	14.4	19.7	5.5	0.0	10.4
Chandigarh	15.6	9.0	23.7	22.5	0.0	58.8	14.5	10.8	18.9
Dadra&NagarHavel	42.3	57.7	27.0	44.9	61.1	28.7	0.0	0.0	0.0
Daman & Diu	6.8	12.0	2.9	15.6	22.1	8.2	0.0	0.0	0.0
Delhi	25.4	29.1	20.5	27.8	27.3	28.4	25.1	29.3	19.5
Lakshadweep	21.3	29.1	13.8	34.1	55.0	10.4	9.1	0.0	16.7
Pondhicherry	20.9	31.1	10.2	27.4	32.0	23.2	16.3	30.5	0.0
INDIA	70.0	69.8	68.0	75.4	75.6	75.2	43.8	47.4	39.7

Table 5: Statewise Decomposition of Infant Mortality Rate: Gender Differentials, 1999

Note: The IMR data on India (total) appears to be inconsistent. Source: SRS Bulletin, Volume 35, No.1, April 2001

¹⁸ IMR of value zero.

2.2 Education Profile

Despite the World Declaration on Education For All (EFA) by 2000 adopted in Jomtien, Thailand, in 1990, the barriers to education faced by girls continue across the globe. There is a pyramidal structure in female enrolment ratio, with a broad base at the primary level, which tapers as it goes to higher education. Though EFA Declaration laid emphasis on national commitment for reaching basic education for all children, a significant proportion of students, especially girls, continue to drop out because of socio-economic and cultural factors. Table 5 shows that, while the gender gaps in primary and secondary enrolment in high human development countries like Norway and Australia are small, a significant gender gap still remains in the medium/low human development countries in elementary education.

The target set by the Beijing Platform of Action to close the gender gap in primary and secondary education by the year 2005 is unlikely to be met without significant higher efforts. The low level of educational attainment for females in India is primarily due to both demand and supply constraints. Demand constraints include the negative parental attitude towards investing in girl's education and educational costs. Poorer families find it difficult to bear the direct and opportunity costs of investing in female education. Supply constraints include inadequate infrastructure at school such as not enough classrooms, no water and sanitary facilities. Shortage of single-sex schools and female teachers sometimes act as inhibiting factors. School location can be important as it is found that greater the distance, lesser the female participation in education. Child labour and a girl's work burden in the care economy are also principal barriers in achieving universal primary education. Furthermore, as we go up the ladder of higher education, it is interesting to note that in high human development countries like Norway and Australia, women's enrolment in tertiary education surpasses that of men. The access to tertiary education in medium/low human development countries paints a bleak scenario, with enrolment ratios still below 10 per cent in the case of women (Table 6).

The low level of female educational attainment results in women's low earning potential, low nutritional status, high level of mortality and low financial and functional autonomy within households. Women's education has a positive impact on the health and well being of not only women but of children as well. Educated mothers provide more nutritious diet, ensure more effective diagnosis of diseases and timely health care. Empirical evidence shows that mother's education level is a significant determinant of low infant and child mortality rates. Besides the positive impact on women's lives, women's education improves the human capital formation of the country and in turn enhances economic growth and development.

Country	······································	Basic Edu	reation ¹		Higher H	Education ²	Adult I	Literacy ³
	Primary E	nrolment		ndary Iment	Tertiary	Enrolment		F/M F/M 94.0 83.0 89.0 66.0
	Female Ratio	F/M	Female Ratio	F/M	Female ratio	Male ratio	Female Rate	F/M
Norway	100.0	100.0	98.0	101.0	71.0	53.0	-	
Australia	95.0	100.0	89.0	101.0	83.0	77.0	-	-
Sri Lanka	-	-	-	-	4.0	6.0	88.6	94.0
China	100.0	100.0	-	_	4.0	7.0	75.5	83.0
Indonesia	93.0	97.0	-	-	8.0	15.0	81.3	89.0
India	71.0	86.0	48.0	68.0	5.0	8.0	44.5	66.0
Pakistan		-	-	-	-	*	30.0	51.0
Nepal	-	_	-	-	-	-	22.8	39.0
Bangladesh	-	-	-	-		-	29.3	57.0
Mozambique	34.0	76.0	5.0	67.0	-	-	27.9	47
Ethiopia	27.0	62.0	-	-	-	1.0	31.8	74
Niger	19.0	63.0	4.0	61.0	-	-	7.9	34.0

Table 6: Global Comparison of Selected Educational Indicators

Note: F/M denotes female rate as per cent of male rate.

¹ relates to 1995-97. ² relate to 1994-97. ³ relates to 1999, percentage age 15 and above.

Source: Human Development Report, 1999 and 2001.

In India, there are four stages of education, viz., primary (I-V), upper primary (VI-VIII), secondary (IX-X)/higher secondary (10+2) and higher education (degree onwards). The participation of girls at all these stages of education in India has been increasing steadily over the years since 1950-51. However, gender inequality still persists, as girls still constitute only around 40 per cent at all stages of education (Table 7).

Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER) and adult literacy rates are the two basic indicators to gauge the gender gaps in access and utilisation of education in a country. GER is defined as enrolment in classes as a percentage of the estimated child population in the particular age group. GER estimates often exceed 100 per cent because of inclusion of under-age and over-age children. Despite the fact that 94 per cent of the rural population in India has primary schools within a distance of one kilometre, the GER of girls at the primary stage is still only 85.18 per cent (Table 8). However, there has been an increasing trend in the GER at the elementary level (primary and upper primary together) for boys and girls over the years, and the gender gap in GER has declined significantly from 34.3 percentage points in 1960-61 to 18.1 percentage points in 1999-2000 (Chart 3).

	Primary	Middle	Secondary/High.Sec	Hr.Edu
	(I-V)	(VI-VIII)	(10+2)	(Degree +)
1950-51	28.1	16.1	13.3	10.0
1955-56	30.5	20.8	15.4	14.6
1960-61	32.6	23.9	20.5	16.0
1965-66	36.2	26.7	22.0	20.4
1970-71	37.4	29.3	25.0	20.0
1975-76	38.1	31.3	26.9	23.2
1980-81	38.6	32.9	29.6	26.7
1985-86	40.3	35.6	30.3	33.0
1990-91	41.5	36.7	32.9	33.3
1991-92	41.9	38.2	33.8	32.3
1992-93	42.6	38.8	33.9	33.2
1993-94	42.7	39.1	34.3	33.5
1994-95	42.8	38.9	34.4	34.0
1995-96	43.2	39.0	35.3	37.2
1996-97	43.4	39.8	36.2	38.2
1997-98	43.6	40.1	37.1	34.8
1998-99	43.5	40.5	37.8	38.8
1999-00	43.6	40.4	38.9	39.9

Table 7: Distribution of Female Enrolment in Total Enrolment in India (in per cent)

Source: Government of India (1999-2000) <u>Selected Educational Statistics</u>, 1999-2000, Department of Education, Ministry of Human Resource Development

Table 8: Trends in Gross Enrolment Ratio in India

	Primary(I-	V)	Upper Prin	nary(VI-VIII)	Element	ary (I-VIII)
	boys	girls	boys	girls	boys	girls
1950-51	60.60	24.80	20.60	4.60	46.40	17.70
1960-61	82.60	41.40	33.20	11.30	65.20	30.90
1970-71	95.50	60.50	46.50	20.80	75.50	44.40
1980-81	95.80	64.10	54.30	28.60	82.20	52.10
1990-91	114.00	85.50	76.60	47.00	100.00	70.80
1991-92	112.80	86.90	75.10	49.60	101.20	73.20
1992-93	95.00	73.46	72.50	48.94	87.70	65.70
1993-94	90.04	73.10	62.10	45.40	80.23	63.70
1994-95	114.80	92.60	79.00	55.00	101.80	78.80
1995-96	114.50	93.30	79.50	55.00	101.80	79.30
1996-97	98.70	81.90	70.90	52.80	88.85	71.80
1997-98	97.70	81.20	66.50	49.50	86.40	70.00
1998-99	100.86	82.85	65.27	49.08	87.63	70.56
1999-00	104.08	85.18	67.15	49.66	90.14	72.02

Source: Government of India (1999-2000) <u>Selected Educational Statistics</u>, 1999-2000, Department of Education, Ministry of Human Resource Development

(in per cent)



Chart 3:Trends in Gross Enrolment Ratio of Elementary Education in India

Source: Government of India (1999-2000) <u>Selected Educational Statistics</u>, 1999-2000, Department of Education, Ministry of Human Resource Development

States	Gross Enrolment Ratio							
	Primary (I-V		Upper primary (VI-VIII)					
	Male	female	male	female				
Andhra Pradesh	105.21	101.39	52.30	42.77				
Assam	124.25	105.35	81.02	64.63				
Bihar	94.51	61.46	41.38	22.04				
Gujarat	124.54	101.43	71.81	57.31				
Haryana	81.22	82.98	64.58	59.02				
Karnataka	112.83	105.87	70.71	60.49				
Kerala	85.80	84.74	97.78	93.36				
Madhya Pradesh	126.53	102.94	75.28	48.70				
Maharashtra	115.80	112.32	96.72	80.37				
Orissa	125.70	91.48	66.59	43.75				
Punjab	79.91	81.71	64.53	64.95				
Rajasthan	137.61	83.81	105.89	48.35				
Tamil Nadu	102.75	98.62	88.56	85.15				
Uttar Pradesh	78.43	50.18	48.69	25.80				
West Bengal	105.35	94.86	57.00	43.91				
India	104.08	85.18	67.15	49.66				

 Table 9: Statewise Decomposition of Gross Enrolment Ratio in India (in per cent)

Source: Government of India (1999-2000) <u>Selected Educational Statistics</u>, 1999-2000, Department of Education, Ministry of Human Resource Development In a few States like Uttar Pradesh, Bihar and Haryana, the GER is quite low (Table 9). Kerala is the only State where the GER across gender at the secondary level is greater than that at the primary level. GER tends to present an exaggerated picture of the extent to which children are getting educated, a distortion that seems to be greater for girls than for boys. This distortion in data is acute in certain States because of the differences in the drop-out rates between boys and girls. This may explain why the GER of Kerala, the highest female literate State, is lower than that of Bihar. Inspite of the comparatively low GER around 85 per cent, Kerala is the State with the highest literacy rate in India. This indicates that drop-out rates in educational institutions in Kerala may be very small. Lack of regular data on school attendance and completion in all the states makes it difficult to get an accurate picture of female participation in schools and girls' progress to higher classes.

In India, the drop-out rates of girls at the primary and secondary levels are significantly higher than that of boys. At the primary level, the drop-out rate of girls, however, has declined considerably from 70.9 per cent in 1960-61 to 42.28 per cent in 1999-2000 (Table 10). Inspite of the improved rate of retention of students at the primary level, the drop out rate of girl students needs to be reduced significantly from its present high level of nearly a half.

year	Primary (I-V)		Upper Primary (VI-VIII		
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	
1960-61	61.70	70.90	75.00	85.00	
1970-71	64.50	70.90	74.60	83.40	
1980-81	56.20	62.50	68.00	79.40	
1990-91	40.10	46.00	59.10	65.10	
1992-93	43.83	46.67	58.23	65.21	
1999-00	38.67	42.28	51.96	58.00	

Table 10: Trends in Drop-out Rate in India

Source: Government of India (1999-2000) <u>Selected Educational Statistics</u>, 1999-2000, Department of Education, Ministry of Human Resource Development

The persistent gender gap in the enrolment ratio has resulted in more illiterate women than men across the globe. Adult literacy rate across nations is higher for men than women. The gender gap in adult literacy is particularly acute in low/medium human development nations. Inspite of the strong commitment of the Government of India towards "Education for All (EFA)", nearly half the Indian women continue to be illiterate.

Tuble 11. Statemise Decon	populion	or intera	ey mater Gemaer i		
State/UT	Females	Males	State/UT	Females	Males
Kerala	87.86	94.20	West Bengal	60.22	77.58
Mizoram	86.13	90.69	Manipur	59.70	77.87
Lakshadweep	81.56	93.15	Gujarat	58.60	80.50
Chandigarh	76.65	85.65	Karnataka	57.45	76.29
Goa	75.51	88.88	Haryana	56.31	79.25
Andaman&Nicobar	75.29	86.07	Assam	56.03	71.93
Delhi	75.00	87.37	INDIA	54.16	75.85
Pondicherry	74.13	88.89	Chhatisgarh	52.40	77.86
Daman & Diu	70.37	88.40	Andhra Pradesh	51.17	70.85
Himachal Pradesh	68.08	86.02	Orissa	50.97	75.95
Maharashtra	67.51	86.27	Madhya Pradesh	50.28	76.80
Tripura	65.41	81.47	Rajasthan	44.34	76.46
Tamil Nadu	64.55	82.33	Arunachal Pradesh	44.24	64.07
Punjab	63.55	75.63	Dadra&NagarHaveli	42.99	73.32
Nagaland	61.92	71.77	Uttar Pradesh	42.98	70.23
Sikkim	61.46	76.73	Jammu & Kashmir	41.82	65.75
Meghalaya	60.41	66.14	Jharkhand	39.38	67.94
Uttaranchal	60.26	84.01	Bihar	33.57	60.32
C		(I) · 1 (7	· · · · · · · · · · · ·		·

Table 11: Statewise Decomposition of Literacy Rate: Gender Differentials, 2001

Source: Census (2001): Provisional Population, Totals, Series 1, India, Paper 1 of 2001

As per Census 2001, the literacy rate ranges from 87.86 per cent in Kerala and 86.13 per cent in Mizoram to 39.38 per cent in Jharkand and 33.57 per cent in Bihar. The States/UTs, where female literacy rate is below the national average are Chattisgarh (52.40), Andhra Pradesh (51.17), Orissa (50.97), Madhya Pradesh (50.28), Rajasthan

Chart 4: Trends in Literacy Rate in India



(44.34), Arunachal Pradesh (44.24), Dadra and Nager Haveli (42.98), Uttar Pradesh

(42.98), Jammu and Kashmir (41.82), Jharkand (39.38) and Bihar (33.57). Empirical evidence shows that high levels of literacy in the States are significantly correlated to better health status of the population. For instance, Kerala has the lowest infant and child mortality rates and the highest life expectancy of all States in India. On the other hand, Bihar is one of the states where not only life expectancy at birth is low but also, infant and child mortality rates are pretty high.

Although literacy levels continue to be low, there has been progress in education across gender over the last five decades. In 1951, only 8.86 per cent of women were literate as compared to 27.16 per cent of men. By 2001, 54.16 percent of women and 75.85 per cent of men are literate. Despite this achievement in the post-independent India, the gender gap in literacy rates has continued to widen from 18.30 percentage points in 1951 to peak at 26.62 in 1981, before declining to 21.70 in 2001 (Chart 4). The larger decline in the gender gap in GER than in literacy rates again indicates the significant gender gaps in drop out rates. A closer look at the gender-stereotyped roles in curriculum structure may also help in achieving gender parity in education.

2.3 Overall Index of Gender Development

Gender development index (GDI) is a gender-sensitive adaptation of the human development index (HDI). It adjusts the HDI for gender inequality in life expectancy, educational attainment (gross enrolment ratio and literacy rate) and income¹⁹. Estimates of these indices at two time points across the globe reveal that GDI is less than HDI in all countries, with some improvement over time (Table 19). The lower rank in terms of GDI relative to that in terms of HDI means that women not only have low overall achievement in human development, but their achievement is even lower than that of men. Low GDI reflects gender disparity in basic capabilities because of lack of education and health standards. India's overall index on gender-related development has improved from 0.401 in 1992 to 0.533 in 2001,but it is still poor in comparison with the country's human development levels. India's GDI is lower than that of Sri Lanka, China and Indonesia, but better than that of Pakistan, Nepal and Bangladesh.

The Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM) attempts to capture gender inequality in key areas of economic and political participation and decision-making. It differs from

¹⁹ For details on the construction of GDI, see Chapter 4, Box 5

Box 3 Gender Empowerment Measure

The Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM) attempts to capture gender inequality in key areas of economic and political participation and decision-making. It differs from the GDI in that it focuses on women's opportunities rather than on gender inequality in basic capabilities. The GEM is constructed on the basis of the percentage share of men and women (i) in the parliament, (ii) in administrative and managerial positions and professional and technical jobs, and (iii) in unadjusted GDP per capita. For each category, applying the GESI methodology, X_{ede} , an equally distributed equivalent percentage (EDEP) for both sexes, is calculated. The EDEP for each variable is indexed as a proportion of its maximum value. For a country, the GEM is the simple average of the three indices. The closer a country's GEM is to zero, the greater is its lack of empowerment of women. The values of GEM near one indicate high levels of empowerment of women.

the GDI in that it focuses on women's opportunities rather than on gender inequality in basic capabilities. The GEM is constructed on the basis of the percentage share of men and women (i) in the parliament, (ii) in administrative and managerial positions and professional and technical jobs, and (iii) in unadjusted GDP per capita. India's GEM of only 0.240 reveals the fact that women in India lag much behind in gaining access to economic and political opportunities (Box 3). A thorough analysis of gender disparities in the country requires a closer look at GDI and GEM at the state-level and at the level of smaller socio-economic groups.

Country	IIDI		GDI		GEM	
	1992	2001	1992	2001	1992	2001
Norway	0.933	0.939	0.911	0.937	0.752	0.836
Australia	0.927	0.936	0.901	0.935	0.568	0.738
Sri Lanka	0.704	0.735	0.660	0.732	0.288	0.308
China	0.594	0.718	0.578	0.715	0.474	0.321 ^a
Indonesia	0.637	0.677	0.591	0.671	0.362	0.362 ^a
India	0.439	0.571	0.401	0.533	0.226	0.240 ^a
Pakistan	0.483	0.498	0.360	0.466	0.153	0.176 ^a
Nepal	0.343	0.480	0.310	0.461	0.315	-
Bangladesh	0.364	0.470	0.334	0.459	0.287	0.309
Mozambique	0.246	0.323	0.229	0.309	0.350	0.428 ^a
Ethiopia	0.227	0.321	0.217	0.308	0.205	-
Niger	0.207	0.274	0.196	0.260		0.120 ^a

Table 12: India's Global Position on Human and Gender Development

Note: ^a relates to 1999.

Source: compiled from Human Development Report, 1995, 1999 & 2001

The adaptability of UNDP indices of GDI and GEM in the Indian context has been challenged in policy circles in recent years. Paucity of the required data at high frequency levels and the suitability of variables used by the UNDP in the computation of GDI and GEM in India are the major problems. Keeping in view this limitation, on the advice of Department of Women and Child Development (DWCD), discussions are on progress to identify the relevant variables to be used for computation of GDI and GEM even at the subnational levels.

2.4 Feminisation of Poverty

The concept of *feminisation of poverty* arises from the reality that women have a higher *incidence* of poverty than men and women's poverty is more *severe* than that of men. Given the government's commitment to poverty alleviation, it is essential to take note of the special vulnerability of women and children to poverty. Also, the concept of *feminisation of poverty* has influenced the targeting of government subsidies or microfinance facilities for women.

	Children (0-14)	Adults(15+)	All Ages	
Rural				
Male	42.31	31.17	35.55	
Female	45.64	32.63	37.34	
Person	43.89	31.90	36.35	
Urban				
Male	36.42	23.57	27.68	
Female	39.41	25.53	29.83	
Persons	37.84	24.51	28.76	
Total				
Male	40.98	29.07	33.52	
Female	44.25	30.76	35.47	
Person	42.54	29.90	34.42	

Table 13: Proportion of Population in BPL Households in India, 1999-2000

Source: Sundaram, K (2001)

A significant proportion of women in India lives in poverty, this is true not just of the statistical category women-headed households, but of all households, whether in rural or in urban areas. It is estimated that 35.47 per cent of Indian women are poor compared to 33.52 per cent of men in 1999-2000. In rural India, 37.34 per cent of women live in Below Poverty Line (BPL) households compared to 35.55 per cent of males; whereas in urban India, it is 29.83 per cent of females compared to 27.68 per cent of males in the year 1999-2000 (Table 20). Within the gender dissaggregated category, more children are poor than adults.

Early marriages and multiple child-bearing arc a major handicap for Indian women of the former age group in their economic activities, pushing down their workforce participation rates²⁰. This is unlike in most other developed and developing countries, where the age group 15-25 years exhibits a peak in women's workforce

²⁰ See Table 21 of Chapter 3.

participation rates. Along with these young women, a high proportion of their children is also poor. In the older age group, chances are that the women are elderly widows without support. Since women in general do not have physical assets of their own, they have no defence against poverty in old age. These two groups, probably account for the large number of households with no earner that are found among poor. Secondly, in a poor household, the contribution of a woman's work is crucial for the household's survival: but unless it is paid work, the chances of the households overcoming poverty are poor. There is an urgent need to focus policies to tackle the female and child face of poverty. Given the high incidence of poverty among children and lower school enrolment of girls than boys, it is essential to ensure that girls get educated so that those among them, who are poor while they are children, are not condemned to poverty even when they grow up. Girls must be equipped through education to take advantage of job opportunities in the future as economic growth accelerates.

Chapter 3 Women's Contribution to the Economy

Women's contribution to the economy remains significantly invisible in national accounts. Although a certain degree of statistical invisibility of women in the economy is a global phenomenon, it is particularly predominant in India and other South Asian nations due to the orthodox socio-cultural milieu. The attempt of United Nations Statistical Division in extending the production boundary of the Systems of National Accounts (SNA), 1993 has led to the inclusion of the activities of unpaid work of women in care economy into the national accounting system as satellite accounts (Box 4). This extended production boundary of SNA 1993 provides a better understanding of women's contribution to the economy. Non-SNA activity (predominantly the extended SNA activities performed in the care economy) is as large as recorded SNA activity, both in industrial and developing countries (Table 14).

Box 4 Systems of National Accounts 1993

The 1993 System of National Accounts (SNA) limits economic production of households for their own consumption to the production of *goods* alone, and excludes the own-account production of personal and domestic services (except for the services produced by employing paid domestic staff and the own account production of housing services produced by employing paid domestic staff and the own account production of housing services by owner occupants). This allows the SNA to avoid valuing activities such as eating, drinking, and sleeping, which are difficult for a person to obtain from another person. But, in the process, activities such as fetching water from the river or the well, collecting fuel wood, washing clothes, house cleaning, preparation and serving of meals, care, training and instruction of children, care of sick, infirm or old people also get excluded from the definition of economic activity. These services are mostly performed by women, but can also be procured from other units. While these activities are excluded partly because of the inadequate price systems for valuing these services, this exclusion principle leads to the economic invisibility and a statistical underestimation of women's work. It is interesting to recall in this context the famous economist Pigou's comment that if a housemaid employed by a bachelor were to marry him, national income would fall, since her previously paid work would now be performed unpaid.

SNA 1993 suggests development of estimates for the value of household production of services for own use in satellite accounts of an alternative concept of gross domestic product (GDP). Estimation of the 'unpaid' work of women in the care sector can suggest a quantification of the contribution of women to the economy. The quantification can also be useful for two more reasons. First, it would provide a fuller understanding of how resources and time are allocated in the economy. Second, it would indicate the extent to which economic development, and the associated feminisation of labour, by leading to the substitution of own-account production of services by purchases from the market (for example, households using self-service laundry services instead of washing at home) would give a fillip to the growth rate of GDP as it is measured. Monitoring such estimates over time can also help in understanding the effect of policies on these own-account production of services, critical for welfare.

In industrial countries, a little less than half of the total work time is spent in paid SNA activities, and little more than half in unpaid non-SNA care economy activities. It is interesting to note that men spend about two-thirds of the total work time in SNA activity and carn income and recognition, with only one-third devoted to unpaid non-SNA activities in the care economy. The shares are reversed for women. Among industrial countries, women's share in non-SNA activities ranges from 61 per cent of total work time in Canada to 81 per cent in the Netherlands; while male's share in non-SNA activity ranges from 21 per cent in Denmark to 48 per cent in the Netherlands. Time use data of developing countries suggests that women work significantly more hours in the care economy than men (Table 14). The proportion of total time spent on the care economy by women in the developing countries ranges from 76 per cent in urban Columbia to 52 per cent in the mountainous region of Nepal. The proportion of time spent by men in non-SNA activities is as little as 13 per cent in urban Venezuela and 14 per cent in urban Indonesia. The Indian data is not strictly comparable with that of other countries because of different categorization of activities and time band. Furthermore, the Indian figures are based on only six States of India (Table 15). In India, on an average, a male spends about 42 hours per week in SNA activities as compared to 19 hours by a female. However, in non-SNA activities (extended SNA activities in the care economy), an average male spends only about 3.6 hours as compared to 34.6 hours by an average female.

		Total	work time	Female		Male	
Countries	year	SNA	Non-SNA	SNA	Non-SNA	SNΛ	Non-SNA
Industrial		49	51	34	66	66	34
Australia	1992	44	56	28	72	61	39
Canada	1987	52	48	39	61	65	35
Norway	1990/91	50	50	38	62	64	36
Denmark	1987	68	32	58	42	79	21
Netherlands	1987	35	65	19	81	52	48
USA	1985	50	50	37	63	63	37
United Kingdom	1985	51	49	37	63	68	32
Developing		54	46	34	66	76	24
National Rep.of Korea	1990	45	55	34	66	56	44
Rural		59.2	40.8	37.8	62.2	76.2	23.8
Bangladesh	1990	52	48	35	65	70	30
Guatemala	1977	59	41	37	63	84	16
Keyna	1988	56	44	42	58	76	24
Nepal	1978	56	44	46	54	67	33
Highlands	1978	59	41	52	48	66	34
Mountains	1978	56	44	48	52	65	35
Rural Hills	1978	52	48	37	63	70	30
Philippiness	1975-77	73	27	29	71	84	16
Urban		54.4	45.6	31	69	79.2	20.8
Columbia	1983	49	51	24	76	77	23
Indonesia	1992	60	40	35	65	86	14
Keyna	1986	46	54	41	59	79	21
Nepal	1978	58	42	25	75	67	33
Venezuela	1983	59	41	30	70	87	13
India	1998-99	-		19	34.6	42	3.6

Table 14: Time Allocation by women and men: Selected Industrial and Developing **Countries** (as percentage of total working time)

Time Use Surveys (TUS) are becoming increasingly important for getting better statistics on the size of the labour force of a country, as well as the contribution of women to the economy. A major finding of TUS across the globe is that women carry a disproportionately greater burden of work than men. Since women are responsible for a greater share of non-SNA work in the care economy, they enter the labour market already overburdened with work. This dual work burden or unequal sharing of work borne by women is neither recognized in the data nor considered adequately in socio-economic policy making. The recent major macrolevel TUS conducted in six major states, viz... Gujarat, Haryana, Madhya Pradesh, Meghalaya, Orissa and Tamil Nadu, during July

1998 to June 1999 by the Central Statistical Organisation of India is a pioneering attempt not only in South Asia, but also among developing countries. This large scale Survey of 18,591 households in India gives a better understanding of how time is allocated across gender in the economy and provides some insight into the extent of statistical invisibility of women's work in India. The TUS covered all members of the household aged 6 years and above.

The TUS in India categorized activities into three classes: SNA activities (that get included in GDP calculations), extended SNA activities (that do not get included in GDP but should be included in the satellite accounts) and residual non-SNA activities. The non-SNA category of activities in Table 15 can be compared to the category of extended SNA activities of TUS conducted in India. The survey found that, in the production of own-account services that qualify for inclusion in the satellite accounts as per SNA 1993, on average, a female spent 34.6 hours per week compared to 3.6 hours by a male (Table 15). In these activities, females in Gujarat scored the highest time spent (39.08 hours per week) on such activities, followed by Madhya Pradesh (35.79 hours) and Orissa (35.70 hours).

States	Female		· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	Male			Total		
	SNA	Ext-	Non-	SNA	Ext-SNA	Non-	SNA	Ext-SNA	Non-
		SNA	SNA			SNA			SNA
Haryana	21.26	31.06	115.67	37.72	1.99	128.23	30.19	15.24	122.52
Madhya	19.85	35.79	112.38	42.07	4.43	121.47	31.54	19.22	117.19
Pradesh								1	
Gujarat	17.60	39.08	111.36	43.63	3.19	121.12	31.24	20.27	116.44
Orissa	17.07	35.70	115.20	40.12	4.47	123.45	28.69	19.91	119.36
Tamil	18.97	30.46	118.61	42.54	3.19	122.27	30.68	16.87	120.45
Nadu								f.	
Meghalaya	26.34	34.52	107.15	45.94	7.16	114.78	35.88	21.28	110.84
Combined	18.72	34.63	114.58	41.96	3.65	122.42	30.75	18.69	118.62
States								i	

Table 15: Time Allocation by w	vomen and men, Selected States of India
((Weekly average time in hours)

Source: Time Use Survey, 2000

3.1 Valuing Care Economy in India

In theoretical literature, there are two main approaches to the valuation of the care economy: (i) Input-related method, based on imputing value to labour time spent on care economy, and (ii) Output-related method, based on imputing market prices to goods and services produced in the care economy (for eg., imputing market price to the fuel wood collected , home made utensils, etc.). The major problem related to input-related approach is to decide which value to impute to labour time. Three methods have been used for this purpose²¹.

²¹ Beneria, L (1992) pp, 1547-1560.
- Global Substitute method: uses the cost of a hired worker, paid to carry out the different tasks in the care economy.
- Specialised Substitute Method: uses the costs of a specialised worker that would perform each specific task according to his/her specialization.
- Opportunity Cost Method: is based on the wage, which the person carrying out the domestic work would receive if she/he worked in the market.

Each method suffers from its own merits and demerits. The global substitute method tends to underestimate the care economy as it uses the wages at the lower end of the wage category. On the contrary, specialised substitute method tends to overestimate the care economy though they are more indicative of its market value. The opportunity cost method on the other hand tends to generate the widest range of estimates, depending on the skills and the opportunity wage of the individuals performing it²².

From the perspective of accounting for care economy, input-related accounting is superior to output-related accounting. For example, if women have to walk longer to fetch water, input-related accounting will show an increase in the time input, though there is no increase in output. Thus intensified effort of women is valued in input-related accounting. The results from the input-related global substitute method (improvised) for valuing the care economy in India are contained in Table 16.

States	Value of	of Care Economic Activity		SDP	'Care' as % of State			
		(Rs. crores)	-	(Rs. cr.)	Domestic	Product		
	Male	Female	Total	1997-98	Male	Female	Total	
Haryana	928.74	10209.3	11138.04	37427	2.48	27.28		29,76
Madhya Pradesh	4466.03	29034.09	33500.12	70832	6.31	40.99	-	47.30
Gujarat	2209.55	22577.63	24787.18	86609	2.55	26.07		28.62
Orissa	1463.78	11343.88	12807.65	32669	4.48	34.72	-	39,20
Tamil Nadu	3073.37	19922.04	22995.4	87394	3.52	22.80	-	26.31
Meghalaya	260.45	862.97	1123.42	2250	11.58	38.35		49.93

Table 16: Value of Activity in Care Economy as compared to SDP

Source: Pandey, 2000, NIPFP.

²² Opportunity cost method can result in rather absurd estimates since, for example, a meal produced by a doctor will be imputed a higher value than an identical meal prepared by an unskilled worker even though the latter might be a better cook. Another problem in this case that has been pointed out repeatedly is the tautology suggested by the fact that, if the cook is a full-time housewife, her opportunity costs (which depend on the income she would make as a member of the paid labour force), are in turn influenced by her condition as a full-time housewife. As Ferber and Birnbaun (1980) have pointed out, "a person who has been out of the labour market, especially when it has been of a long time, will not have reliable information on how much she/he could carn, or even whether she/he could find a job". Their analysis suggests that this case at best provides only " a lower limit of the value of housework, fails to take into consideration the value of housework of the market worker, and includes the value of the homemaker's additional leisure" (Beneria, 1992, pp. 1547-1560).

District-wise data on wage rates for agricultural labour and wage rate for urban unskilled manual labour have been used for valuing unpaid work in rural and urban areas respectively. With this methodology, projecting the TUS results by age-wise district-wise population, valuation of time spent on extended SNA activities by females in Gujarat and Haryana indicates that the value of extended-SNA could be as much as 26-28 per cent of the relevant State Domestic Product (SDP)²³. For example, the total value of such activities by females was Rs. 22,578 erore and Rs. 10,209 erore in Gujarat and Haryana. respectively relative to SDP of Rs. 86,609 erore and Rs. 37,427 erore in these two states (Table 16). Compared to females, the valuation of extended-SNA activities by males was limited to only about 2-3 per cent of SDP in these two states. The care economy, as a proportion of SDP, is as high as 49.93 per cent in Meghalaya and 47 per cent in Madhya Pradesh. One of the major thrusts of gender-sensitive budgets should be to lift the veil of the statistical invisibility of the care economy and integrate it into macropolicies.

3.2 Female Economic Activity Rate (FEAR)

Keeping the care economy apart, the existing data on female economic activity rate (FEAR) across the globe reveal that FEAR ranges from a little more than half in Australia and Indonesia to 82.9 per cent in Mozambique (Table 17). The female to male ratio of participation in economic activity is less than 100 in all countries except China.

Country	FEAR	F/M
Norway	58.9	84
Australia	55.6	76
Sri Lanka	42.2	55
China	73.0	102
Indonesia	55.0	67
India	42.0	50
Pakistan	35.0	41
Nepal	56.9	67
Bangladesh	65.8	76
Mozambique	82.9	92
Ethiopia	57.2	67
Niger	69.4	75

Table 17: Global Comparison of Economic Activity Rate

Note: F/M is female ratio to male ratio of economic activity rate. Source: Human Development Report, 2001

There is some inconsistency in the existing data on women's contribution to the economy across data sources within India. The estimate according to the longitudinal information on work force participation provided by Census is lower than that by the National Sample Survey estimates. The NSSO estimates reveal a sharp decrease in the work participation rates across gender in rural and urban India between the 50th and the 55th rounds, according to *usual status* (that is the status on which a person spent a

²³ Pande, R N (2000)

relatively longer time of reference period of 365 days preceding the date of the survey). Furthermore, in 1999-2000, the work participation rate reached its second lowest level in the last decade. *Feminisation U* states that FEAR initially decreases and then increases with the process of long term economic development, and macrocconomic changes associated with structural adjustment. Competitive pressures associated with structural reforms and external liberalisation have led to *feminisation of labour* in some countries because of the cheap wage and flexibility of female labour, in particular their "comparative advantage" as workers in export-oriented industries or export-processing zones (EPZ), with labour-intensive production requiring little or no formal training (Box 5).

	Usual Status (in per cent)				
NSS	Rural		Urban		
Rounds (year)	Male	Female	Male	Female	
38(1983)	54.7	34.0	51.2	15.1	
47(1991)	54.6	29.4	51.6	13.2	
50(1993)	55.3	32.8	52.1	15.5	
53(1997)	55.0	29.1	52.1	13.1	
55 (1999)	53.1	29.9	51.8	13.9	

Table 18. India: Work Participation Rate according to NSSO

Source: NSSO (1998), Report No.442, titled <u>Household Consumer Expenditure and Employment Situation</u> in India 1997, page 34 and NSSO (1999): <u>Employment and Unemployment in India1999-2000 Key Results</u> NSS 55th Round July 1999-June 2000

A process of *defeminisation* resulting from the adoption of techniques that require more "skilled" labour or greater mechanisation, however, can also reverse the *feminisation of labour* force associated with reform and an open trade regime. The work participation rate of Census 2001 is not available as yet. Census 2001 apart, the trends in work participation rate in India according to the Census data reveal that there has been a continuous decline in the work participation rates of males in India from 60.8 per cent in 1901 to 51.6 per cent in 1991. The Census, however, show that the work participation rate for females, after declining until 1971, has started increasing in recent times. It increased from 14.2 per cent in 1971 to 22.3 per cent in 1991 (Chart 5).



Chart 5: Trends in Work Participation Rate in India (Census Data)

Source: Census of India, various years.

Further disaggregation of the primary, secondary and tertiary sectors show that more than 80 per cent of female workers are engaged in the agricultural sector in rural India. There was a decline though between 53rd and 55th rounds of NSSO from 88.5 per cent to 85.4 per cent (Table 19). A diversion of female work participation from the primary sector to the tertiary sector in urban India may indicate that urban women have been able to take advantage of increased employment opportunities that came with the liberalisation policies. In urban areas, female work participation in the tertiary sector has increased significantly from 37.6 per cent in 1983 to 52.9 per cent in 1999-2000.

 Table 19. India: Sectoral Profile of Female Work Participation

 (In per cent)

		(11	i per cem	<u> </u>		
NSS		Rural			Urban	
round (year)	Primary	Secondary	Tertiary	Primary	Secondary	Tertiary
38(1983)	87.5	7.4	4.8	31.0	30.6	37.6
47(1991)	86.3	7.9	5.8	23.7	28.2	48.1
50(1993)	86.2	8.3	5.5	24.7	29.1	46.2
53(1997)	88.5	7.2	4.2	20.0	32.4	47.6
55 (1999)	85.4	8.9	5.7	17.7	29.3	52.9

Source:NSSO (1998), Report No.442, titled <u>Household Consumer Expenditure and Employment</u> <u>Situation in India 1997</u>, page 38 and NSSO (1999): <u>Employment and Unemployment in India1999</u>-2000 Key Results NSS 55th Round July 1999-June 2000

In the distribution of female work participation by status of employment, there is a pronounced declining trend in the importance of the self-employed category in both the rural and urban areas (Table 20). There has also been an increase in the *casualisation* of the women work force from 31.4 per cent in 1972-73 to 40.9 per cent in 1997 in rural

India, with a marginal decline to 39. 6 per cent in 1999-2000. In urban India, there is a reversal in the trend with an increase in the work participation of females under the regular employment category and a decline in the *casualisation* of labour.

An added dimension of women's employment pattern in India is the dominance of the unorganised sector. The unorganised sector refers to collection of those operating units whose activities are not regulated under any legal provisions (such as the Factories Act 1948) and/or which do not maintain any regular accounts. While the unorganised sector – providing as much as 91.5 per cent of total employment in the country in 1991 employs more males than the organised sector, it provided occupation to as much as 95.8 per cent of the total of 89.77 million women employed by both the sectors put together.

		r	<u>, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , </u>			
NSSO rounds (year)	Ru	ural		Urba	an	
	Self	Regular	Casual	Self	Regular	Casual
	Employed	Employees	Labourers	Employed	Employees	Labourers
27(1972-73)	64.5	4.1	31.4	48.4	27.9	23.1
32(1977-78)	62.1	2.8	35.1	49.5	24.9	25.0
38(1983)	61.9	2.8	35.3	45.8	25.8	28.
43(1987-88)	60.8	3.7	35.5	47.1	27.5	25.4
50(1993-94)	58.6	2.7	38.7	45.8	28.4	25.1
53(1997)	57.0	2.1	40.9	39.7	31.3	29.0
55 (1999-2000)	57.3	3.1	39.6	45.3	33.3	21.4

 Table 20. India: Distribution of Female Work Participation by Status of Employment (In per cent)

Source: (i). Report No.442, <u>Household Consumer Expenditure and Employment Situation in India 1997</u>, page 37, NSSO. GOL(ii) Report No.409, <u>Data on Employment and Unemployment in India</u>, page 73, NSSO, GOL(iii) NSSO (1999): <u>Employment and Unemployment in India 1999-2000</u> Key Results NSS 55th Round July 1999-June <u>2000</u>

The age-specific work participation rates reveal that women tend to enter the labour market later than men. In the age group of 15-29, participation of male is considerably higher than females, both in rural and urban India (Table 21). Female work participation in the 40-44 age group is 58.6 per cent in rural India and 28.3 per cent in urban India. The 15-59 age group is the most significant for work participation. But early marriages and multiple child-bearing are a major handicap for women of the 15-29 age group in their economic activities, pushing down their workforce participation rates. This is in contrast to most other developed and developing countries, where the age group 15-25 years exhibits a peak in women's workforce participation rates.

	<u> </u>	n per cent)		
	Rura	1	Url	ban
Age-group	Male	Female	Male	Female
5-9	0.6	0.7	0.3	0.2
10-14	9.1	9.6	4.9	3.6
15-19	50.3	30.4	31.4	10.5
20-24	84.4	40.9	65.8	15.5
25-29	95.0	49.1	88.3	19.4
30-34	97.9	55.5	96.0	23.5
35-39	98.4	57.9	97.5	28.5
40-44	98.3	58.6	97.4	28.3
45-49	98.0	56.6	96.9	26.7
50-54	95.3	51.5	93.5	26.2
55-59	92.9	45.0	80.9	20.7
60+	63.9	21.8	40.2	9.4

 Table 21. India: Age-specific Work Participation Rate

 (In per cent)

Source: NSSO (2000): Employment and Unemployment in India 1999-2000 Key Results 55th Round Data

Box 5 <u>Feminisation U</u>

The phenomenon of women being pulled into the labour force because of their cheap wage and flexibility, and substituting men in the work place is known as feminisation of Competitive pressures associated with structural reforms and external labour. liberalisation may have led to feminisation of labour in some countries.²⁴ But, evidence suggests that gender composition of the labour force exhibits a systemic change through long-term economic development anyway.²⁵ Women's "comparative advantage" as workers in export-oriented industries or export-processing zones (EPZ), with labourintensive production requiring little or no formal training, has been documented through A process of defeminisation resulting from the adoption of several case studies. techniques that require more "skilled" labour or greater mechanisation, however, reverses the feminisation of labour force associated with reform and an open trade regime. Cross country data pooled for 1985 and 1990, and analysed by Cağatay, et.al (1995) suggest that the relationship between women's share of the labour force and the process of long term economic development, and macroeconomic changes associated with structural adjustment is U-shaped, what she called as feminisation U.

²⁴ See Standing (1989), Ahmed (1994), N.Banerjee (1997) and N.Banerjee (1999).

²⁵ Çağatay and Şule (1995).

Wage rate

For 79 countries, the UNDP found the average ratio of female to male wages to be 71 per cent during 1970-92.²⁶ In India, according to the NSSO data, and as measured by Female Advantage Ratio (FAR), while the average female wage is almost 80 per cent of the male average in urban areas, in rural areas the female wage is less than 60 per cent of the corresponding male figure (Table 22). Only in the construction sector in rural India and transport and storage, and services in urban areas, the female wage rate is above the male rate with the FAR higher than 100. The gender difference in wage rate is the highest in the rural manufacturing sector, with a FAR of 43.14 per cent indicating that the female wage rate is less than a half of the male rate.

(Rupees per day)					
Rı	ıral	Urban			
Female in rupees per day	FAR in per cent	Female in rupees per day	FAR in per cent		
22.83	83.11	46.66	90.78		
41.28	54.32	64.11	67.78		
17.11	43.14	30.0	53.01		
33.41	58.34	58.47	75.11		
62.0	80.48	89.42	89.27		
68.57	109.84	38.22	54.09		
29.02	96.99	43.08	99.49		
46.44	78.71	77.01	103.69		
63.85	71.76	105.35	84.29		
1			: 1		
43.3	59.24	63.07	72.03		
34.89	59.66	62.31	79.76		
	Rt Female in rupces per day 22.83 41.28 17.11 33.41 62.0 68.57 29.02 46.44 63.85 43.3	Rural Female in rupces per day FAR in per cent 22.83 83.11 41.28 54.32 17.11 43.14 33.41 58.34 62.0 80.48 68.57 109.84 29.02 96.99 46.44 78.71 63.85 71.76 43.3 59.24	$\begin{tabular}{ c c c c c c c } \hline Rural & Urit \\ \hline Female in & FAR in per & Female in \\ \hline rupces per & cent & rupces per \\ \hline day & & & & \\ \hline 22.83 & 83.11 & 46.66 \\ \hline 41.28 & 54.32 & 64.11 \\ \hline 17.11 & 43.14 & 30.0 \\ \hline 33.41 & 58.34 & 58.47 \\ \hline 62.0 & 80.48 & 89.42 \\ \hline 68.57 & 109.84 & 38.22 \\ \hline 29.02 & 96.99 & 43.08 \\ \hline 46.44 & 78.71 & 77.01 \\ \hline 63.85 & 71.76 & 105.35 \\ \hline 43.3 & 59.24 & 63.07 \\ \hline \end{tabular}$		

Table 22.	India:	Gender	Differences	in	Wage 1	Rates
		(\mathbf{R}_{11})	e nor day)			

Note: (i) Wage/salary earnings pertain to regular wage employees in 15-59 age group.

(ii). FAR is the female wage rate as a ratio of male wage rate (in per cent). Source: 50th round NSS data, 1993-94. <u>Report No. 409</u>, NSSO, Government of India.

²⁶ Technical Notes, <u>Human Development Report</u>, 1995, p. 131.

Chapter 4 Fiscal Policy and Gender Development Link: An Econometric Analysis

The genesis of gender disparity is complex. It has its roots in the intra-household decision-making process and allocation of resources. Intra-household allocation of resources is in turn influenced by market signals and institutional norms that do not capture the full benefits to society of investing in women²⁷. Given this reality, can fiscal policies work to compensate the market failures in the area of gender equality? Does public expenditure make an impact on gender development? Since there is a contemporaneous transformation of many socio-economic and policy variables that result in gendered development, it is a difficult task to establish a bivariate link between the two. However, an analysis of macrolink between public expenditure and gender development would enable us to realise whether the money spent by government. especially on human resource development, is transformed to the end results of better gender-sensitive indicators. This chapter undertakes an econometric exercise to verify whether there is any link between fiscal policy and gender development.

4.1 Interpreting the Data

Apart from the four major countries in South Asia, namely Bangladesh, India, Pakistan and Sri Lanka, the sample includes Australia, Canada, Norway, Sweden, United Kingdom and United States to represent countries with high GDI, China, Indonesia. Malaysia, and South Korea to represent Asian countries outside South Asia, and Gambia to represent countries with low GDI outside South Asia. The data used are for 1993. 1994 and 1995. The data on Gender-related Development Index was compiled from the UNDP Human Development Reports, while data on public spending on health and education in US dollar terms (in '000) and relevant population figures are compiled from World Development Indicators database. The public expenditure on education for Bangladesh is taken from *Key Indicators of Developing Asian and Pacific Countries*. *1999* of the Asian Development Bank.

India's overall ranking on gender-related development is poor, even in comparison with the country's human development levels. Her Gender Development Index (GDI) (Box 6) is lower than that for all developing countries as well as the GDI for all countries except Pakistan in the medium human development group to which she belongs (Table 23). Low GDI reflects gender disparity in basic capabilities because of lack of education and health standards. The gender development index of Canada and the Nordic countries like Sweden and Norway are the highest in the world, with the index close to unity.

²⁷ World Bank (1995)

Country	1993	1994	1995
Canada	0.927	0.939	0.94
Australia	0.912	0.917	0.918
Bangladesh	0.336	0.339	0.342
China	0.601	0.617	0.641
India	0.41	0.419	0.424
Indonesia	0.616	0.642	0.651
Malaysia	0.772	0.782	0.785
Norway	0.926	0.934	0.935
Sri Lanka	0.679	0.694	0.7
Sweden	0.929	0.932	0.932
United Kingdom	0.886	0.896	0.907
United States	0.923	0.928	0.927
Gambia, The	0.275	0.263	0.277
Pakistan	0.383	0.392	0.399
Korea, Rep.	0.816	0.826	0.826

 Table 23: Gender Development Index

Source: UNDP, Human Development Reports, relevant years

Table 24 showed that public expenditure on health as a proportion of GDP in Canada and Sweden are at similar levels of around 7 per cent, with a marginal declining trend over the years. This allocation is much higher than that of developing countries, but also of other developed countries. Canada has a predominantly publicly-financed, privately-delivered health care system. It provides universal accessibility and a comprehensive coverage for medically necessary hospital, in-patient and out-patient physician services²⁸.

The allocation on health in developing countries in general is much lower than that of developed countries. Among the developing countries, India's public expenditure on health is as low as less than 1 per cent of GDP, which is lower than that of Bangladesh, Pakistan, China, Malaysia and Sri Lanka (Table 24). The public health expenditure in India is mainly on communicable disease control programmes, family welfare schemes and nutrition schemes.

²⁸ The federal and provincial governments have shared responsibility in health care in Canada. The federal government is responsible for setting and administering national principles or standards for the health care system, assisting in the financing of provincial health care services through fiscal transfers while provincial governments are responsible for managing and delivering health services; planning, financing, and evaluating the provision of hospital care, physician and allied health care services: managing some aspects of prescription care and public health (www.hc-se.gc.ca).

	- inpendicure	on meann as a	percent of OD
Country	1993	1994	1995
Sweden	7.66	7.39	7.08
Canada	7.34	7.05	6.7
Norway	6.71	6.62	6.66
United States	6.08	6.29	6.47
United Kingdom	5.85	5.81	5.83
Australia	5.66	5.64	5.65
Korea, Rep.	2.06	2.01	2.14
China	2.05	2.06	1.92
Gambia, The	1.83	1.81	1.72
Sri Lanka	1.41	1.59	1.64
Malaysia	1.45	1.31	1.26
Bangladesh	1.13	1.16	1.15
Pakistan	0.98	0.96	1.02
India	0.71	0.69	0.65
Indonesia	0.67	0.66	0.63

Table 24: Public Expenditure on Health as a percent of GDP

Source: World Development Indicators database & Key Indicators of Developing Asian and Pacific Countries, 1999 of Asian Development Bank

The pattern of public expenditure on education showed that the Nordic countries, like Sweden and Norway spent on education at around 8 per cent of GDP. Public expenditure on education in Canada is at around 7 per cent of GDP is comparable to that of Nordic countries (Table 25).

Country	1993	1994	1995
United States	5.26	5.36	
Canada	7.22	6.91	••
Bangladesh			••
Norway	8.17	8.25	8.08
Sweden		7.96	8.07
Gambia, The	5.06	5.35	5.61
Australia	5.56	5.38	5.45
United Kingdom	5.48	5.42	5.33
Malaysia	5.15	5.18	4.68
Korea, Rep.	4.43	3.7	3.68
India	3.58	3.54	3.31
Sri Lanka	3.14	3.2	3.04
Pakistan	2.6	2.79	2.8
China	1.86	2.4	2.27
Indonesia	1.78	1.42	1.4

Table 25: Public Expenditure on Education as per cent of GDP

Source: World Development Indicators database & Key Indicators of Developing Asian and Pacific Countries, 1999 of Asian Development Bank.

Box 6 Gender Development Index

The Human Development Index [HD1] is a gender-neutral measure of the average achievements of a country in three basic dimensions of human development: longevity, knowledge, and a decent standard of living. Longevity is measured by life expectancy at birth, knowledge by adult literacy and the combined gross primary, secondary and tertiary enrolment ratio, and standard of living by Gross Domestic Product (GDP) per capita in US dollars in purchasing power parity (PPP) terms.

Let L denote life expectancy at birth in years, A adult literacy as per cent, E combined gross primary, secondary and tertiary enrolment ratio in per cent, and Y per capita GDP in PPP US dollar terms. The value of each variable for a country is transformed into its deviation from the minimum possible value of the variable expressed as a proportion of the maximum deviation possible, i.e. maximum less minimum. Thus, after transformation we have

$$L^* = (L-25)/(85-25), \Lambda^* = \Lambda/100, E^* = E/100, and Y^* = (Y - min Y)(max Y - min Y).$$

Given the minimum life expectancy for women and men of 27.5 years and 22.5 years, respectively, the average minimum life expectancy is taken as 25 [-(27.5 + 22.5)/2]. Similarly, maximum life expectancy is taken as 85. The maximum and minimum of both adult literacy and enrollment are taken as 100 and 0, respectively. The maximum and minimum for Y are exogenously fixed. HDI is computed as

$$\{L^* + (2/3 \times \Lambda^* + 1/3 \times E^*) + Y^*\}/3.$$

The Gender Development Index (GDI) uses the same variables as HDI, but adjusts for the degree of disparity in achievement across genders. The average value of each of the component variables is substituted by "equally distributed equivalent achievements". The equally distributed equivalent achievement for a variable is taken as that level of achievement that if attained equally by women and men would be judged to be exactly as valuable socially as the actually observed disparate achievements. Taking an additively separable, symmetric and constant elasticity marginal valuation function with elasticity 2, the equally distributed equivalent achievement X_{ede} for any variable X turns out to be

$$X_{ede} = [n_f (1/X_f) + n_m (1/X_m)]^{-1}$$

where X_f and X_m are the values of the variable for females and males, and n_f and n_m are the population shares of females and males. X_{ede} is a 'gender-equity-sensitive indicator' (GESI).

Thus, for this chosen value of 2 for the constant elasticity marginal valuation function, GDI is computed as

$$L_{ede} + (2/3 \times \Lambda_{ede} + 1/3 \times E_{ede}) + Y_{ede} \}/3.$$

Contrary to the pattern in public expenditure on health, India has a better status in relation to the public expenditure on education. India's public expenditure on education, at around 3 per cent of GDP, is higher than that of other developing countries like Indonesia, Sri Lanka, Pakistan and China. In India, elementary education has been given a greater priority relative to secondary and higher education.

4.2 Specification of the Model and Econometric Results

To examine the relationship between the GDI and public expenditure on education and health, the model was first specified in the following form:

 $GDI_{it} = \alpha_i + \beta PUBE_{it} + \gamma PUBH_{it} + u_{it}$

where GDI it Gender Development Index of country i at time t,

 α_i country-specific intercepts for country i,

PUBE_{it} - per capita public expenditure on education in thousands

of US dollars in country i at time t,

PUBH $_{it}$ \sim per capita public expenditure on health in thousands of

US dollars in country i at time t.

The estimation of this fixed effects model of pooled least squares with white heteroskedasticity-consistent standard errors showed a significant positive relationship between per capita public expenditure on health and GDI, while the impact of per capita expenditure on education on GDI was insignificant. This result, which is contrary to the a priori belief that per capita public expenditure on both health and education have a salutary effect on GDI, turned out to be, on closer scrutiny, on account of a strong correlation between public expenditure on health and on education. The problem of multicollinearity is evident from the estimated results of the model

PUBE_{it} = $\alpha_i + \beta$ PUBH_{it} + u_{it}

presented in Table 26.

A rank correlation of 0.95 between per capita public expenditure on health and on education corroborated the problem of including both variables at the same time for explaining GDI.

Table 26. Relation between Per-capita Public Expenditure on Education and on Health

Fixed Effects Model

Dependent Variable: Per-capita Public Expenditure on Education

	Coefficient	t-value
Per-capita public expenditure on health	0.33	5.91
Country-specific fixed effects		
Australia	656.39	10.52
Bangladesh	4.52	4.22
Canada	956.2	11.49
China	6.95	6.31
Gambia	16.46	25.36
India	11.44	34.18
Indonesia	11.56	16.69
Korea	287.53	18.22
Malaysia	156.37	19.21
Norway	1803.06	14.34
Pakistan	10.84	19.13
Sri Lanka	16.81	23.93
Sweden	1331.9	13.36
UK	653.25	11.28
USA	844.93	9.4
Adjusted R ²	0.99	

Significant at 1 per cent level of significance.

In the light of these econometric problems, the model specification was modified to have the combined public expenditure on health and education in per capita terms as the explanatory variable as follows:

$$GDI_{it} = \alpha_i + \beta PUB_{it} + u_{it}$$

where

PUB_{it} per capita combined public expenditure on health and education

in thousands of US dollars in country i at time t.

The results presented in Table 27 revealed that combined public expenditure on education and health in per capita terms has a significant positive effect on GDI. An increase in per capita combined expenditure on health and education of US\$1,000 tend to raise GDI by 0.02 percentage points.

Table 27. Effect of Per-capita Combined Public Expenditure on Education and
Health on GDIFixed Effects Model

	Coefficient	t-value
Per capita expenditure on health and	0.02	2.24
education		
Country-specific Intercepts		
Australia	0.88	58.12
Bangladesh	0.34	190.49
Canada	0.89	41.38
China	0.62	51.5
Gambia	0.27	59.77
India	0.41	98.34
Indonesia	0.64	58.4
Korea	0.81	151.38
Malaysia	0.78	180.41
Norway	0.86	26.37
Pakistan	0.39	81.57
Sri Lanka	0.69	106.94
Sweden	0.87	32.26
UK	0.86	55.41
USA	0.88	40.95
Adjusted R ²	0.99	

Dependent Variable: Gender Development Index

Adjusted R^{*} T Significant at 1 per cent level of significance.

The results of estimating the model in a semi-log form, that is

 $GDI_{it} = \alpha_i + \beta \ln(PUB_{it}) + u_{it}$

presented in Table 28 also corroborate the positive association. One percent increase in per capita expenditure on education and health leads to 0.06 points increase in GDI across countries.

Table 28. Effect of Per-capita Combined Public Expenditure on Education andIlealth on GDI (Semi-log model)Fixed Effects Model

	Coefficient	t-value
Log of per capita expenditure on health	0.06^{1}	3.15
and education		
Country-specific Intercepts		
Australia	0.48	3.54
Bangladesh	0.22	5.47
Canada	0.49	3.4
China	0.45	8.79
Gambia	0.09	1.57
India	0.27	5.5
Indonesia	0.47	8.72
Korea	0.47	4.12
Malaysia	0.47	4.89
Norway	0.46	3.03
Pakistan	0.23	4.55
Sri Lanka	0.49	8.09
Sweden	0.47	3.17
UK	0.47	3.41
USA	0.47	3.31
Adjusted R ²	0.99	

Dependent Variable: Gender Development Index

¹Significant at 1 per cent level of significance.

Public expenditure on health and education can be expected to influence GDI over a period of time. The specified models by abstracting from the lagged effect of such expenditure on GDI may have a downward bias in the estimated effect, but the dynamics of the impact could not be estimated because of data problems.

4.3 Interpreting Results and Conclusion

The chapter examined the impact of social sector public expenditure on gender development across countries. Using fixed effects model of pooled least squares for the early 1990s, the analysis of link between per capita combined expenditure on health and education and GDI revealed that there is a positive functional relationship between the two. This result is in confirmation with the trend that public expenditure on human capital formation, despite the constraints of intra-household disparities in resource allocation, public expenditure, especially on human capital formation, gets transformed to the end results of better gender-sensitive indicators. In other words, the public policy stance plays a crucial role in redressing gender inequalities across countries.

Chapter 5 Impact of Union Budgets 2001-02 and 2002-03 on Women

After analysing the status of women and the contribution of women to the economy in India, the natural step in gender budgeting is to move on to an analysis of the impact of government budgets on women. This is particularly important as public expenditure and revenue mobilization policies of governments can have significant gender-differentiated impacts. In the three-tier federal set up of India, ideally one should look at such expenditure and revenue policies of all three levels of government at the Central, State and local levels. This is a task that is beyond the scope of this report. In this report, we focus on the analysis of the Union Budget, that is, the budget of the Central government – 2001-02 and 2002-03.

A set of three women-specific programmes was announced in Union Budget. 2001-02. These consisted of (i) strengthening of Rashtriya Mahila Kosh (RMK) for providing microcredit to poor assetless women through NGOs; (ii) an integrated scheme for women's empowerment in 650 blocks through women's self help groups; and (iii) a new scheme for women in difficult circumstances like widows of Vrindavan, Kashi and other places, destitute women and other disadvantaged women groups (para 67, Part A, Union Budget Speech, 2001-02). Similarly, in Union Budget 2002-03, there were three specific initiatives for women: (i) an increase in the plan allocation for Department of Women and Child Development by 33 per cent to Rs. 2200 crores, (ii) at least 100 scholarships per year to be provided by the Department of Science and Technology to women scientists and technologists, and (iii) National Nutrition Mission to provide foodgrains at subsidised rates to adolescent girls and expectant and nursing mothers below poverty line through the Integrated Child Development Services (ICDS) structure (para 69, 70 and 71, Part A, Union Budget Speech, 2001-02).

Going by the above significant pronouncements on gender in these two Union Budgets for the first time in India, coupled with the priority already set in the Ninth Five Year Plan, it was generally expected that at least beginning from 2001, the 'Year of Women's Empowerment', the Government would highlight the budgetary provisions by quantifying the pro-women budgetary allocations in the composite programmes under various ministries. It was also expected that, *inter alia*, the government would also set out the physical targets to be achieved and start monitoring the achievements against them. Scanning through the Union Budgets, 2001-02 and 2002-03, it is observed that not much has been attempted in this regard. In fact, by and large, no presentational change has been effected in these two Union Budgets from the usual procedure of *monitoring input rather than outcome* and the problem of *proliferation of too many programmes with too little money* continue. Apart from the women specific programmes (all of which are ongoing). no (corrective) action has been initiated to identify the girls/women-related provisions in the composite programmes and schemes. The aim of this chapter is to carry out a post-Budget assessment of progress towards achieving a set of budgetary allocation and implementation to improve the economic status of women in the country. This is particularly relevant with the new information about the socio-economic position of women, relative to men, that have come out in Census 2001, and have been discussed in Chapter 2. A post-budget assessment from gender perspective stands relevant in the light of facilitating a more informed debate on gender issues in the Parliament during the discussion on Demand for Grants and among the citizens in general.

The Demands for Grants are normally taken up for consideration by Parliament in two distinct stages. First, during the recess of Parliament, by the Departmental Standing Committees attached to various Ministries/Departments. Later, on Parliament's reassembling, the Demands are formally debated in the backdrop of the Reports of the Standing Committees and put to vote. Specific hours are allotted for these discussions. The Demands of Ministries that are to be discussed and voted are formally listed. These number only a few, and all the other Demands are finally guillotined and passed on the conclusion of the debate.

The Standing Committee of Ministry of Human Resource Development (HRD) has severely criticized the Government for its tendency to scuttle the entire social services sector. Their Report on Demand for Grants mentioned that it is highly objectionable that the social services sector was facing additional drastic reductions every year in the revised estimates. It also highlighted the trajectory of underutilisation of funds, lack of monitoring mechanisms and suggested that the schemes should be included in the Budgets only after they have secured approval of all concerned Departments.

The plan of the chapter is as follows: Sections 5.1 and 5.2 provide highlights of Union Budget 2001-02 and 2002-03 in terms of Gender Budgeting; while Section 5.3 attempts a gender-sensitive analysis of Expenditure Budgets since 1995-96. Taxation and subsidies issues are discussed in Section 5.4.

5.1 Union Budget, 2001-02 Highlights in terms of Gender Budgeting

The three specific programmes for women referred to by the Finance Minister in his Budget Speech in 2001-02 are strengthening of RMK, integrated scheme for women and a new scheme for women in difficult circumstances. Other women specific schemes that can be highlighted from the Expenditure Budget, 2001-02 are Nutrition Schemes for Women and Children, National Maternity Benefit Scheme, and Mahila Samriddhi Yojana.

i. Strengthening microfinance facility for women

RMK is the premier micro-finance organization for women set up by the Department of Women and Child Development, Govt. of India with a corpus fund of Rs.31 crores in 1993. The main objective of RMK is to offer non-subsidised credits to poor women through NGOs and Women's Economic Development Corporations. A NABARD study noted that, due to the entry of the intermediate layer of these NGOs/ Self Help Groups (SIIGs) in the microfinance sector of India, there has been a 40 per cent reduction in the transaction costs of banks²⁹. Borrower's transaction costs have gone down by 85 per cent with the elimination of complex documentation and other procedures. There has been a substantial reduction in time and cost incurred in repeated visits to banks. Evidently, RMK can play an important role in strengthening microfinance institutions in India and improving women's access to credit.

Looking beyond the initiative mentioned in the budget speech to strengthen RMK. it is surprising to note that the total budgetary allocation for RMK has declined from Rs. 3 crores in 2000-01 BE to Rs. 1 crore in 2001-02 BE. The allocation of Rs. 1 crore in Budget, 2001-02 is even lower than the 2000-01 revised estimates (RE) of Rs. 1.5 crores. However, Expenditure Budget, 2001-02 mentioned the need to augment the corpus of RMK in the light of growing demand for RMK-assistance. It was proposed to raise RMK's corpus fund very substantially for which the approval of the Expenditure Finance Committee (EFC) was being sought by the Department of Women and Child Development. The budgetary support is expected to be raised suitably on the proposal being approved 30 .

The Ninth Plan envisaged the need for a credit policy to increase women's access to credit. In India, major problems faced by women in access to credit arc lack of collateral or security, illiteracy, traditional gender bias of bank officials and other socioeconomic factors. Several cross-country reports have highlighted that less than 15 per cent of bank loans for microenterprises have gone to such enterprises run by women³¹. Central government sponsored poverty alleviation and self employment schemes which cater to the credit needs of women entrepreneurs in India are shown in Box 7.

²⁹ NGO/SHG intermediation has eased a lot of delivery obstacles by externalising a part of bank's responsibilities in the spheres of identification of clients, assessment of their risk profile, loan monitoring and recovery, which in turn result in reduction in transaction cost (http://www.gdrc.org/iem/nanda-5.html).

³⁰ EFC met in December 2001 and approved the proposal to raise the corpus of RMK to Rs.100 crore. But it would be strictly need-based. Presently, it's corpus is Rs,51 crores and their disbursements this year would be of the order of Rs. 25 erore, which they can obviously manage within the existing corpus. Once their disbursements exceed Rs. 51 crore they would need budgetary support from the Government to the extent of the shortfall in their resources. As it is, they do not require any support from the Government. The provision shown in budget (of Rs.1 erore) is just token which is unlikely to be utilised for the intended purpose (information provided by DWCD). ³¹ Cited in Government of India Report (2000) on *Strengthening of Credit Delivery to Women Particularly*.

in Tiny and SSI Sector.

ii. Integrated Scheme for Women Empowerment with a new scheme for women in difficult situations.

The year 2001 was declared as Women's Empowerment Year in India. In the backdrop of 2001, the 'Year of Women's Empowerment', the Finance Minister, in his budget speech, declared the launching of an integrated scheme for women's empowerment in 650 blocks through women's self help groups. Since gender inequality is deep-rooted in poverty and patriarchy, the empowerment of women is seen to be the key effort to reduce such inequalities, "which has had enormous impact in terms of literacy, health and economic wellbeing of families"³².

Integrated Scheme for Women's Empowerment include provision for schemes on Prevention of Atrocitics on Women, National Resource Centre for Women, Distance Education Training Programme for Women Empowerment along with two new schemes of Celebration of Women's Empowerment Year 2001 and women in difficult circumstances. There was a quantum jump in the outlay for the programmes for women's welfare from Rs. 3.61 crores in 2000-01 RE to Rs. 19.89 crores in 2001-02 BE due to the introduction of two news schemes viz., Celebration of Women's Empowerment Year 2001, and women in difficult circumstances like widows of Vrindavan, Kashi and other places, destitute women and other disadvantaged women groups.

iii. Other women-specific schemes highlighted in Budget 2001-02

a. Nutrition Schemes for Women and Children

Despite the progress in the health status of women and children over the years, malnutrition remains a silent emergency in India. The nutritional status of children under three years calculated on the basis of anthropometric data by NF1IS-2, 2000 revealed that around half of the children are underweight, and 45.3 per cent male and 48.9 per cent female children are disadvantaged nutritionally. Malnutrition reduces the productivity of investment in education and acts as a major barrier to socio-economic progress of a nation.

In India, several programmes were introduced to tackle the malnutrition problem. This includes the National Mid-day Meals Program, the Integrated Child Development Services (ICDS) program, the Public Distribution System (PDS) and the 'food for work' employment schemes. However, the quality and coverage of these programmes were not adequate to meet the needs of the entire poor segment of the population.

³² Prime Minister's message, Women's Empowerment Year 2001.

BOX 7 Government Schemes Catering to Credit Facilities of Women

- 1. **Prime Minister's Rozgar Yojana (PMRY):** PMRY is a subsidy-linked self employment scheme launched on 2nd October 1993 for providing employment to educated unemployed in the age group of 18 to 35 years (10) year relaxation in the upper age limit for women) in rural and urban India through setting up of micro enterprises. Under PMRY, there is no separate target for women, but women beneficiaries and other weaker sections would be given preference. No collateral is required for projects upto Rs. 1 lakh. Beneficiary is required to bring in 5 per cent as margin money and Government provides subsidy of 15 per cent of the project cost. The ceiling on subsidy is Rs. 7500 in States and Union Territories (Rs. 15, 000 for North East). A study by Banking Division, Ministry of Finance (2000) noted that out of total sanction and disbursement under PMRY Scheme for the period 1996-97 to 1998-99, percentage of sanction to women comes out to be 10.9, 10.8 and 11.2 and percentage of disbursement to women comes to 9.6, 10.5 and 11.1 respectively.
- 2. Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP): IRDP, a centrally sponsored scheme implemented in all the blocks in India with effect from October 2nd 1980 upto 31st March 1999, with a sub target group of 40 per cent prescribed to women under this scheme. It was observed that around 34 per cent of the credit was disbursed to women under this scheme for the years 1996-97, 1997-98 and 1998-99. Development of Women and Child in Rural Areas (DWCRA) was a sub scheme of IRDP, which was to provide income generating assets and activities to poor women in rural areas and inculcate in them the habit of thrift. In addition to benefits of loan subsidy to individual members, each group of women under DWCRA was given a lump sum grant of Rupees twenty five thousand as Revolving Fund for meeting working capital requirements. This scheme has been merged with Swarnajayanti Gram Swarozgar Yojana (SGSY) with effect from 1st April 1999.
- 3. Swarnajayanti Gram Swarozgar Yojana (SGSY): SGSY was launched on April 1999 by Ministry of Rural Development, Government of India, replacing the existing schemes viz. IRDP, TRYSEM, DWCRA, Supply of Improved Toolkits to Rural Artisans (SITRA), Ganga Kalyan Yojana (GKY) and Million Wells Scheme (MWS). The aim of SWSY is to bring every assisted family above the poverty line within three years by providing them with income generating assets through a mix of bank credit and government subsidy. The scheme is funded on a 75:25 basis by Centre and States and is implemented through Panchayat Samitis. Subsidy is uniform at 30 per cent of the project cost subject to a maximum of Rs. 7500. Sub targets stipulated for borrowers are at least 50 per cent to SC/STs, 40 per cent to women and 3 per cent to physically handicapped.
- 4. Swarna Jayanti Shahari Rozgar Yojana (SJSRY): SJSRY was launched on 1st December 1997 in all urban and semi-urban towns of India with two important subschemes where bank credit is involved, viz. Urban Self Employment Programme (USEP) and Development of Women and Children in Urban Areas (DWCUA). Under the scheme, women are assisted to the extent of not less than 30 per cent, disabled at 3 per cent and SC/STs at least to the extent of the proportion of their strength in the local population. The scheme is funded on a 75:25 basis between the centre and the states. Under USEP, educated (upto ninth standard) unemployed youth whose annual family income is below the poverty line are assisted with bank loans. Projects costing upto Rs. 50000 are financed by banks. Subsidy is provided by the Government at 15 per cent of the project cost subject to a maximum of Rs. 7500. Under DWCUA, women beneficiaries may take up self employment ventures in groups The group is entitled to a subsidy of Rs. 1, 25,000 or 50 per cent of the project cost which ever is less.
- 5. Differential Rate of Interest Scheme (DRI): Under DRI scheme, banks provide finance at a concessional rate of interest of 4 per cent per annum to the weaker sections of the community including SC/ST women for engaging in productive activities which improve their economic conditions.

Source: Government of India Report (2000): "Strengthening of Credit Delivery to Women Particularly in Tiny and SSI Sector", Banking Division, Department of Economic Affairs, Ministry of Finance.

In light of the proposal to launch the *National Nutrition Mission* to address the problem of malnutrition in a holistic manner, there was an increase in the Plan outlay of Rs. 4 crores in 2001-02 BE from Rs. 2.9 crores in 2000-01 BE. This mission aims to create nutritional awareness among women and children, and also eradicate malnutrition in a time-bound fashion.

b. National Maternity Benefit Scheme

The National Maternity Benefit Scheme (NMBS) is one of the three components of a composite National Social Assistance Programme launched on August 15, 1995. The two other components are the National Old Age Pension Scheme (NOAPS) and National Family Benefits Scheme (NFBS) under the Ministry of Rural Development.

From 2001-02, National Maternity Benefit Scheme has been transferred to the Department of Family Welfare. A provision of Rs. 80 errores was made for this Scheme during 2001-02, out of which Rs 8 errores was earmarked for North East region. However, the allocation for the programme remained almost unchanged from the earlier year.

c. Merging Mahila Samriddhi Yojana with Indira Mahila Yojana.

The Mahila Samiriddhi Yojana (MSY), a Central Plan Scheme, was created to foster saving among rural women through the network of post offices. Under this scheme, every adult rural woman is encouraged to have an MSY account of her own in the Post Office into which she may deposit whatever amount of money she can save. For an amount of upto Rs. 300 in a year with one year lock-in-period, Government contributes 25 per cent.

The total allocation for MSY declined from Rs. 15 crores in 2000-01 BE to Rs. 8 crores in 2001-02 BE. MSY was merged with Indira Mahila Yojana (IMY). The IMY was launched in 1995-96 on a pilot basis in 200 blocks of the country.

The MSY-IMY was renamed as 'Integrated Women's Empowerment Programme'. Lesser requirements for reimbursement of operational expenses to Department of Posts accounted for the reduced provision in the Budget. Since 2000-01, the new women beneficiaries under IWEP were estimated at 9,29,250 (*Performance Budget of DWCD, 2001-02, page 36*).

5.2 UNION BUDGET, 2002-03 HIGHLIGHTS IN TERMS OF GENDER BUDGETING

The three specific programmes for women referred to by the Finance Minister in his Budget Speech in 2002-03 are an increase in the plan allocation for Department of Women and Child Development (DWCD) by 33 per cent to Rs. 2200 erores; at least 100 scholarships a year to be provided by Department of Science and Technology to women scientists and technologists; and National Nutrition Mission to provide foodgrains at subsidized rates to adolescent girls and expectant and nursing mothers below the poverty line through the ICDS structure. Other women specific schemes which can be highlighted from the Expenditure Budget, 2002-03 are increased allocations for schemes that ensure greater participation of women in economic activity, strengthening of schemes that address domestic violence and convergence/winding up of schemes on the basis of Zero Based Budgeting.

(i) 33 per cent hike in allocation of DWCD

There is an increase in the plan allocation for DWCD by 33 per cent from Rs. 1650 erores in 2001-02 to Rs.2200 erores in 2002-03. Of this additional Rs. 550 erores. Rs. 345.52 erores was carmarked for the child welfare schemes and Rs. 204.48 erores for the women's welfare schemes (Table 29). Out of Rs. 345.52 erores, ICDS received an increased provision of Rs. 244.24 erores to meet the enhanced proposed honorarium of *anganwadi* workers and helpers and also for the universalisation of ICDS scheme³³ (Table 29). ICDS is an integrated package of health, nutrition and educational services to children upto six years of age, pregnant women and nursing mothers. It includes supplementary nutrition, immunization, health check-up, referral services, nutrition and health education and non-informal pre-school education.

Plan allocation	2001-02BE	2001-02RE	2002-03RE	
DWCD	(i)	(ii)	(iii)	(iii)-(i)
Child Welfare	1475.20	1507.19	1820.72	345.52
Women's Welfare	174.80	142.81	379.28	204.48
Total	1650.00	1650.00	2200.00	550.00

 Table 29: Distribution of Plan Allocation in DWCD

 among Children and Women (Rs. crores)

Source: Budget Documents, 2002-03

In budget 2002-03, an additional allocation of around Rs. 3 crores each has been provided for Day Care Centres and NIPCCD (National Institute of Public Co-operation

³³ World Bank assisted ICDS Projects received an allocation of Rs. 288.48 crores in the 2002-03 budget. Project Udisha- World Bank assisted Training programme- launched in April 1999 is a crucial element in the ICDS programme. This training is being undertaken through NIPCCD, other training institutes and State Governments. An increased allocation of Rs. 62 crores was made in budget 2002-03 for the training programmes under ICDS as against an allocation of Rs. 40 crores in the previous budget.

and Child Development) while with the universalisation of ICDS, the schemes like Balwadi Nutrition Programs and Early Childhood Education-Assistance have been wounded up under the Zero Based Budgeting exercise (Table 30). A point to be noted here is that in addition to the plan component noted in the Table 30, Day Care Centres also has a non-plan component of Rs. 15 crores in the budget 2002-03 as against Rs. 14.5 crores in the previous budget. This scheme aims to provide child care services for children below 5 years, to ensure greater participation of women in economic activity. Though no plan allocation has been made for the scheme *Contribution to UNICEF*, a non-plan provision is made annually for meeting the administrative expenditure of the UNICEF office in New Delhi and also India's contribution to the UNICEF. A marginal decline is noted in the non-plan allocation of this programme from Rs.4 crores in budget 2001-02 to Rs. 3.89 crores in budget 2002-03.

 Table 30: Scheme-wise Decomposition of Plan Allocation for Child Welfare

 Programmes. (Rs. crores)

Plan Allocation	2001-02BE	2001-02RE	2002-03BE	
Child Welfare Programmes	(i)	(ii)	(iii)	(iii)-(i)
ICDS	1198.00	1217.54	1442.24	244.24
World Bank Assisted ICDS	220.00	220.00	288.48	68.48
Training Programme under ICDS	40.00	55.00	62.00	22.00
Day Care Centres	7.45	7.45	10.80	3.35
Balwadi Nutrition Programme	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.00
Contribution to UNICEF	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Early Childhood Education-Voluntary Org.	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.00
NIPCCD	2.50	2.50	5.50	3.00
Other Schemes	7.23	4.70	11.70	4.47
Total	1475.20	1507.19	1820.72	345.52

Source: Budget Documents

(ii). Lumpsum provision for women specific schemes for North East & Sikkim

Apart from the quantum jump in the allocation for child welfare schemes under DWCD, a lumpsum provision of Rs. 220 erore for schemes that benefit North Eastern Region and Sikkim has been made in the budget 2002-03 up from Rs.0.01 erore in the previous budget. The point to be noted here is that in 2001-02 budget, though a provision of Rs. 165 erore had been earmarked for the North Eastern areas including Sikkim, instead of putting the entire amount in a single head of account, the provision of North Eastern areas and Sikkim in the 2001-02 budget were distributed under the individual account heads of various schemes of child welfare (Rs. 155 erore) and rest to the women's welfare schemes (Rs. 10 erore). This was consciously done to avoid the administrative and procedural difficulties faced during the previous financial year in reappropriating the amount from the account head of North East to the account head of the specific schemes on which the amount had to be spent.

(iii) Increased allocation for Schemes that ensure greater participation of women in economic activity

In budget 2002-03, there is an increased allocation for the programmes like Support Training and Employment Programme (STEP), Working Women Hostels, Swasakthi and NORAD funded Training-cum-Production Centres that ensure greater participation of women in economic activity.

Plan Allocation	BE	RE	BE
Department of Women & Child Development	2001-02	2001-02	2002-03
Balika Samridhi Yojana	25.00	16.00	0.00
Condensed courses for women education	2.00	2.00	1.80
Hostels for working women	9.00	7.00	13.50
Support to Training & Employment Programme (STEP)	18.00	18.00	23.00
Mahila Samriddhi Yojana	8.00	7.35	0.00
Socio-economic programmes	1.00	1.00	0.00
Central Social Welfare Board	15.00	15.00	14.40
Training-cum-Production Centres	18.00	18.00	22.00
Short Stay Homes	10.00	10.00	13.50
Awareness Generation Programme	4.00	4.00	3.80
National Commission for women	5.00	5.00	5.40
Swashakti project	15.00	15.00	25.00
Rashtriya Mahila Kosh	1.00	1.00	1.00
Indira Mahila Yojana	19.50	6.78	0.00
Swayamsiddha	0.00	0.22	18.50
Swadhar	0.00	0.00	13.50
National Nutrition Mission	0.00	0.00	1,00
Nutrition schemes for women and children	4.00	3.95	2.80
Lumpsum for schemes in the NE region & Sikkim	0.01	0.01	220.00
Other programmes for women's welfare	19.79	12.00	0.58
ICDS and other Child Welfare Schemes	1475.20	1507.19	1820.72
Total Allocation on Women's Welfare Programmes (excluding Child Welfare Schemes)	174.30	142.31	379.28
Total allocation on Women and Child Welfare Schemes	1649.50	1649.50	2200.00

Table 31: Scheme-wise Decomposition of 33 per cent increase in plan allocation for DWCD

Source: Budget Documents, 2002-03

The allocation for STEP has been stepped up by Rs. 5 erore from Rs. 18 erore in 2001-02 to Rs. 23 erore in 2002-03 to provide greater participation of women in the traditional economic sectors such as agriculture, animal husbandry, dairying, fisheries, handlooms and handicrafts, and in turn to improve the earning potential of women. In the context of liberalisation, skill improvement is an important pre-requisite to ensure greater participation of women in economic activity. But, whether the nominal increase in the allocation for STEP by Rs. 5 erores can meet the purpose is a real question.

Yet another programme under DWCD to ensure greater participation of women in economic activity is to provide suitable economic accommodation to working women whose income does not exceed Rs. 16,000 per month. A 50 percentage point increase in the plan allocation of Rs. 13.5 crores has been made in the 2002-03 budget for working women's hostels.

Swashakti Project aims at the development and empowerment of rural women through Self Help Groups. The allocation for Swashakti Project was stepped up from Rs. 15 crores in 2001-02 to Rs. 25 crores in 2002-03 budget. This increased allocation is intended for the creation of new self-help groups, skill upgradation and training. Another scheme for training women in traditional and non-traditional sectors and subsequently employing them on a sustained basis is Training-cum-Production Centre (TPC). TPC Is partially funded by NORAD (Norwegian Agency for International Development Cooperation). An increased allocation has been made for TPC from Rs. 18 crores in 2001-02 budget to Rs. 22 crores in 2002-03 budget.

There has been a constant declining trend in the allocation for *Condensed Courses* for Women's Education from Rs. 10 erores in 1995-96 to Rs. 1.8 erores in 2002-03. This Scheme was started by Central Social Welfare Board to educate and train those women who dropped out from schools due to socio-economic reasons. A marginal decline in allocation by Rs. 1 erore is noted for *Central Social Welfare Board* itself, the nodal agency which provide an interface between the Government and the voluntary organisations in implementing programmes like Vocational Training, Family Counseling Centres, Mahila Mandals, Short Stay Homes and Awareness Generation Programmes.

(iv) Strengthening of Schemes that address Domestic Violence

As against the allocation of Rs. 12.84 crores in the 2001-02 budget, there is an increase in allocation of Rs. 16.34 crores in the 2002-03 budget for Short Stay Homes, the scheme which addresses the problems of domestic violence and need for rehabilitation of abandoned and destitute women (see Appendix II and III for total (plan and non-plan) allocation of women specific schemes). This scheme provides services like medical care, psychiatric treatment, occupational therapy, education, vocational and recreational activities and social facilities of adjustments.

Swadhar, another new scheme noted under DWCD in 2002-03, is the metamorphosis of the scheme for women in difficult circumstances announced by the Finance Minister in 2001-02 budget speech. The objective of this scheme is to comprehensively rehabilitate widows, victims of trafficking and victims of natural calamities. Swadhar provides food and shelter, counseling, medical facilities and vocational training to women in distress. Budget documents, 2002-03 notes that projects of counseling and help-lines sanctioned under Swadhar will complement efforts at implementing provisions of the Domestic Violence Bill proposed to be introduced by DWCD. An allocation of Rs. 13.50 errore has been made in the 2002-03 budget for Swadhar.

In 2001-02 budget, allocation for women in difficult circumstances was included under the head 'other programme for women's welfare' of DWCD along with a plethora of programmes like Prevention of Atrocities on Women, National Resource Centre for Women, Distance Education Training Programme for Women Empowerment and a new scheme of Celebration of Women's Empowerment Year 2001, together known as Integrated Scheme for Women Empowerment. However, the scheme-wise allocation of these programmes was not made available in the budget documents. It is deciphered that the quantum jump in the outlay for the other programmes for women's welfare from Rs. 3.61 crores in 2000-01 RE to Rs. 19.89 crores in 2001-02 BE was due to the introduction of the two new schemes namely, Celebration of Women's Empowerment Year 2001, and women in difficult circumstances like widows of Vrindavan, Kashi and other places, destitute women and other disadvantaged women groups. But further disaggregation of data scheme-wise was not made available in the budget documents. As compared to the previous year, a drastic decline in the allocation for this head to Rs. 0.73 crores only is noted in the 2002-03 budget, which clearly indicates that last year's increased provision was for the Celebration of Women's Empowerment Year 2001 and women in difficult circumstances programme. From 2002-03, Swadhar, a new scheme is meant to cover these various schemes in a comprehensive manner. In the 2002-03 budget, "other schemes for women's welfare" include Distance Education Training Programme for Women Empowerment and a token provision for Women Planning for Change (Genderaware Microplanning and Credit and Micro Enterprise Development Training (CRÈME II). The individual allocations for the component, however, are not available.

(v) *Dropped Schemes*

No provision has been made for Balika Samridhi Yojana in the Union Budget 2002-03. This is because of the decision in the Tenth Plan to transfer this scheme to the State Governments. Initially, this programme was launched in 1997 with an aim to improve the status of the girl child. As per the revised norms of 1999, the scheme met the dual objectives of providing a grant of Rs. 500 each upto two girls born in a BPL family, and also scholarships to these girls when they started schooling.

Another dropped scheme is the Socio-economic Programme. This scheme gave financial assistance to voluntary organisations to take up a variety of income generating activities like small industry, handloom, dairy, etc on a 'work and wage basis' for providing employment opportunities to needy women, widows and deserted women. This programme has been wound up under the Zero Based Budgeting exercise.

(vi) Convergence of Schemes

Swyamsidha is a new project in budget 2002-03 formed with an emphasis on the consolidation of the various existing schemes for the development and empowerment of women. This new scheme is formed through the convergence of schemes like Mahila Samridhi Yojana (MSY) and Indira Mahila Yojana (IMY). The total allocation for MSY, a Central Plan Scheme created to foster saving among rural women through the network of post offices, had declined from Rs. 15 crores in 2000-01 BE to Rs. 8 crores in 2001-02

BE. Lesser requirements for reimbursement of operational expenses to the Department of Posts accounted for this reduced provision in the Budget. Also, in 2001-02 budget, it was mentioned that MSY would merge with Indira Mahila Yojana (IMY) and the merged scheme would be renamed as *'Integrated Women's Empowerment Programme'*. Therefore, no allocation has been made for MSY and IMY in the 2002-03 budget, and they have been replaced by the new scheme "*Swyamsidha*".

Swyamsidha aims at providing access to microcredit and promotion of microcreterprise through the formation of Self Help Groups. An allocation of Rs. 18.50 crores is carmarked for this scheme in 2002-03 budget. Swyamsidha is a six year Centrally Sponsored Scheme with a total outlay of Rs. 116.30 crores.

(vii) National Nutrition Mission

In the backdrop of announcement made by Prime Minister in his Independent Day Speech, 2001, to release food grains at subsidized rates to adolescent girls and expectant and nursing mothers belonging to BPL families through the ICDS structure, a National Nutrition Mission is proposed to be set up. This mission aims to create nutritional awareness among women and children and also eradicate malnutrition in a time-bound fashion. A token provision of Rs. 1 erore has been made in the 2002-03 budget, as the Scheme is not yet approved.

(viii) Scholarships for Women Scientists

In order to encourage the entry of large numbers of women into scientific professions, according to the 2002-03 budget, the government intends to institute at least 100 scholarships a year to be provided by the Department of Science and Technology to women scientists and technologists (*para 70, Part A, Budget Speech, 2002-03*). However, in the allocation of Rs. 55.65 erore under the head "Research Schemes, Scholarships and Fellowships", no specific figure has been mentioned for women.

5.3 Gender Sensitive Analysis of Expenditure Budget

Expenditure management has become an integral part of fiscal policy reforms in India. Central government expenditure, as a proportion of GDP, after increasing to a peak of over 20 per cent of GDP in 1986-87 from only 12.26 per cent in 1970-71 declined to 15.51 per cent in 2000-01. While revenue expenditure has increased from 6.82 per cent of GDP in 1970-71 to 12.88 percent of GDP in 2000-01, capital expenditure has declined from 5.44 per cent of GDP in 1970-71 to 2.63 per cent of GDP in 2000-01. Fiscal stress at the Centre is manifested from large outgoes on account of committed expenditure. As much as nearly a third of total central government expenditure goes for interest payments, which also accounts for around 4 per cent of GDP. With sluggish revenue growth, large commitments on subsidies and defence and sizeable fiscal deficits, there is an imperative need for improved expenditure management and deriving value from every rupee of public funds spent. In this context of better expenditure management, it is essential to

know how far the allocation of public funds by the Central Government is meeting the objective of improving the lot of women.

Gender sensitive budget analysis identifies three categories of public expenditure: (i) specifically targeted expenditure to women and girls and (ii) pro-women allocations: which are the composite expenditure schemes with a women component (iii) mainstream public expenditures that have gender-differential impacts. While it is relatively easy to assess the direct allocation of expenditure for women under various ministries or departments as noted under the first category, the real challenge of gender-sensitive budgets lies in the analysis of mainstream public expenditure in terms of genderdifferentiated impacts. Most public spending is not specifically targeted to either men or women, but it does not imply that they have a gender-neutral impact.

(i) Specifically targeted expenditure on women

Public expenditure specifically targeted to women can be categorised into four clusters. First, there are protective and welfare services that are important to prevent the atrocities against women such as domestic violence, rape, kidnapping, dowry deaths including rehabilitation programmes. All citizens irrespective of caste, creed or sex enjoy the benefits of public expenditure on the maintenance of law and order and dispensation of justice and their consumption is "non-rival" in nature. Still, such expenditure has got a gender dimension as women and children are more vulnerable to social stress and violence (Box 8). Second, there are social services such as education, water supply and sanitation, housing, health and nutrition schemes, which can empower women to play their rightful role in the economy. Third, there are economic services such as self employment and training programmes, economic empowerment programmes and fuel supply management programmes, which can provide economic empowerment for women. Fourth, there are regulatory services and awareness generation programmes for women like maternity benefits schemes and institutional mechanism like National Commission for Women, etc. The identification of women specific programmes from Union Budget 2001-02, which are categorised into these four clusters is given in Table 32.

Box 8 Women and Law and Order

Despite the constitutional guarantee of *equality before law*, women's rights are systematically violated in any South-Asian country or community. The Report titled "Human Development in South Asia 2000: The Gender Question" noted that the majority of South Asian women – regardless of class, caste or religion – face unequal access to property, to protection from harm, to decision-making powers surrounding their family life and outside activities and to the justice system itself; and these disparities have negative repercussions on women's vulnerability to violence and destitution and on their overall sense of citizenship, security and integrity.

The legal terrain of India is notably gender biased. The legal system as it is practiced in the South Asian region is heavily biased against women and often victimizes rather than protects them. The enforcement of laws intended to protect or empower women is contradicted by customs and cultural traditions and obstructed by ignorance of law and lack of will among enforcement agents and judiciary. India became signatory to *Convention for the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women* (CEDAW) in 1980, though ratified in 1993. It has to be noted that India has entered reservations to their ratification. For instance, India entered reservations to Article 5 (a) of CEDAW [measures to modify prejudicial social and cultural customs] and Article 16(1) [equal rights in marriage and its dissolution] in conformity with its policy of non-interference in the personal affairs of any Community without its initiative and consent. This could also be in direct conflict with the State's move towards a uniform civil code. The lack of uniform civil code in which fundamental rights take precedence over gender discriminatory religious customs remains the main obstacle to the achievement of women's equal rights³⁴. Also, India entered reservation to 16(2) [compulsory registration of marriages]. Though in principle India fully supports Article 16(2), it is not practical in a vast country like India with its variety of customs, religions and the level of literacy.

Gender-specific violence against women occurs across all strata of Indian society, which includes female foeticide infanticide, *sati*, sexual violence, kidnapping, domestic and public assault, sexual harassment at work place, mutilation and torture, including stove burning and acid throwing. Government initiatives to address violence against women in India include community-policing initiatives such as the Mahila Dakshata Samiti (women's advisory boards), police counseling cells. All Women Police Stations, family courts, and legal aid boards. A close examination of Budget documents revealed that government's response to gender violence continues to be meagre. The budgetary allocation for short stay homes for rehabilitating women victims of domestic violence has significantly declined from Rs. 14.51 crores in 2000-01 to Rs.9.77 crores in revised estimates of the same year and Rs. 12.84 crores in the 2001-02 Budget.

³⁴Human Development in South Asia 2000: The Gender Question

Budget, 2002-03. CLUSTER OF ACTION	CONTRIBUTING PROGRAMME	Dept/Ministry	ALLOCATION 2002-03 BE (Rs. crores)	
PROTECTIVE &	Short Stay Home	WCD	16.34	
WELFARE SERVICES	Central Social Welfare Board	WCD	26.90	
	ICDS and other Child Welfare Schemes	WCD	1846.10	
	Swadhar	WCD	13.50	
	Balika Samriddhi Yojana	WCD	0.00	
SOCIAL SERVICES	Condensed Courses for Women Education	WCD	1.80	
	Hostel Facilities for Girl Students	Education	18.00	
Education	Distance Education Training Programme for Women's Empowerment	tance Education Training Programme WCD		
Health & Nutrition	National Program for Women's Education	Education	0.00	
	Mahila Samakhya Programme	Education	20.00	
	Grants to Institute of Fashion Technology	Textiles	14.00	
	Girl's Hostels for Scheduled Tribes	Tribal Affairs	12.00 (a	
		Social Justice &	20.00	
	Girl's Hostels for Scheduled Castes	Empowerment	20.00	
	Caractel U.L. and an Danagement for sints	Social Justice &	0.00	
	Special Education Programme for girls belonging to SC of very low literacy level	Empowerment	0.00	
	Lady Hardinge Medical College	Health	44.85	
	Schemes on Nutrition /National Nutrition	WCD	8.87	
	Mission for women & children	WCD	0.07	
	Post Partum Programmes	Family Welfare	0.00	
	Reproductive & Child Health Programme	Family Welfare	800.53	
ECONOMIC	STEP	WCD	23.00	
SERVICES	Hostels for Working Women	WCD	13.50	
SERVICES	Training-cum-Production Centres	WCD	22.00	
Employment	Credit and Microenterprise Development	WCD	11	
Employment	Training (CREME II)	WCD	11	
Training	Development of Nursing Services	Health	20.00	
	Improvement in Working Conditions of	Labour	80.56	
Economic Empowerment	Child/Women Labour	1 salvou	00.20	
•	Training of Women in Agriculture of NE	Agriculture	0.00	
	Health Guide Scheme	Family Welfare	0.00	
	Swavamsiddha	WCD	13.50	
	Socio Economic Programme	WCD	0.00	
	Swasakthi Project	WCD	25.00	
	Rashtriya Mahila Kosh	WCD	1.00	
REGULATORY	National Maternity Benefit Scheme	Family Welfare	90.00	
SERVICES &	National Commission for Women	WCD	5.40	
AWARENESS GENERATION	Awareness Generation Programme	WCD	3.80	

 Table 32: Categorisation of Specifically Targeted Expenditure on Women In Union

 Budget, 2002-03.

Note: # These items of expenditure are included together under "other programmes" of DWCD, whose budgetary allocation is Rs. 0.73 erores in budget 2002-03; @ Allocation for the girl's hostels and boy's hostels are merged under one head in the current budget with a provision of Rs. 24 erore. It has been assumed that allocation is Rs. 12 erores each for both hostels. WCD denotes Women and Child Development.

Source: Budget Documents, 2002-03

Despite the plethora of women specific programmes, it is surprising to note that in recent years there is a significant declining trend in the amount allotted for all these schemes as a proportion of total expenditure in India. It was found that the amount allotted to specifically targeted programmes for women in Union Budget 2002-03 at Rs. 3368.38 crores is only 0.82 per cent of the total public expenditure in the Union Budget of the same year. The corresponding figure was 1.02 per cent, 0.94 per cent, 0.88 per cent and 0.87 per cent in the Budgets of 1998-99, 1999-2000, 2000-01 and 2001-02, respectively. Indeed, the aggregate budgetary outlay for specifically targeted programmes for women in 2002-03 is higher than the budgetary allocation of Rs. 3260.00 crores and revised estimates of Rs. 3043.02 crores for 2001-02 (for details, see *Appendix II and III*). But this increase in budgetary allocation of resources throws up very little positive impact on women because of the significant spread between the budget allocations and the revised estimates (Table 33) and between revised estimates and *actuals*.

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Table 33: KE/BE Katio of Wor	men specific programmes in India

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Department	1995-96	1996-97	1997-98	1998-99	1999-2000	2000-01	2001-02
Women & Child Development	1.12	1.00	1.13	0.93	0.95	0.92	1.00
Women & Child Development excl.child welfare schemes ¹	1.08	1.00	1.18	0.75	0.76	0.82	0.84
Agriculture and Co-operation	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Health	1,16	1.08	1.14	1.05	0.91	0.93	0.85
Family Welfare	1.00	0.96	1.00	0.82	1.02	0.86	0.86
Education	1.00	0.94	0.79	0.95	0.34	0.12	0.59
Labour	0.94	0.69	0.51	0.72	0.94	0.99	0.91
Rural Development	2.29	0.64	0.71	0.67	0.82	1.00	0.00
Textiles	0.00	0.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.37
Tribal Affairs	1.00	1.00	0.95	1.00	1.00	0.58	0.71
Social Justice & Empowerment	1.00	1.00	0.03	0.11	0.93	0.94	1 ()]
Total	1.00	1.01	0.99	0.95	0.93	1.01	1.12

Note: ¹ exclusive of ICDS and other child welfare schemes.

Source: Budget documents, relevant issues

The direct allocation on women in Union Budgets as proportion of GDP after increasing from 0.10 per cent of GDP in 1995-96 to 0.15 per cent in 1998-99, declined to 0.13 per cent in 2001-02 and remained constant at 0.13 per cent in 2002-03³⁵. The significant deviation of revised estimates from the budget estimates is noted for the women specific programmes (Table 33). For instance, the plan allocation for specifically targeted programmes for women constitute only 0.84 per cent of total expenditure of Rs. 364,436.00 erores in 2001-02 RE as compared to 0.87 percent of total expenditure of Rs. 375,223.00 erores in 2001-02 BE.

³⁵ GDP figure for 2000, 2001 and 2002 are calculated from the fiscal deficit-gdp figures published in *Budget at a Glance*, 2001-02 and 2002-03.

The RE/BE ratio (reflecting the deviation of revised from the budgetary estimates) for women specific programmes as shown in Table 33, reveal a declining trend every year in the provisions for women specific programmes under various Ministries. The 'actual' expenditure may be still less. The only exception to this trend occurred in the expenditure targeted to women specific programmes under the Department of Health where the ratios exceeded unity in most of the years (Chart 6).



If we examine closely within the Department of Women and Child Development (Chart 7), it can be found that major emphasis of women specific programmes is on the child welfare schemes rather than schemes for overall empowerment of women. If we exclude the Integrated Child Development Service (ICDS) and other child welfare schemes under the Department of Women and Child Development, the deviation between budget estimate and revised estimate would become significant. For instance, the budgetary allocation for women specific programmes under this Department (excluding child welfare programmes) significantly declined from Rs. 319.49 erores in 2000-01 to Rs. 195.39 erores in 2001-02, though the revised estimates for 2000-01 was Rs. 263.09 erores. The allocation increased to Rs. 401.34 erores in 2002-03 BE due to lumpsum provision for the schemes of North East and Sikkim.

The deviation of revised estimates from budget estimates is particularly acute for the women specific programmes under Department of Education in the recent years. The figures suggested that RE fell short of BE by around 70 per cent in the year 1999-2000. This spread between revised and budget estimates further widened in 2000-01 with only 12 per cent of budgetary allocation realized in the revised estimate (Table 33). The reason for this widening spread between BE and RE under Department of Education is mainly due to the decline in the outlay for *National Programme for Women's Education (NPWE)*. Parliament's *Standing Committee* of Department of Elementary Education and Literacy (Ministry of Human Resource Development) in its Report on the *Demand for Grants*, 2001-2002 mentioned that the unutilised allocation of NPWE of Rs. 160 crores for the year 1999-00 had finally ended with Rs. 10 crores in 2001-02 BE. The NPWE is reported to be still in its nascent stages and is yet to get the mandatory approval. The revised estimates of NPWE in the year 2001-02 showed a further decline to Rs. 0.01 crores and no allocation has been made for this programme in 2002-03 budget. The scheme is proposed to be implemented within the framework of Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan. The deviation of revised estimates from actual estimates is comparatively less for the women specific programmes under the Departments of Family Welfare (Chart 8). A comparative increase in the overall allocation in 2001-02 is due to the increase in the budgetary allocation for the programmes like RCH and postpartum and also the National Maternal Benefit Scheme, which is transferred to the Department of Family Welfare from the Department of Rural Development in the year 2001-02.

The deviation between budget estimates and revised estimates in the Ministry of Labour was acute in the year 1997-98, when the budgetary allocation of the Ministry was comparatively also the highest (Chart 9). This deviation is mainly due to the increased allocation for the scheme "improving working conditions of child/women labour" at Rs. 78.63 crores in the budget and the subsequent revised estimate of Rs. 35.93 crores. In the years since 1997-98, the allocation of the Ministry of Labour showed a steady decline with a narrowing gap between BE and RE till 2000-01. The allocation for "improving working conditions of child/women labour" again increased in 2001-02 to Rs. 67.20 crores as against the allocation of Rs. 36.20 in 2000-01BE. In 2002-03 budget, the



allocation for "improving the working conditions of women and child labour" increased further to Rs. 80.56 crores.

There was no deviation between BE and RE under the Ministry of Tribal Affairs between 1995-96 and 1999-2000 (Chart 10). Though the budgetary allocation remained at the same level as that of the previous period at Rs. 12 crores, a sharp decline in the revised estimate for the year 2000-01 was noted under Tribal Affairs. This sharp decline was due to a fall in the revised estimates for hostels for Scheduled Tribe girls to around Rs. 7 crores in the year 2000-01 and remained at around same level in 2001-02.

Under the Department of Rural Development, in 1995-96, the revised estimates exceeded the budget estimates because of the introduction of a new Centrally Sponsored Scheme programme called National Social Assistance Programme (NSAP) with effect from 15th August, 1995 (Chart 11). NSAP has three components viz. National Old Age Pension Scheme (NOAPS), National Family Benefits Scheme (NFBS) and National Maternity Benefits Scheme (NMBS). From budget documents, it is difficult to

disaggregate the National Maternal Benefit Scheme from this composite programme of NSAP. Thus, the allocation specific for National Maternity Benefit Scheme was obtained from the respective Departments under request (see Appendix II and III for specific allocation). The specifically targeted programmes for women found under the Department of Rural Development were DWCRA and the NMBS. The allocation of women specific programmes was found to be nil in this Department in 2001-02 after the consolidation of DWCRA into the new scheme, Swarna Jayanti Swarozgar Yojana, and the transfer of NMBS from the Department of Rural Development to the Department of Family Welfare.



The allocation for women specific programme under the Ministry of Textiles showed a steady increase over the years from Rs. 8 erores in 1997-98 to Rs. 26 erores in 2000-01 with no deviation between BE and RE (Chart 12). This allocation is the grants for the National Institute of Fashion Technology. In year 2001-02, the revised estimates of Rs. 35.50 erores exceeded the budget estimates at Rs. 26.00 erores. While the plan component remained constant at Rs. 21 erores for BE and RE in the year 2001-02, an



increased allocation of Rs. 14 erores under the revised non-plan head grant for NIFT compared to the budget estimate of Rs. 5 erores in 2001-02 accounted for the excess of RE over BE.

The allocation for the specifically targeted programmes for women has been negligible in the Ministry of Social Justice and Empowerment for most of the years since 1995-96 (Chart 13). The negligible allocation for women specific programmes coupled with the significant deviation between RE and BE in the years of comparative better allocation were the problems identified under Ministry of Social Justice and Empowerment. The scheme for girl's hostels for Scheduled Caste with an allocation of around Rs. 7-8 erores since 1995-96 was increased to Rs. 19 erores in the 2000-01 budget, but the revised estimates were again only Rs. 9 erores in 2000-01. In the year 2001-02, Rs. 20 erores was earmarked for hostels for Scheduled Caste girls and the revised estimates showed a better allocation of Rs. 19 erores. Another programme identified as specifically targeted for women under the same Ministry was "Special Education Programme for SC girls", with a negligible allocation of less than one erore since 1995-96.

The budgetary allocation for girl's hostels for Scheduled Tribes (under Ministry of Tribal Affairs) declined marginally from Rs. 12 crores in 2000-01 BE to Rs. 10.50 crores in 2001-02 BE (Chart 10). In the 2002-03 budget, schemes for boy's hostels and girl hostels for Scheduled Tribes has been consolidated into one scheme with an allocation of Rs.24 erores. Under this Scheme, grants are provided to the States on 50:50 basis and 100 per cent in case of Union Territories for the construction of Hostels for Scheduled Tribes Girls and Boys, and it is considered to be an effective instrument in promoting literacy among ST girls and boys.

The major programme for girls/women identified under this Ministry of SJE was "Kasturba Gandhi Swatanthrata Vidhyalaya" launched in 1997-98 with a budgetary allocation of Rs 250 erores (Chart 13). But the revised estimates of this programme in 1997-98 painted a bleak picture of huge unspent provisions. In 2002-03 budget, this scheme was transferred from the Ministry of Social Justice and Empowerment to the Department of Education with a budgetary allocation of Rs. 8.5 erores.



Under the Department of Agriculture and Co-operation, deviation between BE and RE was almost nil for most of the years (Chart 14). However, there was no allocation

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in the revised estimates for specifically targeted programmes for women during the years 2000-01 and 2001-02.

Despite the significant pronouncements in Union Budgets 2001-02 and 2002-03 on gender, and the commitment of the Ninth Plan of allocating more development resources for women, the share of women specific programmes under various Ministries has not shown any major increase (Table 34). Moreover, the share of women specific programmes in certain Ministries/ Departments like education, agriculture, textiles, tribal affairs and social justice and empowerment constituted at most around one per cent of their total expenditure for most of the years.

Ministry/Department	1995-96	1996-97	1997-98	1998-99	1999-00	2000-01	2001-02	2002-03
	RE	RE	RE	RE	RE	RE	RF	BF
Women & Child Development	17.03	18.06	17.70	15.78	10.29	18.80	9.58	17.81
excl.child welfare schemes								
Agriculture and Co-operation	0.16	0.02	0.04	0.03	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Health	2.37	2.04	2.37	2.32	2.90	2.83	2.98	3.26
Family Welfare	18.30	25.23	28.68	31.36	26.27	28.46	30.96	17.98
Education	0.19	0.13	0.10	1.67	1.37	0.66	0.40	0.77
Labour	6.61	7.29	6.64	5.19	4.52	4.17	7.29	9.25
Rural Development	3.54	3.57	3.08	2.86	1.89	0.82	0.00	0,00
Textiles	0,00	0.00	0.81	0.88	1.44	2.19	2.49	0,88
Tribal Affairs	0.72	0.71	0.79	1.39	1.75	0.93	0.73	1.09
Social Justice &	0.90	(),89	1.13	2.66	4.87	0.80	1.48	1.36
Empowerment								

Table 34: Specifically targeted programmes for women: Share in total expenditure of various Ministries/ Departments (*in per cent*)

Source: Budget Documents, relevant years

The share of allocation for women related programmes in the Department of Family Welfare was as high as around 30 per cent of the total outlay in recent years until 2001-02. This is mainly because of the major Reproductive and Child Health Programme (RCH), which includes both mother and child care. The budgetary allocation for RCH programme increased from Rs. 951 crores in 2000-01 BE to Rs. 1126.95 crores in 2001-02 BE. The decline in the share of specifically targeted programmes for women under the Department of Family Welfare in 2002-03 is due to the decreased allocation for RCH programme and no allocation for Health Guide Schemes. It can be seen from Table 34 that in the Ministry of Labour, the share of outlay for the women specific programme in their total outlay has recently increased from 4.17 per cent in 2000-01 RE to 7.29 per cent in 2001-02 RE and further to 9.25 per cent in 2002-03 BE. This is because of the increase in the budgetary allocation for the formulation, co-ordination and implementation of welfare programmes of women and child labour from Rs. 36.20 crores in 2000-01 RE to Rs. 80.56 crores in 2002-03 BE.
(ii) Public Expenditure with Pro-women allocations

Certain public expenditure schemes, though not exclusively targeted for women, have pro-women allocations. For instance, there are several schemes for poverty alleviation and employment generation that includes women's components. Similarly, public provision of drinking water supply and sanitation, fuel, housing, improved energy resources like biogas, improved *Chullahs* are of immense benefit to women. The share of women's component of composite public expenditure in total expenditure of Central Government showed a decline from 3.89 per cent in 1995-96 to 2.05 per cent in 2002-03 BE. In terms of GDP, the women component of public expenditure programmes showed a decline from 0.56 per cent in 1995-96 RE to 0.33 per cent in 2002-03 BE.

The analysis of trends and patterns of these public expenditure schemes with prowomen allocations provides some indication of policy changes with respect to women. Table 35 attempts to collate the women's components of composite public expenditure under various Ministries/Departments as per the information provided by the Department of Women and Child Development (DWCD) on the status of women component plan by different Ministries/Departments. The calculations are strictly for illustrative purposes. Pro-women allocation of specific Ministries like Health and Family Welfare, Education, Labour and Rural Development, where women constitute a significant part of the beneficiaries of almost all the schemes, is calculated using the following formula.

Pro-women allocation = [TE -WSP]* WC

where TE is the Total Expenditure of Ministry/Department; WSP is the Women Specific Programmes of the concerned Ministry/Department and WC is the Women's Component, specified as a percentage of the total outlay of the Department being exclusively spent on women.

Secondly, there are several Departments (for instance, Department of Agriculture and Co-operation, Small Scale Industries and Agro and Rural Industries etc.) under which only certain programmes include a women's component. Pro-women allocations of those Departments are calculated on the basis of the following formula.

Pro-women allocation = $\sum [SCS * WC]$

where SCS is the expenditure on the specific composite scheme (for instance, National Watershed Development Project in Rainfed Area under Department of Agriculture and Co-operation) and WC is the women's component again specified as a percentage of the total outlay on the specific composite scheme and [SCS*WC] represents the pro-women share of various specific schemes.

Table 55: Fublic Ex	penanare	WHU 110-	women An	locations	(113. 1101	(5)		
Ministry/Department	1995-96	1996-97	1997-98	1998-99	1999-00	2000-01	2001-02	2002-03
	RF	RE	RE	RE	RE	RE	RE	BF
1.Agriculture &	45.90	43.50	46.50	67.50	54.00	34.46	0.00	0.00
Cooperation			·					
2.Health	299.05	371.99	425.07	491.54	546.21	597.48	659.42	704.38
3.Family Welfare	1263.09	817.50	922.61	1092.67	1620.92	1613.23	770.88	1218.99
4.Indian Systems of	12.45	13.20	19.94	26.74	27.91	40.24	40.45	60.26
Medicine & Homoco.								
5.Education	1457.01	I490.05	1884.44	2516.01	2903.07	3331.69	1121.88	1460.06
6.Youth Affairs & Sports	39.76	43.30	47.52	60.00	66.03	78.00	96.64	101.82
7.Labour	160.36	168.57	174.73	207.73	241.38	255.86	238.81	240.02
8.Non-conventional	42.09	55.11	41.36	56.40	52.26	57.15	73.47	55.83
Energy Sources								
9.Science & Technology	126.95	142.24	184.33	166.37	185.19	226.80	237.68	304.28
10.Small Scale Ind.	236.19	194,99	262.62	248.78	222.69	259.22	9.91	9.21
Agro & Rural Industries	0,00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	243.33	237.56
11.Urban Empl &	50.40	36,35	49.93	48.68	37.91	28.51	13.65	31.50
Poverty Alleviation			1					
12.Rural Development	2893.82	2728.45	2911.79	3282.03	3247.35	3143.01	3765.62	3883.09
13.Social Justice &	77.87	79,73	48.95	42.45	72.02	82.05	78.98	106.64
Empowerment & Tribal			l				L	
Total	6704.92	6185	7019.8	8306.87	9276.9	9747.69	7350.71	8413.62

Table 35: Public Expenditure with Pro-women Allocations (Rs. crores)

Under this procedure, first the schemes with women's component and their prowomen share were identified and then individual shares were added to get the total prowomen allocation of the Department/Ministry. For Departments under which the information about women component plan is not provided in the DWCD document, on the advise of the DWCD, the women's component was assumed to be 30 per cent in conformity with the objective of the Ninth Five-Year Plan.

Table 36 shows that there is no significant deviation between the Budget Estimates and Revised Estimates in case of pro-women allocations for most of the years under the following Departments/Ministries. These include Health and Family Welfare. Youth Affairs and Sports, Science and Technology and Small Scale Industries and Agro and Rural Industries. For these Departments/Ministries, the RE/BE ratio is close to unity. A fluctuating trend in the ratio of RE to BE is noted for the Departments of Agriculture and Co-operation, Education and Social Justice and Empowerment and Tribal Affairs. The significantly high ratio of Department of Agriculture and Co-operation in 2000-01 is mainly because the revised estimate of National Watershed Development Project in Rainfed Area (NWDPRA) far exceeded its budget estimates. This Project is not seen in Expenditure Budget, 2002-03. Table 37 provides women's component of selected public expenditure with pro-women allocations.

Source: Expenditure Budget, relevant years and DWCD document on *Status of implementation of Women's Component Plan (WCP) by different Central Ministries/Departments.*

Ministry/Department	1995-96	1096-97	1997-98	1998-99	1999-00	2000-01	2001-02
1.Agriculture & Cooperation	0,81	0.77	0.89	0.84	0.79	2.07	0.00
2.Health	1.01	1.01	1.03	0.94	0.95	0.95	0.96
3.Family Welfare	1.37	1.02	1.00	0.95	1.09	0.93	0.38
4.Indian Systems of Med & Homoco.	1.01	1.00	1.17	1.04	0.95	0.93	0.81
5.Education	1.35	0.83	0.90	0.91	0.94	1.01	0.33
6.Youth Affairs & Sports	1.00	1.06	0.99	0.93	0.96	1.00	1.02
7.Labour	1.69	0.99	0.95	0.96	0.97	0.99	0.83
8.Non-conventional Energy Sources	1.58	0.95	0.69	0.70	0.98	0.96	0.99
9.Science & Technology	1.01	0.99	1.10	0.89	0.94	0.97	0.96
10.Small Scale Ind.	1.00	0.83	1.07	1.06	0.92	0.96	0.04
Agro & Rural Industries	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.88
11.Urban Empl & Poverty Alleviation	0,98	0.71	0.99	0.86	0.70	0.57	0.27
12.Rural Development	1.08	0.92	0.94	0.97	0.94	0.97	1.14
13.Social Justice & Empowerment &	1.01	1.00	0.79	0.79	1.00	0.91	0.79
Tribal Affairs							
Total	1.17	0.91	0.95	0.94	0.96	0.97	0.67

Table 36: RE/BE Ratio of public expenditure with pro-women allocation

Source: Expenditure Budget, relevant years and DWCD document on *Status of implementation of Women's Component Plan (WCP) by different Central Ministries/Departments.*

	xpenditure with Pro-women Allocations
Ministry/Department	Public Expenditure with pro-women allocation
Agriculture and Co-operation	1.National Watershed Development Program for Rainfed Area
Health	1. Assistance towards expenditure on hospitalisation of poor
	2. National Illness Assistance Fund
Family Welfare	1. Rural Family Welfare Services
	2. Urban Family Welfare Services
	3. Strengthening of Immunisation & Eradication of Polio
	4. Transport [including provision of Mopeds to ANMs]
	5. Sterilisation Beds
Education	1. Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan
	2. Operation Blackboard
	3. District Primary Education Programme (DPEP)
	4. National Nutritional Support to Primary Education
	5. Non-formal Education
	6. Shisksha Karmi Project
Youth Affairs & Sports	1. Sport Authority of India
	2. Sports Scholarship Scheme
	3. Miscellaneous Schemes of Dept.
	4. Nehru Yuva Kendra Sangathan
	5. Scheme of National Service Volunteer Scheme
Labour	1. Employment and Training
	a. Women's Vocational Training Programmes
	b. Establishment of Placement Cells at National Vocational
	Training Institute (NVTI)
	c. Vocational Rehabilitation of Women with Disabilities
	2. Labour Welfare Schemes
	3. Employees Pension Scheme, 1995
	4. Compensation to Families of heavy duty Inter-State vehicle
N	drivers killed in accidents.
Non-conventional Energy	1. National Project on Biogas Development (NPBD)
Sources	2. National Programme on Improved Chulas (NPIC)
	3. Indian Renewable Energy development (IREDA)
Small Scale Industries and Agro	1. Prime Minister's Rojgar Yojana (PMRY)
& Rural Industries	2. Khadi and Village Industries Commission
	3. Rural Employment Generation Programme (REGP)
Dural Davalanment	4. National Small Scale Industries Corporation Ltd.
Rural Development	1. Swarnajayanti Gram Swarojgar Yojana (SGSY)
	 National Social Assistance Programme Jawahar Gram Samridhi Yojana (JGSY)
	4. Indira Awas Yojana (IAY)
	5. Rural Sanitation Programme
	6. Accelerated Rural Water Supply Programme (ARWSP)
Urban Employment & Poverty	Swarna Jayanti Shahari Rozgar Yojana
Alleviation	r owarta Jayanti Shahari Kozgar Tojana
Social Justice and Empowerment	1. Post Matrie Scheme for SC
and Tribal Affairs	2. Machinery for Implementation of Protection of Civil Rights
and tribar mians	Act, 1955 and Prevention of Attrocities Act, 1989
	3. Pre Matrie Scholarship for SC
	4. Post Matrie Scholarship for ST
Source: Expanditure Budget relay	ant years and DWCD document on <i>Status of implementation</i>

Table 37: Selected Public Expenditure with Pro-women Allocations

Source: Expenditure Budget, relevant years and DWCD document on *Status of implementation* of *Women's Component Plan (WCP)* by different Central Ministries/Departments.

(iii) Mainstream Public Expenditure: Illustrative benefit-incidence analysis of Central Elementary Education Budget

Gender disaggregated benefit incidence analysis of public spending reveals the distributional impact of budgetary policies. Such analysis to find out how public spending is distributed by sex requires the estimates of the cost of providing a public service and data on utilisation of public services by gender. Gender-disaggregated benefit incidence calculation involves the measurement of unit cost of providing a particular service and the number of units utilised by gender. The benefit incidence of public spending on women can be calculated by multiplying the unit cost of the particular service by the number of female beneficiaries. The paucity of gender-disaggregated data on services utilised constrains such benefit incidence analysis for a variety of public services in India. Furthermore, all public goods and services cannot be gender-partitioned³⁶.

Calculations show that there is an increasing trend in the per capita share of girls in elementary education budget from around Rs.115 in 1996-97 to Rs. 323.48 in 2002-03 (Table 38). The increase is mostly on account of the quantum jump in the per capita allocation of the District Primary Education Programme (DPEP) and nutrition support programme through mid-day meals. At the same time, it may be noted that the per capita allocation for nutritional support through mid-day meal programmes has decreased from Rs 112 in 1999-2000 to Rs.79 in 2002-03.

The per capita allocation on non-formal education (NFE) has shown a significant decline to Rs. 7.15 in 2001-02 (RE) and Rs. 0.14 in 2002-03 BE as compared to Rs. 12 in carlier years³⁷. The Centrally Sponsored Programme of NFE was launched in 1979-80 to impart education to out of school children in the age group of 6-14 years. Expenditure was shared between the Centre and the States in the ratio of 60:40 in case of co-education centres and 90:10 in case of exclusively girl centres.

³⁶ For illustrative purposes, a gender-based analysis has been carried out for public spending by the Central Government on primary education. Primary education has a significant welfare impact on women. This has been done only for the Central Government. Assuming the unit cost of providing public education to be the same for boys and girls, public expenditures at the primary level has been multiplied by the ratio of female students in primary enrolment to derive the benefit incidence for girls. Data on expenditure used are from *Expenditure Budgets* of 1997-98, 1998-99, 1999-2000, 2000-01, 2001-02 and 2002-03, and the enrolment figures are from *Selected Education Statistics*, published by the Ministry of Human Resource Development. Non-availability of enrolment figures for 2000-01, 2001-02 and 2002-03, because of the lag in the publication of enrolment data, constrained the calculation of the relevant benefit incidence for these years with constant partition factors since 1999-2000.

³⁷ The calculations presented in Table 38 are purely for illustrative purposes. States account for as much as 90 per cent of the public expenditure on education. The benefit incidence on women of public expenditure on elementary education presented in Table 38 relates to Central expenditure alone and severely understates the total incidence.



Chart 15 Gender Disaggregated Percapita Benefit Incidence of Elementary Education

🗖 male 🔳 female

						(in Rs.)
Elementary Education	1996-97	1997	998-99	1999-00	2000-01(RE)	2001-02	2002-03
		98	•			RE	BE
Operation Black Board	20,68	20,62		22.43	32.98	35.71	4.40
Teachers' Training Programme	5.58	5.26	1.43	11.96	14.83	13.53	14.00
Non-Formal Education	11.73	12.54	1.94	11.96	12.82	7.51	0.14
District Primary Education	13.64	38.43	11.03	44.87	61.47	90.17	99.94
Programme							
Nutritional Support	59.29	73.34	104.45	112.17	97.45	77.49	79.47
Free Education for Girl Child	NIL.	NII.	17.16	NIL	NIL	0.00	0.00
Others	3.46	4.24	12.68	10.04	16.73	44.39	125.54
Total Elementary Education	114.37	154.45	19.37	213.44	236.28	268.80	323.48

 Table 38: India: Per Capita Benefit Incidence of Central Elementary Education

 Budget for Women

¹ All the major components of public specifing on elementary education except the Teacher's Training Programme are gender-partitioned by using the enrolment figures. The incidence on women of public spending on Teacher's forgining Programme has been calculated by using the proportion of females in total primary teachers.

Source: Expenditure Budget, 1996-97, 1997-98 1999-2000, 2000-01 2001-02 and 2002-03 and Selected Education Statistics, 1998-99 and 1999-2000, Ministry of Human Resource Development, New Delhi.

On the basis of the evaluation of Parliamentary Standing Committee on Human Resource Development and Programme Evaluation Organisation (PEO) of the Planning Commission, broad deficiencies of the NFE Scheme were found, viz. very low investment, poor community involvement and problems of release of funds. In the light of these evaluations, NFE was revised as 'Education Guarantee Scheme and Alternative and Innovative Education' (EGS&AIE). EGS & AIE is now a part of the overall program of Universalisation of Elementary Education, namely the Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan. The increased per capita allocation noted in 'others' category of elementary education budget of Rs. 125.54 in 2002-03 as compared to Rs. 4 in the late nineties and Rs. 16 in 2000-01 is due to the strengthening of the scheme *Sarva Siksha Abhiyan* for universalizing elementary education.

The gender disaggregated public incidence analysis of Central elementary education budget reveals that girls received only around 40 per cent of total public spending on elementary education as girl's enrolment in elementary education was less than that of boys. On a per capita basis, in 2002-03, the calculations worked out at Rs. 323.48 per girl of elementary school age and Rs. 388.91 per boy of elementary school age.

5.4 Taxation and Subsidies

Economic Survey 2000-01 noted that tax reforms have induced a structural shift in the composition of tax revenue in India. Direct tax revenue, which mainly comprises of receipts from personal income tax and corporation tax, as a percent of GDP, has increased from 1.9 per cent in 1990-91 to 3 per cent in 1999-2000.

Chart 16: Share of food subsidies in total subsidies in India



Indirect tax revenue, comprising of the excise duties and customs duties, as a per cent of GDP declined from 7.9 per cent in 1990-91 to 6.5 per cent in 1995-96 and further to an estimated 5.8 per cent in 2000-2001 (BE). The share of direct tax in gross tax revenue after increasing from 19.1 per cent in 1990-91 to 30.2 per cent in 1995-96 and further in to 34.7 in 1997-98, declined to 33.6 per cent in 1999-2000. Correspondingly, the share of indirect taxes in gross tax revenue, after declining significantly from 78.4 per cent in 1990-91 to 69.1 per cent in 1995-96 and further to 65.6 per cent in 1999-2000, is estimated at 63.4 per cent in 2000-2001(BE)³⁸. The impact of the shift in tax structure from indirect to direct taxation on gender is an important issue to be looked into, but the lack of gender-disaggregated data on taxation is a serious limitation in undertaking such an exercise.

In Union Budgets, 2001-02 and 2002-03, no additional direct tax proposals specifically benefiting women were announced. Women continued to get a favourable treatment under Section 88 C of Income Tax Act, which was announced in Union Budget, 2000-01. Under Section 88 C, women in India below the age of 65 are eligible for an income tax credit, not exceeding Rs.5000.

In India, the share of food subsidy in total subsidy has shown a fluctuating trend within a narrow band. It increased from 25.87 per cent in 1992-93 to 47.71 per cent in 1993-94 and then declined to 39.14 per cent in 1996-97. Further, in recent years, it rose from 38.19 per cent in 1999-2000 to 45.89 per cent in BE 2001-02 (Chart 16). Since in general, there are more poor among adult women and children than among adult men, (Table 13), targeting the food subsidy³⁰ at the population below the poverty line and carefully monitoring the program can ensure the positive impact of food subsidies on poor women and children under BPL.

Food subsidy has increased over the years in real and nominal terms (Chart 17)⁴⁰. It is to be noted that the increase in food subsidy from Rs. 12,125 crores in 2000-01 RE to Rs. 13,675 crores in 2001-02 BE is due to the increased provision on account of 'Antyodaya'⁴¹ programme besides the normal increases because of increase in cost of

³⁸Economic Survey, 2000-2001.

³⁹ Food Corporation of India purchases food grains at procurement prices and these grains are issued to the States for Targeted Public Distribution System (TPDS) to serve Below Poverty Line (BPL) and Above Poverty Line (APL) households at rates fixed by the Government. The difference between the economic cost and the central issue price is reimbursed to FCI as Food Subsidy. In other words, the difference between the economic cost of the food grains fixed for the State and the issue price is passed on to the States as subsidy. FCI also carries buffer stock of food grains on behalf of the Government and is reimbursed the cost of carrying this stock, which includes handling, storage, interest and administrative charges (Expenditure Budget, 2001-2002, Volume 1).

 $^{^{40}}$ Food subsidies in *real* term is not computed for 2000-01 and 2001-02 due to non-availability of GDP deflator.

⁴¹ 'Antyodaya' scheme launched on December 25^{th} . 2000 to identify one crore families, comprising around 5 crore poorest of the poor people, who will be provided 25 kgs of foodgrains per month at highly subsidised prices of Rs. 2 per kg, for wheat and Rs. 3 per kg, for rice.

procurement, transportation, storage and other incidentals (Expenditure Budget 2001-02. Volume 1). In Budget, 2001-02, the Finance Minister had proposed that instead of providing subsidised food grains, financial assistance would be provided to the State governments to enable them to procure and distribute food grains to BPL families at subsidised rates. According to a report in the newspapers, this proposal stands scrapped due to opposition from Chief Ministers.

The proposal to decentralise procurement and distribution should augment the efficiency of the system and lead to better targeting. However, it is important to monitor a smooth transition to a decentralised system and ensure that the BPL families in general, and women in particular do not suffer because of transitional problems in the backward states where governance problems and problems of poverty tend to coincide.



Chapter 6 Conclusion and Policy Suggestions

Incidence of the benefits of public expenditure among different sections of the community grouped by income class or any other criteria is notoriously difficult to measure in precise quantitative terms. The difficulty arises from the fact that the bulk of government expenditures are meant to provide services that are essentially public in nature - for instance, expenditures on defence, maintenance of law and order and dispensation of justice - their consumption being "non-rival", the benefits of these expenditures are enjoyed by all citizens irrespective of caste, creed or sex. Thus, picking on only the items that are specific to a group as indicative of the attention paid to that group by government is inappropriate. Nevertheless, there is a case for segregating group-specific expenditures in the budget in certain cases where there is *prima facie* evidence of a societal bias against specific groups and a corresponding need to do more of collective action.

Considering the gender bias inherent in a male dominated society like India and the evidence from the trends in sex ratio shows how the bias is getting accentuated in many parts of India it is time the budgets of the government provided some idea of how much is earmarked specifically for the benefit of women. The suggestion is not to provide gender-wise break-up of all government expenditures, but that the expenditures meant primarily for women be shown separately so that they can be easily culled out from budget heads of social and economic services in which it is possible to segregate such expenditures. With this objective in view, the report after presenting a gender diagnosis in India in access to resources and in economic activity and gender sensitive analysis of Budget 2001-02 and 2002-03 recommends the following priority actions for gender-sensitive budgeting.

(i) Collating gender disaggregated data

A system should be set up to collate gender disaggregated data from relevant Departments to obtain the gender-wise relevant statistical database, targets and indicators. A gender audit of plans, policies and programmes of various Ministries with pro-women allocations should be conducted for evaluation of the progress.

(ii) Segregation of provisions for women

Segregate the provisions for women in the composite programmes under education, health and rural development sectors, which target girls/women as the principal beneficiaries. This segregation of the provisions is important to protect the provisions by placing restrictions on their reappropriation for other purposes. It is necessary to ensure that the funds so earmarked are spent on intended purposes. The point sought to be made is that if the expectations set forth in the Budget are achieved, even partially, the end results are bound to be positive. The absence of such identification in the provisions and the related targets, on the contrary, greatly vitiates the implementation of the programmes, as is being observed over the years. Segregation of the provisions for the benefit of women and their implementation as such would significantly contribute to the ultimate empowerment of women.

(iii) Consolidation of Programmes

It is doubtful that given the size of the country, its population and the magnitude of the problems, schemes with small provisions have much practical significance in the overall context, except perhaps for demonstrative or experimental reasons. Such schemes (with provision of Rs.10 erore or less) should be reviewed, merged or consolidated, to secure a meaningful impact.

(iv) Monitoring Output

The implementation of many of the schemes leaves a lot of scope for improvement. Many schemes suffer or fail to take off, even after provisions are made therefore, due to procedural delay in their linalisation and getting the appropriate approvals (like that of Expenditure Finance Committee, etc.). The provisions are reduced during the course of the year (say, in the revised estimates), and the final expenditure is still less. In many cases, particularly those coming under the social sector, Government budgetary support is provided by way of grants-in-aid to the implementation agencies. The grantees sometimes have their own priorities and instead of utilising the funds received for earmarked purposes, spend them elsewhere. It is necessary to tighten the system and closely monitor implementation of each scheme, to secure a result-oriented direction all round. Focusing on how much money has been allocated for schemes benefiting women can be counter-productive if the outcome of schemes depart substantially from the objectives that they were designed to serve.

Though 9th Five Year Plan recommended introduction of a separate heading for 'Women's component plan' in the budgets of the Ministries/ Departments, due to reasons best known to Government, this has not been implemented. In the entire 9th Plan period, it is found that no Ministry/Department of the Government had shown in their budget any provision for 'Women's component plan'. This greatly vitiated effort to effectively monitor the implementation of schemes particularly those in the composite programmes, which are also designed to benefit women. This has happened in all cases where the provision is made on a lump sum basis (as in the case, say, 'Lump provision for schemes in North-castern areas and Sikkim').

(v) Significant Deviation between Budgetary Allocation and Actual Spending

Provisions in the Budget cannot be considered in isolation for evaluating the allocation and spending on a scheme. After the Budget is presented (at the Februaryend), each provision is subject to review and changes at several stages during course of the financial year. First, at the revised estimate stage which is decided in the second half of the year. The provisions are reviewed next at the time of going for the final batch of supplementary demands for grants for the year in March. Finally, the final grant under each budget head is fixed towards the end of the financial year. At each stage the provisions may undergo a change. Budgetary constraints may require the Government to reduce the provision, and in cases where the scheme itself is yet to be approved, the provision could be diverted altogether elsewhere. In the Appropriation Accounts, which show the year-end position, the actual expenditure under a budget head is generally compared with the final grant. The final grant, which is determined towards the end of the financial year, is largely an executive decision, and in many cases can vary widely from the original budget, as sanctioned by Parliament. Further, the original budget bears reference to the allocation in the Annual Plan. When the original budget and the final grant numbers/actual expenditure are at variance, there can hardly be any comparison between the annual plan/original budget and the allotted funds even with reference to RE is commonplace. The Standing Committees of Parliament have been very critical of the Ministries/Departments concerned for failing to arrest this trend and to plan their budgeted expenditure and combine it with administrative efforts, like obtaining appropriate approvals, more effectively.

There is another source of complication in many social programmes. In bulk of the cases, particularly anti-poverty programmes and other schemes coming under the social sector, the outflows from the Government budget are by way of grants-in-aid to State/UT Governments and/or other agencies, which are concerned with the implementation of the related programmes/schemes. Once the funds are released, these are shown as expenditure of the Government on the relevant programme/scheme. The recipient Governments/agencies may or may not spend the money on the earmarked schemes/programmes in that year. Often, they utilise the funds for other purposes according to their own priorities. As a result, performance on the schemes/programmes suffer.

(vi) Redressing Capability Deprivation

In the context of the ongoing economic reforms, there is an urgent need to focus policies and target public expenditures for accelerating growth and poverty alleviation. The primary focus of Government intervention needs to be reoriented to redress the capability deprivation, from sections of the population. In Amartya Sen's framework of functionings and capabilities, poverty is capability deprivation, and not only the absolute poverty threshold specified on per capita income or consumption expenditure basis. From this perspective, this whole exercise of gender budgeting in India came up with the reality that the disproportionate share of the burden of capability deprivation, especially in education, health and nutritional status, is borne by Indian women. Illiteracy and illhealth arc serious impediments in the path of economic and human development. More than half of Indian women is still illiterate. The adverse sex ratio of 933 per 1000 males embodied the discrimination against women in India at, or even before and after birth with respect to the lack of timely health-seeking efforts, nutritional disadvantage and other perverse legacies of intra-household gender relations. What is important is to endow the vulnerable groups with the requisite capabilities in terms of education and health, and pay particular attention to areas such as availability of water and fuel, and maintain law and order to provide a safe and secure environment for women to operate effectively.

In the case of education and health, there is a need to monitor the benefit incidence on boys and girls, and males and females. The illustrative calculation done for Central Government expenditure on elementary education revealed that girls received only around 40 per cent of the benefit of total public spending on elementary education as girl's enrolment in elementary education was less than that of boys in India during the period 1995-96 to 2002-03. Another study on gender-specific utilization rates on health revealed that poor women received a significantly lower share of the inpatient bed days than poor men while men and women below poverty line did receive almost equal treatment in outpatient care. Further, the inter-state analysis revealed that in the State of Bihar where the share of men and women below poverty line were similar at around 50 per cent, only 12 per cent of total bed days was used by poor women compared to 20 per cent used by men⁴². These studies on gender-dissaggregated benefit incidence indicate that the emphasis should change from spending money alone to *output monitoring*. Given the perverse legacies of intra-household gender relations, there is need for state persuasion and aid to ensure that the women get their due share of the essential services.

(vii) Next Step Ahead

Given the significant gender gap in the country, there is a strong need to monitor the gender-specific impact of budgetary policies and expenditure, and reprioritise policies to reduce the bias against women in the benefit-incidence of the budget. The analysis of budgetary policies and expenditure needs to be carried out at three levels: in terms of budget estimates shortly after the presentation of the budget; in terms of the revised estimates as and when they come out; and in terms of the actual outlays when audited figures become available. With respect to women- related items, departures of revised estimates from budget estimates and of actual outlays from revised estimates need to be highlighted and analysed.

The framework of breaking down government expenditure into the three categories of specifically targeted expenditure for women, public expenditure with prowomen allocations, and some mainstream expenditure assessed for gendered impacts needs to be sharpened over time. In this report, for Departments under which the information about women component plan is not 'provided in DWCD document, on the advise of the DWCD, the women component has been assumed to be 30 per cent in conformity with the objective of the Ninth Five-Year Plan. It is important to do some independent verification of whether the women component is indeed 30 per cent in such departments. Furthermore, the Ninth Plan strategy of identifying a "Women's component plan" to ensure that not less than 30 per cent of funds and benefits flow to women from developmental sectors needs a review.

Gender budgeting is not a separate budget for women. Some public expenditure, including in certain developmental sectors, may not yield to gender partitioning. What is needed in such cases is a careful benefit-incidence analysis. This is

⁴² Mahal, Ajay, Yazbeek, Abdo, Peters, David and Ramana, G.N.V (2001)

not only true of developmental sectors, but also of mainstream expenditure such as law and order. It is important to try and move from input monitoring to outcome monitoring. Thus, in the field of gender budgeting, what should be analysed is not how much money is budgeted to be spent or even actually has been spent, but how it has benefited the beneficiaries, namely girls and women.

This report is only a modest start to gender budgeting, what is needed is a comprehensive assessment of gender-differential impact of budgetary policies both at the Central and State levels. States are as important as the Centre in the Indian fiscal arena. In fact, they are more important than the Centre in some critical area such as education and health. The true picture of gender-differential impact of government expenditure and policies will emerge only when we have a good idea of the impact of such expenditure also at the State level.

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Intertempo	ertemporal trends in Sex ratio in India: A Statewise Decomposition										
	1901	1911	1921	1931	1941	1951	1961	1971	1981	1991	2001
INDIA	972	964	955	950	945	946	941	930	934	927	933
J & Kashmir	882	876	870	865	869	873	878	878	892	896	900
Him. Pradesh	884	889	890	897	890	912	938	958	973	976	97()
Punjab	832	780	799	815	836	844	854	865	879	882	874
Chandigarh	771	720	743	751	763	781	652	749	769	790	773
Uttaranchal	918	907	916	913	907	940	947	940	936	936	964
Haryana	867	835	844	844	869	871	868	867	870	865	861
Delhi	862	793	733	722	715	768	785	801	808	827	821
Rajasthan	905	908	896	907	906	921	908	911	919	910	922
Uttar Pradesh	938	916	908	903	907	998	907	876	882	876	898
Bihar	1,061	1,051	1,020	995	1,002	1,000	1,005	957	948	907	921
Sikkim	916	951	970	967	920	907	904	863	835	878	875
Arun.Pradesh	ΝΛ	ΝΑ	NA	NA	NΛ	ΝΛ	894	861	862	859	901
Nagaland	973	993	992	- 997	1,021	999	933	871	863	886	909
Manipur	1,037	1,029	1,041	1,065	1.055	1,036	1,015	980	971	958	978
Mizoram	1,113	1,120	1.109	1.102	1.069	1,041	1,009	946	919	921	938
Tripura	874	885	885	885	886	904	932	943	946	945	950
Meghalaya	1,036	1,013	1,000	971	966	949	937	942	954	955	975
Assam	919	915	896	874	875	868	869	896	910	923	932
West Bengal	945	925	905	890	852	865	878	891	911	917	934
Jharkhand	1,032	1,021	1,002	989	978	961	960	945	940	922	941
Orissa	1,037	1,056	1,086	1.067	1,053	1,022	1,001	988	981	971	972
Chhatisgarh	1,046	1,039	1,041	1.043	1.032	1,024	1,008	998	996	985	990
Mad.Pradesh	972	967	949	947	946	945	932	920	921	912	920
Gujarat	954	946	944	945	941	952	940	934	942	934	921
Daman& Diu	995	1,040	1,143	1,088	1,080	1,125	1,169	1,099	1,062	969	709
Dadra & Nagar Haveli	960	967	940	911	925	946	963	1,007	974	952	811
Maharashtra	978	966	950	9.17		941	936	930	937	934	922
And.Pradesh	985	992	993	987	980	986	981	977	975	972	978
Karnataka	983	981	969	965	960	966	959	957	963	960	964
Goa	1,091	1,108	1,120	1.088	1,084	1,128	1,066	981	975	967	960
Lakshadweep		987	1.027	99.4	1,018	1,043	1,020	978	975	943	947
Kerala	1,004	1.008	1.011	1.022	1,027	1,028	1,022	1,016		1,036	1,058
Tamil Nadu	1,044	1,042	1,029	1.027		1,007	992	978	977	974	986
Pondicherry	NΑ	1,058	1,053	NA	NΛ	1,030	1,013	989	985	979	1,001
A&Nicobarls	318	352	303	495	574	625	617	644	760	818	846

Intertemporal trends in Sex ratio in India: A Statewise Decomposition

Source: Census, 2001

<u>Appendix II</u>

Women Specific Programmes in Central Budget: BE-BE

Women Specific Program	nmes in	Central	Budget	: BE-BE				
Women Specific	BE	BE	BE	BE	BE	BE	BE	BE
programmes in Central								
Budget	1.005.01		1005 00	1000.00	1000 00		000100	0.000 100
	1995-96	1996-97	1997-98	1998-99	1999-00	2000-01	2001-02	2002-03
Dept of Women & Child Dev								
Balika Samridhi Yojana	0.00	0.00	0.00	60.00	40.00	27.00	25.00	0.00
Condensed courses for women	9.00	9.00	9.00	9.00	9.00	1.50	2.00	1.80
education								
Hostels for working women	7.75	7.75	7.75	7.75	7.75	7.02	9.00	13.50
Support to Training & Employment Programme (STEP)	16.00	16.00	16.00	16.00	15.00	13.00	18.00	23.00
Mahila Samriddhi Yojana	60.00	60.00	40.00	40.00	2.04	15.00	8.00	0.00
Socio-economic programmes	6.00	6.00	15.99	9.00	5.00	1.00	1.00	0.00
Central Social Welfare Board	16.36	17.01	17.05	24.00	24.50	25.00	27.00	26.90
Training-cum-Production	5.00	18.00	18.00	18.00	15.00	13.00	18.00	22.00
Centres		1						
Short Stay Homes	4.00	4.82	4.75	12.00	15.42	14.51	12.84	16.34
Awareness Generation	2.25	2.25	2.25	2.25	4.00	1.80	4.00	3.80
Programme								
National Commission for	2.00	<u>2.00</u>	2.00	2.50	3.50	3.50	5.00	5.40
women				10.00	12.01	15.00	1.5.00	
Swashakti project	0.00	0.00	0.00	19.30	12.81	15.00	15.00	25.00
Rashtriya Mahila Kosh	0.00	0.00	0.00	10.00	0.01	3.00	1.00	1.00
Indira Mahi la Yojana	0.00	0.00	0.00	10.00	10.00	18.00	19.50	0,00
Swayamsiddha	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	18.50
Swadhar	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	13.50
National Nutrition Mission	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.00
Nutrition schemes for women and children	5.75	6,06	6.01	6.31	8,75	9.05	10.15	8,87
Lumpsum for schemes in the NE region&Sikkim	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	146.00	0.01	220.00
Other programmes for women's welfare	2.78	12.77	22.80	3.65	3.89	6.11	19.89	073
ICDS and other Child Welfare Schemes	635.37	729,89	782.90	1020.15	1189.36	1186.41	1502.91	1846.10
Total excl. item 18	136.89	161.68	161.60	249.76	176.67	319.49	195.39	401.34
Total	772.26	891.57	944.50	1269.91	1366.03	1505.90	1698.30	2247.44
Dept. of Agriculture and Co-o	Anness in a los in							
Assistance to Women/ Weaker	3.30	2.55	1.60	1.45	2.25	0.70	0.00	0.00
Sections Co-operative								
Training of Women in Agriculture of NE region &	0.00	(),()C	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.50	0.0C
Sikkim								
Fotal	3.30	2.55	1.60	1.45	2.25	0.70	0.50	0.00

Women Specific programs in Central Budget	BE	BI	BL	BE	BE	Bb	BI	BI
	1995-96	1996-97	1997-98	1998-99	1999-00	2000-01	2001-02	2002-03
Dept of Health								
Lady Hardinge Medical	20.83	23.96	30.06	37.04	42.25	44.88	43.74	44.85
College	20.02		00.00	57.01	12.25	11.00	13.71	
Development of Nursing	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	17.50	17.30	21.50	20.00
Services								
Total	20.83	23.96	30.06	37.04	59.75	62.18	65.24	64.85
Dept of Family Welfare		• • • • •						
National Maternity Benefit	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	80.00	90,00
Scheme								
Post Partum programme	49.00	49,00	70.00	100.00	120.00	111.00	135.00	0.00
Reproductive and Child Health	220.10	350.10	450.10	758.00	676.80	951.00	1126.95	800.53
Programme (RCII)								
Health Guide Scheme	10,00	10.00	10.00	10.00	10.00	4.75	4.50	0.00
Total	279.10	409.10	530.10	868.00	806.80	1066.75	1346.45	890.53
Dept. of Education								
Mahila Samakhya	6,90	5.00	6.00	7.50	7.50	10.00	11.00	20,00
National programme for	0.00	0.00		0.00		160.00		and the second s
women's education								
Hostel facilities for girl	0.00	0.00	0.00	5.00	10.00	5.00	4.30	18.00
students								
Free education for girls	0,00	0.00	0.00	100.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Kasturba Gandhi Swatantrata V	idyalaya	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	8.50
Total	6.90	5.00	6.00	112.50	177.50	175.00	25.30	38.00
Ministry of Labour								
Improving working conditions	34.90	56.15	78.63	50.20	40.20	36.20	67.20	80.56
of child/women labour								
New ITs/Wings for Women	5.50	8,05	3.00	2.57	0.35	1.31	1.5	1.00
Fotal	40.40	64.20	81.63	52.77	40.55	37.51	68.70	81.56
Dept of Rural Development								
National Social Assistance Prog	ramme -							
Maternity Benefits Scheme	0.00	145.74	87.44	87.44	52.38	73.00	0.00	0,00
Development of Women &	65.00			100.00		0.00		
Children in rural areas	0.00	0,7,00	0.9.00	100.00	110.00	0.00	0.00	0,00
Total	65.00	210.74	152.44	187.44	168.38	73.00	0.00	0.00
Ministry of Textiles	02100	210.74	1	107.44	100.50		0.00	0.00
Grants to Institute of Fashion		. <u>.</u>	007	8.83	15 50	3(07	3(00	14.00
Technology	0.00	0.00	8.83	0.00	15.50	26.87	26.00	14.00
Ministry of Tribal Affairs								
Girl hostels (Sch tribes)	3.50	3.50	4.00	8.00	12.00	12.00	10.50	12.00
Ministry of Social Justice & F	Community of the second	-	4.00	0.00	12.00	12.00	10.50	12.00
Girls hostels (Sch. castes)	7.00		0.777	0.00	0.50	0.40	10.00	21.00
		· · · •	8.00	8.00	8.50	8.40	19.00	20.00
Special education programme for girls belonging to SC	0,60	0.60	3,80	3.00	5.00	2.00	0.01	0.00
Kasturba Gandhi Swatantrata		 	250.00	250.00	50.00	0.00	0.00	
Vidyalaya	0.00	0.00	250.00	250.00	50.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
l otal	7.60	7.60	261.80	261.00	63.50	10.40	10.01	10.00
TOTAL						10.40	19.01	20.00
	1198.89	1618.22	2020.96	2806.94	2712.26	2970.31	3260.00	3368.38

<u>Appendix III</u>

Women Specific Programmes in Central Budget: RE-RE.

Women Specific Programmes in Centr Women Specific programmes in		RE	RE	RE	RE	RE	RE
Central Budget							
	1995-96	1996-97	1997-98	1998-99	1999-00	2000-01	2001-02
Dept of Women & Child Development							
Balika Samridhi Yojana	0.00	0.00	60.00	60.00	40.00	21.00	16.00
Condensed courses for women education	10.00	9.00	9.00	9.00	1.65	1.50	2.00
Hostels for working women	7.75	7.75	7.75	7.75	7.75	7.02	7.00
Support to Training & Employment Programme (STEP)	16.00	16.00	16.00	16.00	15.00	13.00	18.00
Mahila Samriddhi Yojana	60.00	59.07	38.50	20.00	2.04	15.00	7.35
Socio-economic programmes	6.50	15.99	10.00	2.00	0.01	1.00	1.00
Central Social Welfare Board	22.95	17.01	17.05	24.00	22.38	24.70	27.00
Training-cum-Production Centres	6.20	18.00	17.00	18.00	13.00	11.00	18.00
Short Stay Homes	4,60	4.82	3.95	5.15	10.41	9.77	12.84
Awareness Generation Programme	2.25	2.25	2.10	2.25	3.00	1.80	4.00
National Commission for women	2.00	2.00	2.50	2.75	3.25	3.50	5.00
Swashakti project	0.00	0.00	0.00	8.00	5.00	8.00	15.00
Rashtriya Mahila Kosh	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.00	0.01	1.51	1,00
Indira Mahila Yojana	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.01	0.02	2.21	6.78
Swayamsiddha	0,09	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.22
Swadhar	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
National Nutrition Mission	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	Ú.()
Nutrition schemes for women and children	5.84	6.06	6.28	7.42	8.20	8.47	9.85
Lumpsum for schemes in the NE region&Sikkim	. 0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	130.00	(),()}
Other programmes for women's welfare	3.78	3.73	235	2.89	1.87	3.61	12.15
ICDS and other Child Welfare Schemes	717.02	729.89	876.17	988.63	1158.88	1129.81	1533.89
Total excl. item 18	147.87	161.68	190.13	186.22	133.59	263.09	163.20
Total	864.89	891.57	1066.30	1174.85	1292.47	1392.90	1697.09
Dept. of Agriculture and Co-operation							
Assistance to Women/ Weaker Sections Co-operative	3.30	2.55	1.60	1.45	0.00	0.00	0.00
Training of Women in Agriculture of NE region & Sikkim	()_() ⁽)	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Total	3.38	2.55	1.60	1.45	0.00	0.00	0.00

Women Specific programs in Central Budget	RE	RE	RE	RE	RE	RE	RI
	1995-96	1996-97	1997-98	1998-99	1999-00	2000-01	2001-02
Dept of Health							· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·
Lady Hardinge Medical College and	24.18	25.82	34.35	39.00	42.80	42.05	42.12
Sucheta Kripalani Hospital							1
Development of Nursing Services	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	11.50	16.00	12,00
Total	24.18	25.82	34.35	39.00	54.30	58.05	54.12
Dept of Family Welfare							
National Maternity Benefit Scheme	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	80.00
Post Partum programme	49,00	49.03	70.00	100.00	120.00	111.00	134.22
RCH	220.10	335.11	450.10	603.00	695.00	801.00	933.36
Health Guide Scheme	10.00	10.00	10.00	10.00	10.00	4.75	4.50
Total	279.10	394.14	530.10	713.00	825.00	916.75	1152.08
Dept. of Education		l					
Mahila Samakhya	6.90	4.70	4.75	5.50	6.00	9.00	9.00
National programme for women's education	() ()()	0.00		0.00	50.00	10.00	
Hostel facilities for girl students	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.30	4.00	2.50	6,00
Free education for girls	0.00	0.00	0.00	100.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Kasturba Gandhi Swatantrata Vidyalaya	1 1		0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0,00
Total	6,90	4,70	4.75	106.80	60.00	21.50	15.01
Ministry of Labour							
Improving working conditions of child/women labour	34.55	40.15	35.93	35.93	34.20	35.83	62.00
New ITs/Wings for Women	3.36	4.05	5.50	2.00	3.90	1.31	0.57
Total	37.85	44,20	41.43	37.93	38.10	37.14	62.57
Dept of Rural Development	· ···· i	·· · · · · · ·					
National Social Assistance Programme -	i						
Maternity Benefits Scheme	84.02	70.00	46.74	56.36	67.38	73.00	0.00
Development of Women & Children in rural areas	65.00	65.00	62.00	70.00	70.00	0.00	0.00
Total	149.92	135.00	108.74	126.36	137.38	73.00	0.00
Ministry of Textiles							
Grants to Institute of Fashion	0.00	0.00	8.83	8.83	15.50	26.87	35.50
Technology		0.00	0.05	0.05	1	20.07	0.0.00
Ministry of Tribal Affairs	*						
Girl hostels (Sch tribes)	3.50	3.50	3.80	8.00	12.00	7.00	7.50
Ministry of Social Justice & Empower							
Girls hostels (Sch. castes)	7.00	7.00	7.60	8.00	8.50	9.10	19.00
Special education programme for girls belonging to SC	0.60	0.60	0.15	0.70	0.70	0.70	() 15
Kasturba Gandhi Swatantrata Vidyalaya	0.00	0.00	1.00	20.00	50.00	0.00	0.00
Total	7.60	7.60	8.75	28.70	59.20	9.80	19.15
TOTAL	1376.34	1509.08	1808.65	2244.92	2493.95	2543.01	3043.02

Appendix IV

List of Programmes designed for Women's Welfare

Department of Women and Child Development

1.**Balika Samriddhi Yojana:** It was launched in 1997 with the aim of raising the status of girl children. Under this scheme as revised in 1999, the government gives a grant of Rs.500 each upto two girls born in any family living below the poverty line. These girls also get scholarship when they start going to school. The total allocation in 2000 - 01 budget was Rs. 27 erore. In Union Budget 2001-02, the total allocation for the programme is Rs. 25 erores against RE 2000-01 of Rs. 21 erores.

2. <u>Condensed Courses for Women Education</u>: Under this programme, funds are provided for women's education and later on employment. Voluntary organisations are given grants to promote women's education. The total allocation in 2000 -01 budget was Rs 1.5, erore. In Union Budget 2001-02, the total allocation for the programme is Rs. 2 erores against RE-2000-01 of Rs, 1.5 erores.

3.<u>Hostels for Working Women</u>. This scheme was launched to assist NGOs, Universities and State Governments to build hostels for working women with an annual income less than Rs.16,000. The total allocation in 2000 –01 budget was Rs. 7.02 erore. In Union Budget 2001-02, the total allocation for the programme is Rs.9 erores against RE 2000-01 of Rs. 7.02 erores.

4.<u>Support to Training and Employment Programme</u>: This was initiated to encourage women's participation in some traditional sectors, such as agriculture, animal husbandry, handloom and sericulture. The total allocation in 2000 – 01 budget was Rs. 13 erore. In Union Budget 2001-02, the total allocation for the programme is Rs.18 erores against RL 2000-01 of Rs. 13 erores.

5.<u>Mahila Samriddhi Yojana</u>: This was a Central Sector Plan scheme created to foster saving among rural women through the net work of post offices. For an amount upto Rs.300 in a year with one year lock-in period, government contributes 25 per cent. The total allocation in 2000 -01 budget was Rs. 15 erore. In Union Budget 2001-02, the total allocation for the programme decreased to Rs.8 erores against RE 2000-01 of Rs. 15 erores. The scheme Mahila Samriddhi Yojana is now being merged with Indira Mahila Yojana.

6.<u>Socio Economic Programme</u>: Under this programme, financial assistance is provided to voluntary institutions for promoting income-generating activities among needy women. The total allocation in 2000 01 budget was Rs. 1 erore. In Union Budget 2001-02, the total allocation for the programme is unchanged at Rs. 1 erore.

7.<u>Central Social Welfare Board</u>: Under this programme, financial assistance is provided to voluntary institutions in the rural areas for the welfare services of women, children, handicapped and aged. The total allocation in 2000 - 01 budget was Rs. 25 erore. In Union Budget 2001-02, the total allocation for the programme is Rs. 27 erores against RE 2000-01 of Rs. 24.7 erores. The plan component of expenditure on Central Social Welfare Board has increased from Rs. 14 erores in Budget, 2000-01 to Rs.15 erores in Budget, 2001-02; while the non-plan component has increased from Rs. 11 erores to Rs. 12 erores.

8. <u>Training-cum-Production Centres</u>: This scheme intends to train and absorb women of the weaker sections. It is partly funded by the Norwegian Agency for International Cooperation. Under this programme, financial assistance is provided to voluntary institutions for promoting income generating activities among needy women. The total allocation in 2000 - 01 Budget was Rs. 13 erore, of which Rs. 8 erores was provided by the Central Government. In Union Budget 2001-02, the total allocation for the programme is Rs. 18 erores (of which Rs. 5 erores is external assistance) against RE 2000-01 of Rs. 11 erores.

9.<u>Short Stay Home</u>: This scheme was launched to rehabilitate women and girls suffering from domestic violence or social exploitation. The total allocation in 2000 - 01 budget was Rs. 14.51 crore. In Union

Budget 2001-02, the total allocation for the programme is Rs. 12.84 crores against RE 2000-01 of Rs. 9.77 crores. The Plan and Non-Plan components of expenditure on Short Stay Homes are Rs. 12 crores and Rs. 2.51 crores respectively in Budget, 2000 01 which is Rs. 10 crores and Rs. 2.84 crores respectively in Budget, 2001-01.

10.<u>Awareness Generation Programme(AGP)</u>: Under this scheme Rs, 1000 is given per camp which inculcates the spirit of organised activities among rural women. The total allocation in 2000 – 01 budget was Rs. 1.8 erore. In Union Budget 2001-02, the total allocation for the programme is Rs. 4 erores against RE 2000-01 of Rs. 1.8 erores.

11.<u>National Commission for Women</u>: This Commission is to review the Constitutional laws relating to the safeguard of women. It is a statutory body fully financed by Central Government. The total allocation in 2000–01 budget was Rs. 3.5 erore. In Union Budget 2001-02, the total allocation for the programme is Rs. 5 erores against RE 2000-01 of Rs. 3.5 erores.

12.Swashakti Project (Integrated Project for the Development for Women): This project was initiated to empower women especially those engaged in *on farm* activities in rural areas. This is implemented through Women's Development Corporations in the respective states. The total allocation in 2000 – 01 budget was Rs. 15 erore, of which Rs.12 erores was funded by external agencies. In Union Budget 2001-02, the total allocation for the programme is Rs. 15 erores (of which Rs. 13.5 erores is external assistance) against RE 2000-01 of Rs. 8 erores.

13.**Rashtriya Mahila Kosh**: Established in 1993 with a corpus fund of Rs.31 crores. The main objective is to offer non-subsidised credits to poor women through NGOs. The total allocation in 2000 -01 budget was Rs. 3 crore. In Union Budget 2001-02, the total allocation for the programme is Rs. 1.00 crore against RE 2000-01 of Rs. 1.51 crores.

14.<u>Indira Mahila Yojana</u>: Launched in 1995-96 in 200 blocks. It is expected to extend this programme in more blocks. The total allocation in 2000 - 01 budget was Rs. 18 erore. In Union Budget 2001-02, the total allocation for the programme is Rs. 19.50 erore against. RE 2000-01 of Rs. 2.21 erores.

15.<u>Other Programmes</u>: It includes Women's Empowerment Project, National Resource Centre for Women, Women Development and Monitoring Cell. Distance Education Training Programme for Women Empowerment, etc. The total allocation in 2000 – 01 budget was Rs. 6.11 erore. Women's Empowerment Project has Rs. 1.43 erores external assistance. In Union Budget 2001-02, the total allocation for the programme is Rs. 19.89 erore against RE 2000-01 of Rs. 3.61 erores. This quantum jump in the allocation for the programme in Budget, 2001-02 is due to the introduction of two new schemes viz., Celebration of Women's Empowerment Year 2001 and women in difficult circumstances.

16.Other Schemes on Nutrition: The primary objective of this programme is to create nutritional awareness among women and children and also cradicate malnutrition in a time-bound fashion. The total allocation in 2000 -01 budget was Rs. 9.05 erore. In Union Budget 2001-02, the total allocation for the programme is Rs. 10.15 erore against RF 2000-01 of Rs. 8.47 erores. The Plan outlay of Rs. 2.9 erores for the programme in Budget, 2000-01 has been enhanced to Rs. 4 erores in BE, 2001-02, in the light of proposal to launch the National Nutrition Mission to address the problem of malnutrition in a holistic manner.

17.Lump-sum Provision for Schemes for the Benefit of North-Eastern Region and Sikkim : The programme includes the provision for Projects Schemes for the benefit of North East Region and Sikkim.

18. Child Welfare Schemes: The scheme constitutes of Integrated Child Development Services (ICDS). Day Care Centres. Balwadi Nutrition Programme, Contribution to UNICEF, Early Childhood Education assistance to Voluntary Organisations and other child welfare schemes. The total allocation in 2000 01 budget was Rs. 1186.41 erore. In Union Budget 2001-02, the total allocation for the programme is Rs. 1502.91 erore against RE 2000-01 of Rs. 1129.81 erores.

Ministry of Agriculture/ Department of Agriculture and Cooperation

19. <u>Programmes on Cooperation and Credit-Assistance to Weaker/Women Cooperative</u>: The provision includes grants and loans to States for Women-Weaker Sections. It also includes assistance to National Cooperative Federation. The total allocation in 2000–01 budget was Rs 0.7 crores. No allocation for this programme in BE 2001-02.

20. Lumpsum provision for projects/schemes in NE Region and Sikkim – Training of Women in <u>Agriculture</u>: The amount carmarked for training of women in agriculture in North East region and Sikkim in BE 2001-02 is Rs. 0.5 crores.

Ministry of Health and Family Welfare/ Department of Health

21.Lady Hardinge Medical College and Sucheta Kripalani Hospital, New Delhi: It is run by the Government to provide undergraduate and post graduate medical education for women and medical care for women and children and also post graduate medical education for male students. It also runs School of Nursing offering nursing and midwifery courses. The total allocation in 2000 – 01 budget was Rs 44.88 erores. In Union Budget 2001-02, the total allocation for the programme is Rs. 43.74 erore against RF 2000-01 of Rs. 42.05 erores. The Plan allocation declined from Rs. 8.65 erores in BE 2000-01 to Rs. 7.54 erores in BE 2001-02, while the non-plan outlay remained constant at around Rs. 14 erores.

22.<u>Development of Nursing Services</u>: It provides training and residential accommodation for nursing personnel working in Central Government Hospitals in New Delhi. The total allocation in 2000–01 budget was Rs 17.3 crores. In Union Budget 2001-02, the total allocation for the programme is Rs. 21.50 crore against the RE 2000-01 of Rs. 16 erores.

Ministry of Health and Family Welfare /Department of Family Welfare

23.<u>National Maternity Benefit Scheme:</u> The programme has been transferred from Department of Rural Development to the Department of Family Welfare. A provision of Rs. 80 erores has been provided for this Scheme during 2000-01 out of which Rs 8 erores is earmarked for North East region. The allocation in Budget, 2000-01 is Rs. 72 erores.

24. **Post Partum programmes:** This programme is a maternity centre hospital based approach to family Welfare Programme. It covers 550 Post Partum Centres at district levels and 1012 Post Partum centres at sub-district level hospitals. The aim of the programme is to provide antenatal, natal and post natal services to expectant mothers and also to provide Family Planning Services besides diagnosing early case of cervical cancer. The total allocation in 2000–01 budget was Rs 111 crores. The allocation in Budget, 2001-02 is enhanced to Rs. 135 crores.

25: **<u>Reproductive and Child Health Programme (RCII)</u>: This is the programme for Mother and Child, which was reorganised in 1997 in the form of RCH. The programme aims to improve the health status of women and children, especially the poor, by reducing the IMR, CMR and MMR through 'Safe Motherhood Programme'. The total allocation in 2000–01 budget was Rs 951 crores. In Union Budget 2001-02, the total allocation for the programme is Rs.1126.95 crore against the RE-2000-01 of Rs. 801 crores.**

26. <u>Health Guide Scheme</u>: The Village Health Guide Scheme aims to train local persons, preferably women in the Primary Health Care Centres. Health guides selected under this Scheme by the village community from every 1000 population of a village are provided an honorarium of Rs.50 per month. The total allocation in 2000 – 01 budget was Rs 4.75 erores. In Union Budget 2001-02, the total allocation for the programme is Rs. 4.5 erore against the RF 20-01 of Rs. 4.75 erores.

Department of Elementary Education and Literacy & Department of Secondary Education and Higher Education

27.<u>Hostel Facilities for Girl Students</u>: Launched in 1993-94 for girl students in secondary and higher secondary schools particularly in rural areas and weaker sections. The total allocation in 2000 – 01 budget was Rs. 5 crore. In Union Budget 2001-02, the total allocation for the programme is Rs.4.3 crore against RE 2000-01 of Rs. 2.5 crores.

28.<u>National Programme for Women Education</u>: It was launched to provide access and other incentives for promotion of girls' education. The total allocation in 2000 - 01 budget was Rs. 160 erore. In Union Budget 2001-02, the total allocation for the programme is Rs. 10 erore against RE 2000-01 of Rs. 160 erores. The process of formulation of a "National Strategy for ensuring greater participation of women in educational field" is presently at an advanced stage of finalisation.

29.<u>Mahila Samakhya Programme</u>: It is 100 per cent Dutch assisted programme launched in 91988 to promote non-formal education and address issues like drinking water, health and violence against women. The government approved continuation of this programme during Ninth Five Year Plan with an outlay of Rs. 35 crores. The total allocation in 2000–01 badget was Rs. 10 crore. In Union Budget 2001-02, the total allocation for the programme is Rs. 14 crore against RE 2000-01 of Rs. 9 crores.

30. <u>Free Education for girls</u>: A scheme was formulated in Department of Education in provide "free education for girls upto college level, including professional courses", as envisaged in the "National Agenda for Governance". The total allocation in 1998-99 budget was Rs.100 crores.

Ministry of Labour

31.Improvements in Working Conditions of Child/Women Labour: It provides for the formulation, coordination and implementation of welfare programmes of women and child labour. The total allocation in 2000–01 budget was Rs 36.20 crores. In Union Budget 2001-02, the total allocation for the programme is Rs. 67.20 crore against the RE 2000-01 of Rs. 35.83 crores.

32.<u>New ITs/Wings for Women</u>: This is a World Bank-assisted scheme. The Scheme envisages establishment of new ITs/Wings for Women in different States in phased manner. This scheme is being implemented in States as a Centrally Sponsored Scheme on 50:50 pattern of funding.

Ministry of Rural Development

33. Development of Women and Child in Rural Areas (DWCRA)

DWCRA was a sub scheme of IRDP, which was to provide income generating assets and activities to poor women in rural areas and inculcate in them the habit of thrift. In addition to benefits of loan subsidy to individual members, each group of women under DWCRA was given a lump sum grant of Rs. 25, 000 as Revolving Fund for meeting working capital requirements. This scheme has been merged with Swarnajayanti Gram Swarozgar Yojana (SGSY) with effect from 1^{st} April 1999.

Ministry of Textiles

34. <u>Grants to Institute of Fashion Technology</u>: The total allocation in 2000 – 01 budget was Rs 26.87 crores. The allocation in BE 2001-02 is Rs. 26 crores

Ministry of Tribal Affairs

35. <u>Girls Hostels:</u> The grant is provided to the State Governments on 50:50 basis and 100% in case of UTs for the construction and expansion of hostels for Scheduled Tribes girls. This is to promote literacy among ST girls. The total allocation in 2000 – 01 budget was Rs 12 erores. In Union Budget 2001-02, the total allocation for the programme is Rs. 10.50 erore against the RE 2000-01 of Rs. 7 erores.

Ministry of Social Justice and Empowerment

36. <u>Girls Hostels</u>: Under this scheme, grant is given to State governments on 50:50 basis for construction and extension of hostel buildings for SC girls who are undergoing secondary education. The total allocation in 2000 –01 budget was Rs 8.40 crores. In Union Budget 2001-02, the total allocation for the programme is Rs.19 crore against the RE 2000-01 of Rs. 9.10 crores.

37. <u>Special Education Programme for girls belonging to SC of very low literacy level:</u> This scheme provides funds on 100 per cent basis to Zilla Parishads for setting up educational complexes for SC girls in low literacy areas. The total allocation in 2000 – 01 budget was Rs 2 crores. In Union Budget 2001-02, the total allocation for the programme is Rs.0.01 crore against the RE 2000-01 of Rs. 0.7 crores.

38. <u>Kasturba Gandhi Swatantrata Vidyalaya</u>: This new scheme is launched in the 50th year of independence of India to open schools for girls in selected districts, where female literacy is low, including tribal areas. The total allocation in 1999-2000 budget was Rs 50 erores, but there is no allocation for this scheme in 2000-01 and 2001-02.

<u>Appendix V</u>

Selected List of Public Expenditure with Pro-women Allocations

Department of Agriculture and Co-operation

1. National Watershed Development Programme for Rainfed Area (NWDPRA):

NWDPRA aims to achieve sustainable production of biomass and restoration of ecological balance in vast tracts of rainfed areas in the country. This project focuses on (i) conservation, upgradation and utilisation of natural endowments, (ii) employment generation (iii) scientific management of land and water and (iv) reduction of inequalities between irrigated and rainfed areas. NWDPRA has a women component of about 20-25 per cent. The total allocation for NWDPRA in 2000 -01 budget was Rs 55 crores. There is no allocation for NWDORA in this year's budget.

Ministry of Health and Family Welfare

The schemes/programmes, being implemented by the Department of Health, have universal coverage without being age specific or gender specific. Women are also major beneficiaries of all these schemes. For instance, programme like Assistance towards expenditure on hospitalisation of poor and National Illness Assistance Fund are of immense benefit to women.

Though there is no specific scheme on women and children in the budget for Department of Indian System of Medicine and Homeopathy, women are also major beneficiaries of these programmes. Some schemes identified under Ministry of Health and Family Welfare that benefit women are noted as follows.

1. Assistance towards expenditure on hospitalisation of poor: This provision is for grant assistance to State/Union Territory Governments on account of expenditure on providing long term and expensive treatment needed by the poor. The total allocation for the programme in 2000 -01 budget was Rs 6.5 crores. The allocation for the programme came down to Rs. 4.2 crores in this year's budget.

2. <u>National Illness Assistance Fund (NIAF)</u>: This fund is constituted for meeting the expenditure on hospitalisation of poor. The total allocation for NIAF in 2000 - 01 budget was Rs 0.5 erores. The allocation for NIAF came down to Rs. 0.3 erores in this year's budget.

3.<u>Rural family Welfare Centres (RFWC)</u>: These Centres at block level PHCs provide Family Planning and Mother and Child Care (MCII) services in rural areas. The total allocation for_RFWC in 2000 01 budget was Rs 857 crores, which has increased to Rs. 994.50 crores in this year's budget.

4.<u>Urban Family Welfare Services (UFWS)</u>: These Centres in urban areas provide Family Welfare and Mother and Child Care (MCII) services. The total allocation for UFWS in 2000–01 budget was Rs 58.50 crores, which has increased to Rs. 67.50 crores in this year's budget.

5.<u>Strengthening of Immunisation Program and Eradication of Polio</u>: This programme is a component of RCH programme to achieve at least 80 per cent coverage of all eligible children with all antigens and zero polio incidence by the end of the year 2000. The total allocation for the programme in 2000 - 01 budget was Rs 46 crores, which has increased to Rs. 54 crores in this year's budget.

6.<u>Transport</u>: As mobility is a prerequisite for an effective service delivery of health and family welfare, vehicles are provided at various levels by the Government of India to States. Assistance to maintain vehicles are also given at the rate of Rs. 20,000 per annum per petrol driven vehicle and Rs. 15,000 per annum per diesel driven vehicle. UNFPA is also providing ambulances for Family Welfare Programme. The total allocation for the programme in 2000–01 budget was Rs 70.42 crores, which has decreased to Rs. 63.22 crores in this year's budget.

7.Sterilisation Beds: Under this scheme, a maintenance grant at the rate of Rs. 4500 per bed per annum)

is paid to each institution subject to the condition that a minimum of 75/60 tubertomies per bed per annum are achieved by Government-Voluntary Organisation respectively. The total allocation for the

programme in 2000 -01 budget was Rs 1.70 crores, which has decreased to Rs. 1.35 erores in this year's budget.

Department of Education

Several schemes/programmes that benefit women are already in existence under the Department of Education. Major schemes among them are noted below.

1.<u>Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan:</u> Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan under Department of Elementary Education and Literacy is an integrated National Education programme, which aims to provide eight years of quality elementary education for all children upto the age of 14 years in a Mission mode with a thrust on community ownership, disadvantaged group and girl's quality education and alternative modes of education. All existing schemes on elementary education will converge with this scheme after the Ninth Five Year Plan and it will cover all districts in India by March 2002 (para 63, Part A, Union Budget, 2001-02). The allocation for Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan in Union Budget, 2001-02 is Rs. 500 crores as compared to Rs. 350 crores in BE 2000-01 and Rs. 100 crores in RE 2000-01.

2.**Operation Blackboard**: This scheme was launched in 1987-88. It aims at providing Teaching Learning Equipment (TLE) and two/three teachers to primary schools. The Scheme provides 100 per cent Central assistance for TLE and for the salary of teachers. The total allocation in 2000-01 budget was Rs. 400 crores.

In Union Budget 2001-02, the total allocation for the programme is Rs. 520 crores against RE 2000-01 of Rs. 440 crores

3.**District Primary Education Programme (DPEP):** This programme aims to operationalise the strategy for universalisation of elementary education. The programme has a marked gender focus and aims at improving access to primary education and reducing dropouts. The total allocation in 2000-01 budget was Rs. 969 crores.

In Union Budget 2001-02, the total allocation for the programme is Rs. 1100 crores against RE 2000-01 of Rs. 820 crores

4.<u>National Programme of Nutritional Support to Primary Education</u>: The programme was launched in 15th August 1995. It aims to give a boost to universalisation of primary education and improving the nutritional status of students in primary classes. The total allocation in 2000-01 budget was Rs. 1090 crores.

In Union Budget 2001-02, the total allocation for the programme is Rs. 930 crores against RE 2000-01 of Rs. 1300 crores.

5. <u>Non-Formal Education (NFE)</u>: The aim of this programme is to achieve the goal of universalisation of elementary education and fulfillment of the constitutional object is being run by Central Government for children of 6-14 age group who remain outside due to various reasons. The NFE is implemented through State governments and voluntary NGOs. The Central assistance to State governments is provided on sharing basis between State governments and Central government in the ratio of 40:60 for co-educational centres and 10:90 for exclusively girls centres. The Central assistance to NGOs for running NFE Centres and Experimental and Innovative Projects and District Resource Units is being provided on 100 per cent basis. The total allocation in 2000-01 budget was Rs. 300 erores.

In Union Budget 2001-02, the total allocation for the programme is Rs. 399 crores against RE 2000-01 of Rs. 171 crores

6. Shiksha Karmi Project: This Project aims at universalisation of primary education in remote and socially backward villages in Rajasthan with primary attention given to girls. The project was implemented in 1987. SIDA and Government of Rajasthan shared the project cost in the ratio 90: 10 respectively for Phase I. The cost sharing of Phase II of the Project (ended in 1998) was revised to 50:50. Government of India has been making provision in respect of SIDA's share in its Central Plan Budget, which was fully reimbursable by SIDA. DFID. UK has agreed to support the Phase III (1999-2003) on the cost sharing basis of 50:50. EFC/cabinet approval is awaited for the continuation of Phase III of SKP. The total allocation in 2000-01 budget was Rs. 26.12 crores.

In Union Budget 2001-02, the total allocation for the programme is Rs. 30.00 erores against RE 2000-01 of Rs. 26.12 erores.

Department of Youth Affairs and Sports

There is no separate Women Component Plan in various schemes of the Department. However, there are certain programmes which have pro-women allocation under this Department; some of them are listed below.

1. <u>Sports Authority of India (SAI)</u>: SAI is an autonomous body implementing a number of plan schemes including encouraging sports talents, creation of a central pool of sports equipment promotion of women sports, rural sports, sports scholarships, national coaching camps etc. The total allocation in 2000-01 budget was Rs. 78.14 erores.

In Union Budget 2001-02, the total allocation for the programme is Rs. 98.74 crores against RE 2000-01 of Rs. 89.41 crores .

2. <u>Sports Scholarship Scheme:</u> This scheme aims at inspiring talented young boys and girls at school level to develop their attitude towards competitive sports and to enable them to have nutritious diet. The total allocation in 2000-01 budget was Rs. 3.00 crores.

In Union Budget 2001-02, the total allocation for the programme is Rs. 3.60 crores against RE 2000-01 of Rs. 4.00 crores .

3. <u>Miscellaneous schemes of Dept. of Youth Affairs and Sports</u>: This include rural sports programme, promotion of sports among women, National Sports Championships for Women, grants for NCC eadets of Central Schools etc. The total allocation in 2000-01 budget was Rs. 5.50 erores.

In Union Budget 2001-02, the total allocation for the programme is Rs. 3.31 crores against RE 2000-01 of Rs. 3.39 erores.

4. <u>Nehru Yuva Kendra Sangathan (NYKS):</u> It is a Central autonomous body, which has Nehru Yuva Kendras in the districts functioning under it. It is the largest grass root level organisation in Asia-Pacific region, catering to more than eight million youth in the age group of 15-35 years. The thrust of NYKS is on youth leadership, training, community services, vocational training, sports and recreation, non-formal education etc. The total allocation in 2000-01 budget was Rs. 36.90 erores.

In Union Budget 2001-02, the total allocation for the programme is Rs. 40.41 crores against RE 2000-01 of Rs. 40.30 crores.

5. <u>National Service Scheme</u>: This scheme was started in 19669-70. It is implemented through universities, colleges and other institutes of higher learning. The scheme includes institutional work by students to work as volunteers outside campus, institutional projects inside campus like planting trees, constructing play fields etc and rural projects for eradication of illiteracy, nutrition programmes, environmental conservation etc. The total allocation in 2000-01 budget was Rs. 31.65 crores.

In Union Budget 2001-02, the total allocation for the programme is Rs. 29.85 crores against RE 2000-01 of Rs. 30.65 crores.

Ministry of Labour

Selected programmes under Ministry of Labour with pro-women allocations are listed below.

1. <u>Employment and Training</u>: The employment schemes include vocational guidance and counselling, employment assistance to certain selected category through Couching-cum-Guidance Centres, Vocational Rehabilitation Centres for handicapped etc. The total allocation in 2000-01 budget was Rs. 65.89 crores.

In Union Budget 2001-02, the total allocation for the programme is Rs. 63.95 crores against RE 2000-01 of Rs. 59.63 crores.

2.<u>Labour Welfare Schemes</u>: This programme provides schemes for welfare of Beedi workers, labour working in mica, iron, manganese (excluding coal) mines etc. The total allocation in 2000-01 budget was Rs. 65.08 erores.

In Union Budget 2001-02, the total allocation for the programme is Rs. 105.56 erores against RE 2000-01 of Rs. 73.38 erores.

3.<u>Employees Pension Scheme, 1995</u>: The new scheme provides family pension and life insurance benefits to Industrial Workers. The total allocation in 2000-01 budget was Rs. 590.01 crores.

In Union Budget 2001-02, the total allocation for the programme is Rs. 650.00 crores against RE 2000-01 of Rs. 590.01 crores.

4. <u>Compensation to Families of heavy duty Inter-State vehicle drivers killed in accidents:</u> The total allocation in 2000-01 budget was Rs. 0.30 crores. In Union Budget 2001-02, the total allocation for the programme is Rs. 0.35 crores against RE 2000-01 of Rs. 0.30 crores.

Ministry of Non-conventional Energy Resources

1. <u>Biogas programme and National Project on Biogas (NPB)</u>: This programme aims at providing clean gas for cooking and electricity generation and enriched manure from cattle dung etc. The NPB provides subsidy to farmers for setting up biogas plants and fee for rural energy technicians for construction and maintenance service for Biogas plants for a period of three years. The total allocation in 2000-01 budget was Rs. 66.50 erores.

In Union Budget 2001-02, the total allocation for the programme is Rs. 64.95 erores against RE 2000-01 of Rs. 62.50 erores.

2. <u>National Programme on Improved Chulhas:</u> This programme aims to promote improved Chulhas to conserve fuel wood, reduction in drudgery and health hazards to women and girl children in collection of fuel wood and exposure to while cooking on traditional chulhas. The total allocation in 2000-01 budget was Rs. 19.00 crores.

In Union Budget 2001-02, the total allocation for the programme is Rs. 16.05 crores against RE 2000-01 of Rs. 16.50 erores .

3. <u>Indian Renewable Energy Development Agency (IREDA</u>): IREDA has been set up to provide soft loans for various new and renewable sources of energy projects and schemes. The total allocation in 2000-01 budget was Rs. 618.74 crores.

In Union Budget 2001-02, the total allocation for the programme is Rs. 624.11 crores against RE 2000-01 of Rs. 616.74 crores .

Ministry of Small scale Industries and Agro and Rural Industries

1. <u>Prime Minister's Rozgar Yojana (PMRY)</u>: PMRY began in 1993 October 2nd. It aims to provide self employment to educated unemployed youth. The total allocation in 2000-01 budget was Rs. 201.00 crores.

In Union Budget 2001-02, the total allocation for the programme is Rs. 193.50 crores against RE 2000-01 of Rs. 201.00 crores.

2. <u>Khadi and Village Industries Commission (KVIC)</u>: KVIC organise and implement programmes for the development of Khadi and Village Industruies with a view to generate greater employment for rural population. The total allocation in 2000-01 budget was Rs. 214.10 crores.

In Union Budget 2001-02, the total allocation for the programme is Rs. 245.25 crores against RE 2000-01 of Rs.217.10 crores.

3. <u>Rural Employment Generation Programme (REGP)</u>: REGP envisages to generate additional employment in the rural industries sector through development of Khadi and Village Industries. The High Power Committee on Khadi and Village Industries Sector has recommended generation of 2 million additional jobs in the KVI sector by 2000 AD. The total allocation in 2000-01 budget was Rs. 110.00 erores.

In Union Budget 2001-02, the total allocation for the programme is Rs. 120.00 crores against RE 2000-01 of Rs.80.00 crores .

4. <u>National Small Industries Corporation (NSIC)</u>: NSIC was formed under the Companies Act in 1955. The functions include supply of imported and indigeneous machines to small scale units on hire purchase basis, supply and distribution of raw materials etc., upgradation of technology and provision of technical training. The total allocation in 2000-01 budget was Rs. 138.00 errores.

In Union Budget 2001-02, the total allocation for the programme is Rs. 120.00 crores against RE 2000-01 of Rs. 120.00 crores.

Ministry of Rural Development

Selected schemes/programmes with pro-women allocations under the Ministry of Rural Development are noted below.

1.Swarnajayanti Gram Swarozgar Yojana (SGSY) is a holistic self-employment programme under the Ministry of Rural Development with the aim of establishing microenterprises in rural areas. The programme aims to uplift every assisted family above poverty line within three years. It is noted that at least 50 per cent of Swaranajayanti beneficiaries would be SC/STs; *40 per cent women* and 3 per cent disabled. The allocation for SGSY in the Union Budget. 2001-02 is Rs. 450 erores as compared to Rs. 370 erores in RE 200-01 and Rs. 900 erores in BE 2000-01.

2. <u>National Social Assistance Programme</u>: It was launched on August 15th 1995. This Centrally Sponsored Programme has three components: viz., National Old Age Pension Scheme (NOAPS), National Family Benefits Scheme (NEBS) and National Maternity Benefits Scheme (NMBS). The benefits payable under the National Old Age Pension Scheme is Rs.75 per month, under National Family Benefit Scheme Rs.10, 000 and under the National Maternity Benefit Scheme Rs.500 for the first two live births. The total allocation in 2000 - 01 budget was Rs 643.00 erores, which has increased to Rs. 751.50 in 2001-02 budget. The third component of National Maternity Benefit Scheme (NBMS) has been transferred to the Ministry of Family Welfare since 2001-02.

3. Jawahar Gram Samridhi Yojana (JGSY): Jawahar Rozgar Yojana has been restructured and renamed as Jawahar Gram Samriddi Yojana (JGSY) with effect from 1.4. 1999. The revamped programme aims at creating need-based rural infrastructure at the village level; in particular to develop infrastructure for SC/ST habitations, education and public health. The programme also provides individual assets to the poorest of the poor SC/ST families, as 22.5 per cent funds are carmarked for them. 30 per cent of the employment opportunities are also reserved for women. The 100% of JSGY funds are provided to Village Panchayats. The funds are shared between Centre and States in the ratio of 75:25. The total allocation in 2000-01 budget was Rs. 1485.00 errores.

In Union Budget 2001-02, the total allocation for the programme is Rs. 1485.00 erores against RE 2000-01 of Rs. 1345.00 erores.

4. Indira Awas Yojana (IAY): IAY was started in May 1985 as a subscheme of Jawahar Rozgar Yojana. It is being implemented as an independent scheme since 1st January 1996. The primary objective of IAY is to help construction of dwelling units, especially to SC ST, freed bounded labourers and also non-SC/ST rural poor below the poverty line by providing them with grants-in-aid. Three per cent of funds are reserved for the benefits of disabled below the poverty line in rural areas. The funds are shared between Centre and States in the ratio of 75:25. The credit-cum-subsidy Scheme initiated with effect from 1.4.1999 is now in operation and intends to provide relief to rural households having an annual income of not more than Rs. 32,000. The total allocation in 2000-01 budget was Rs. 1539.00 crores.

In Union Budget 2001-02, the total allocation for the programme is Rs. 1374.30 erores against RF 2000-01 of Rs. 1490.00 erores.

5. <u>Rural Sanitation Programme</u>: This programme was launched with a view to achieve at least 35 per cent coverage of rural population by the end of the 9th Plan period. Rural School Sanitation has been introduced as the major component of this programme. The total allocation in 2000-01 budget was Rs. 126.00 crores.

In Union Budget 2001-02, the total allocation for the programme is Rs. 135.00 erores against RE 2000-01 of Rs. 126.00 erores.

6. <u>Accelerated Rural Water Supply Programme (ARWSP)</u>: This programme aims of institutionalising community participation in the planning of Rural Water Supply Schemes. The total allocation in 2000-01 budget was Rs. 1764.07 crores.

In Union Budget 2001-02, the total allocation for the programme is Rs. 1809.08 crores against RE 2000-01 of Rs. 1764.07 crores.

Ministry of Urban Employment and Poverty Alleviation

Swarna Jayanti Shahari Rozgar Yojana: This scheme started in November 1997 aimed at providing gainful employment to urban unemployed or underemployed poor. The earlier schemes of Urban Basic Services for the poor, Nehru Rozgar Yojana and Prime Minister's Integrated Urban Poverty Eradication Programme have been subsumed in this scheme. The total allocation in 2000-01 budget was Rs. 168.00 crores.

In Union Budget 2001-02, the total allocation for the programme is Rs. 168.00 crores against RE 2000-01 of Rs. 95.03 crores .

Ministry of Social Justice and Empowerment and Tribal Affairs

Under this Ministry, no specific funds are carmarked for Women Component Plan. Certain programmes with pro-women allocations are noted below.

1. <u>Post Matric Scheme for SC:</u> The objective of post matric scheme is to provide fianancial assistance to SC students studying at Post-matriculation or post-secondary stage to enable to enable them to complete their studies through College/University and also through correspondence courses. This Scheme is financed by the Central Government on 100 per cent/ basis over and above the committed expenditure to be met by the States. The total allocation in 2000-01 bud set was Rs. 130.00 crores.

In Union Budget 2001-02, the total allocation for the programme is Rs. 154.63 crores against RF 2000-01 of Rs.130.00 crores.

2. <u>Machinery for Implementation of Protection of Civil Rights Act</u>, 1955 and Prevention of <u>Attrocities Act</u>, 1989: Assistance is provided to States on 50:50 basis and 100 per cent to Uts. The total allocation in 2000-01 budget was Rs. 27.00 erores.

In Union Budget 2001-02, the total allocation for the programme is Rs. 29.00 crores against RE 2000-01 of Rs.27.00 crores.

3. <u>Pre-matric Scholarship Scheme</u>: This scheme provides financial assistance to children engaged in unclean occupations like scavenging, tanning, flaying etc. The total allocation in 2000-01 budget was Rs. 9.00 crores.

In Union Budget 2001-02, the total allocation for the programme is Rs. 11.00 erores against RE 2000-01 of Rs.9.00 erores.

4. <u>Post Matric Scheme for ST</u>: This scheme provides financial assistance to ST students to pursue post matriculation courses in recognised institutions within India. The total allocation in 2000-01 budget was Rs63.20 crores.

In Union Budget 2001-02, the total allocation for the programme is Rs. 63.00 crores against RE 2000-01 of Rs.44.03 crores.