

Country Gender Profile: India

Final Report

March 2015

JAPAN INTERNATIONAL COOPERATION AGENCY (JICA)

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Japan International Cooperation Agency (JICA) commissioned Japan Development Service Co., Ltd. to carry out a research for Country Gender Profile in Mozambique from September 2014 to March 2015. This report was prepared based on the desk review and the field research in Mozambique during this period as a reference for JICA for its implementation of development assistance in Mozambique. The views and analysis contained in the publication therefore do not necessarily reflect JICA's views.

MAP OF INDIA



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LIST OF ACRONYMS

ADB	: Asian Development Bank
AFR	: Adolescent Fertility Rate
AHTUs	: Anti Human Trafficking Units
CCDU	: Communication and Community Development Unit
CEDAW	: Convention to Eliminate All Forms of Discrimination against Women
DfID	: Department for International Development
DMRC	: Delhi Metro Rail Corporation Limited
DV	: Domestic Violence
EAG	: Empowered Action Group
EC	: Executive Committee
FIR	: First Information Report
GAD	: Gender and Development
GBC	: Gender Budgeting Cell
GDI	: Gender Development Index
GDP	: Gross Development Product
GEM	: Gender Empowerment Measure
GGI	: Gender Gap Index
GII	: Gender Inequality Index
GPI	: Gender Parity Index
ha	: hectare
HBWs	: Home Based Workers
HDI	: Human Development Index
HIV/AIDS	: Human Immunodeficiency Virus/ Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
HLCSSW	: High Level Committee on Status of Women
ICAR	: Indian Council of Agricultural Research
ICDS	: Integrated Child Development Scheme
IFAD	: International Fund for Agricultural Development
ILO	: International Labor Organization
ITIs	: Industrial Training Institutes
ITPA	: Immoral Trafficking Prevention Act
JFM	: Joint Forest Management
JICA	: Japan International Cooperation Agency
L/A	: Loan Agreement
MDGs	: Millennium Development Goals
MFIs	: Micro-finance Institutes
MMR	: Maternity Mortality Rate
MoWCD	: Ministry of Women and Child Development

MPRA	: Munich Personal RePEc Archive
MSMEs	: Micro, Small, and Medium Enterprises
NACO	: National AIDS Control Organization
NCRB	: National Crime Records Bureau
NCW	: National Commission for Women
NGOs	: Non-governmental Organizations
NFHS	: National Family and Health Survey
NGRCA	: National Gender Resource Center in Agriculture
NMEW	: National Mission for Empowerment of Women
NOIDA	: New Okhla Industrial Development Authority
NSDA	: National Skill Development Agency
NSS	: National Sample Survey
NSSO	: National Sample Survey Organization
OBC	: Other Backward Classes
ODA	: Official Development Assistance
OSCC	: One Stop Crisis Center
PDM	: Project Design Matrix
PRA	: Participatory Rural Appraisal
RCHP	: Reproductive and Child Health Programme
SC	: Scheduled Caste
SEWA	: Self Employed Women's Association
SHGs	: Self-help Groups
ST	: Scheduled Tribe
TAF	: The Asian Foundation
TBAs	: Traditional Birth Attendants
TWAD	: Tamil Nadu Water Supply and Drainage Board
U5MR	: Under Five Mortality Rate
UNDP	: United Nations Development Programme
UNFPA	: United Nations Population Fund
UNICEF	: United Nations Children's Fund
UNODC	: United Nations Office on Drugs and Crimes
VAW	: Violence against Women
VFCs	: Village Forest Committees
VWSCs	: Village Water Supply and Sanitation Committees
WID	: Women in Development

1. Basic Indicators

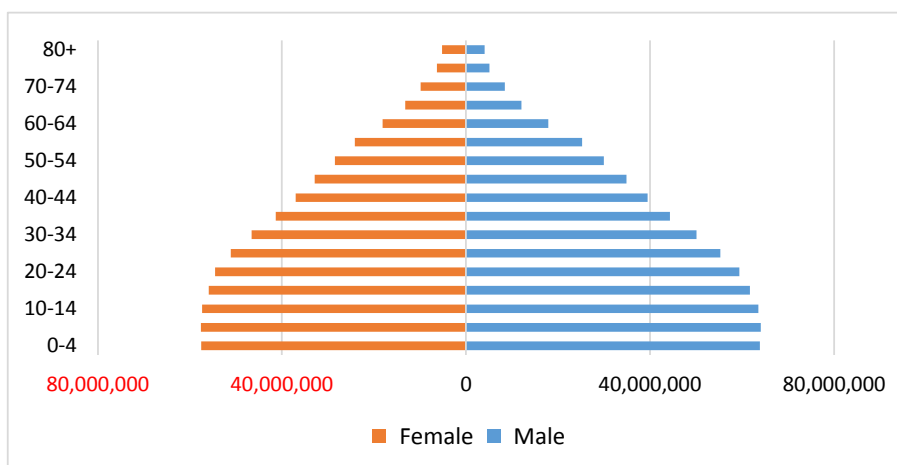
1.1 Population

Table 1.1.1 Summary of the Trends of Population-related Indicators

	National Census 1991	National Census 2001	National Census 2011
Population (in million)	846	1,027.00	1,210.19
Urban	217	285	377.11
Rural	628	741	833.08
Population growth rate/year (%) (for 10 years)	2.38	2.15	1.76
Expected life at birth			
Male	60.6 (1991-95)	63.8 (2001-05)	67.3 (2011-15)
Female	61.7 (1991-95)	66.1 (2001-05)	69.6 (2011-15)

Source: National Institute of Rural Development

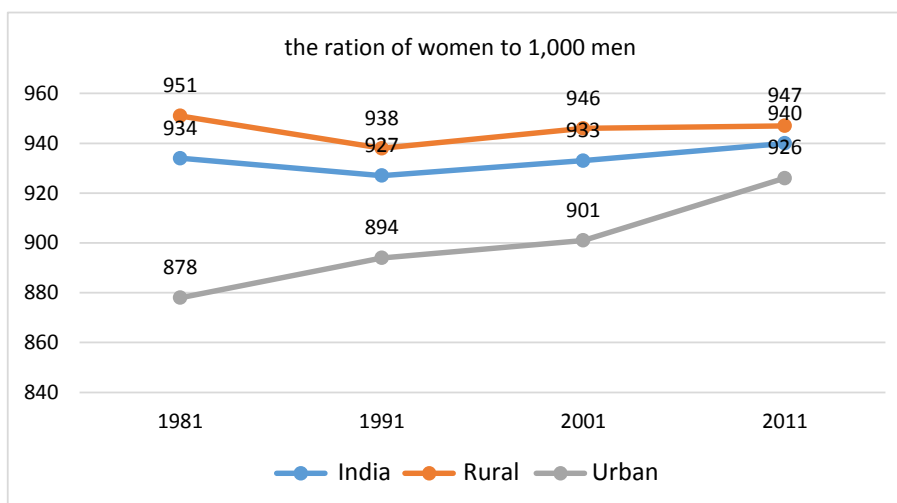
<http://www.nird.org.in/Rural%20Development%20Statistics%202011-12/data/section-1.pdf>
(last accessed on Jan. 20, 2015)



Source: World Bank

<http://datatopics.worldbank.org/hnp/poestimates> (last accessed on Jan. 20, 2015)

Figure 1.1.1 Population by Age and Sex



Source: National Institute of Rural Development

<http://www.nird.org.in/Rural%20Development%20Statistics%202011-12/data/section-1.pdf>
(last accessed on Jan. 20, 2015)

Figure 1.1.2 Trend of Sex Ratio (1981 – 2011)

1.2 Poverty

Table 1.2.1 Poverty Trend

(Trend of Headcount Poverty Ratio by International/ national Standards)

	1994	2005	2010	2012
by India' National Poverty Standards	45.30%	37.20%	29.80%	21.90%
by International Poverty Standards	49.40%	41.60%	32.70%	-

National standards: people living below national poverty line

International standards: people living below USD 1.25 per day

Source: World Bank

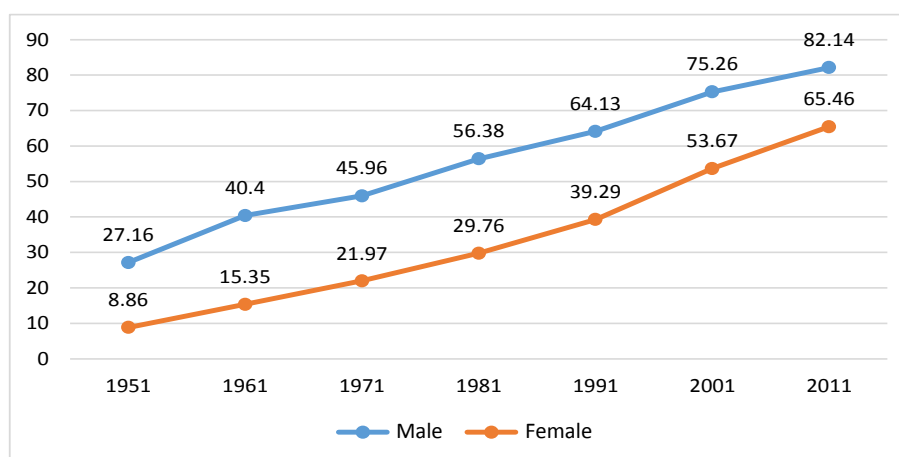
<http://povertydata.worldbank.org/poverty/country/IND> (last accessed on Jan. 20, 2015)

1.3 Education

Table 1.3.1 Literacy Rate by Sex (over 7 years old) 2001 & 2011

	2001			2011		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
India	75.26	53.67	64.84	82.14	65.46	74.04
Rural	70.7	46.13	58.74	77.15	57.93	67.77
Urban	86.27	72.86	79.92	88.76	79.11	84.11

Source: *National Census 2001 and National Census 2011*



Source: National Census 2011

http://www.nlm.nic.in/literacy01_nlm.htm (last accessed on Jan. 20, 2015)

Figure 1.3.1 Trend of Literacy Rates (over 7 years old) (1951 – 2011)

Table 1.3.2 Trend of Gender Parity Index in Primary and Secondary Education

	2000-01	2003-04	2006-07	2009-10	2012-13
Primary (1st - 5th grade)	0.78	0.88	0.88	0.92	0.94
Early Secondary (6th - 8th grade)	0.69	0.79	0.83	0.88	0.95
Late Secondary (10th - 11th grade)	0.63	0.70	0.73	0.81	0.89

Source: Ministry of Statistics and Programme Implementation

http://mospi.nic.in/Mospi_New/upload/man_and_women/Chapter%203.pdf
(last accessed on Jan. 20, 2015)

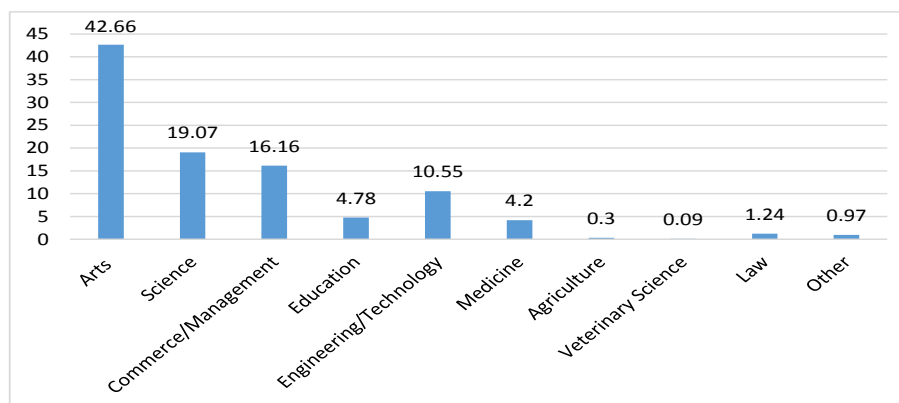
Table 1.3.3 Trend of Drop-out Ratio in Primary and Secondary Education by Sex

	Primary (1st - 5th)		Early Secondary (6th - 8th)		Late Secondary (9th - 10th)	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
2000-01	39.7	41.9	50.3	57.7	66.4	71.5
2005-06	38.7	21.77	48.67	49	60	63.56
2010-11	29	25.4	40.6	41.2	50.2	47.7
2012-13	4.6	4.68	2.3	4.01	14.54	14.54

Source: Ministry of Statistics and Programme Implementation

http://mospi.nic.in/Mospi_New/upload/man_and_women/Chapter%203.pdf

(last accessed on Jan. 20, 2015)



Unit in percent

Source: Annual Report 2013-14. cited in PwC. 2014. "Country Gender Profile Draft Education Report," p.20.

Figure 1.3.2 Ratio of Female Students in Higher Education by Faculty/Department**Table 1.3.4 Trend of GPI in Higher Education**

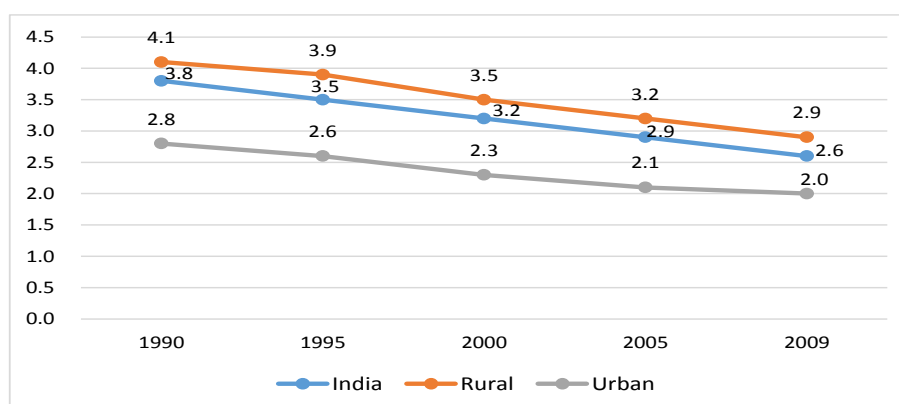
	General Arts	Science	Commerce	Engineering	Medical
2000-01	0.81	0.61	0.55	0.29	0.68
2004-05	0.87	0.84	0.52	0.31	0.53
2009-10	0.86	0.73	0.67	0.40	0.91

Source: Ministry of Statistics and Programme Implementation

http://mospi.nic.in/Mospi_New/upload/man_and_women/Chapter%203.pdf

(last accessed on Jan. 20, 2015)

1.4 Health

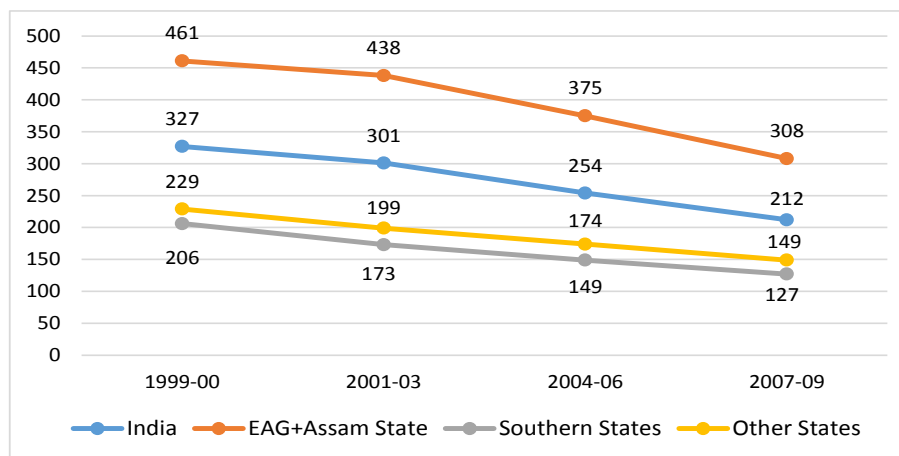


Source: Office of Registrar General, India, 2011

http://censusindia.gov.in/vital_statistics/SRS_Bulletins/MMR_release_070711.pdf

(last accessed on Jan. 20, 2015)

Figure 1.4.1 Trend of Total Fertility Rate



MMR: per 100,000 births

Source: Office of Registrar General, India, 2011

http://censusindia.gov.in/vital_statistics/SRS_Bulletins/MMR_release_070711.pdf

(last accessed on Jan. 20, 2015)

Figure 1.4.2 Trend of Maternal Mortality Ratio (1991-01 to 2007-09) (by Areas of Residence)

Table 1.4.1 Trend of Infant and Child Mortality Rate (0 – 4 years old) by Sex

	Total	Male	Female
1990	80	78	81
1995	74	73	76
2000	68	67	69
2005	58	56	61
2009	50	49	52

Per 1,000 births

Source: Office of Registrar General, India, 2011

http://censusindia.gov.in/vital_statistics/SRS_Bulletins/MMR_release_070711.pdf

(last accessed on Jan. 20, 2015)

1.5 Employment/ Economic Activities

**Table 1.5.1 Trend of Labor Force Participation Rate
(15 to 49 years old) 2004-05 to 2011-12 (by Sex and Areas of Residence)**

	Male		Female	
	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban
1999-2000	82.3	88.3	22.2	48.7
2004-05	83.4	88.6	26.1	52.5
2009-10	80.9	84.8	21.0	39.9
2011-12	81.0	83.5	22.2	37.8

Source: NSS cited in ILO. 2013. “A return to stronger employment growth in India: Insights from the 68th NSS round 2011-12,” ILO Asia-Pacific Research Brief Series, No. 2, Nov. 2013.

**Table 1.5.2 Labor Force Participation Rate by Sex, Sector,
and Status of Employment (2011-12)**

	Industry/Sector			Status of Employment		
	Primary Industries (Agriculture)	Secondary Industries (Manufacturing)	Tertiary Industries (Services)	Self-Employment	Regular Wage/ salary	Daily/ Temporary
Total	48.9	24.3	26.8	52.2	17.9	29.9
Male	43.6	25.9	30.5	50.7	19.8	29.4
Female	62.8	20.0	17.2	56.1	12.7	31.2

Source: NSS cited in ILO. 2013. "A return to stronger employment growth in India: Insights from the 68th NSS round 2011-12," *ILO Asia-Pacific Research Brief Series*, No. 2, Nov. 2013.

Table 1.5.3 Unemployment Rate (by Sex and by Areas of Residence)

	Male		Female	
	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban
2004-05	3.8	5.2	4.2	9.0
2009-10	3.2	3.6	3.7	7.2
2011-12	3.3	3.8	3.5	6.7

Source: NSS cited in ILO. 2013. "A return to stronger employment growth in India: Insights from the 68th NSS round 2011-12," *ILO Asia-Pacific Research Brief Series*, No. 2, Nov. 2013.

1.6 Participation in Politics

Table 1.6.1 Women's Participation in Politics

	Total (Constant) #	# of Women	Ratio
Lok Sabha (Lower House)	543 (545)	60	11%
Rajya Sabha (Upper House)	243 (245)	24	10%
Ministors	23	6	26%

As of March 2014

2. Outline of Gender Situation in India

Girls and women in India are subject to be discriminated in all aspects of their lives. This is largely because of the patriarchal ideas deeply embedded in its society which is reflected in pervasive preference of Indian families for sons over daughters. Sons of Hindu families, in particular, are supposed to take care of their families and take over a role of family heads from their fathers in undertaking worship and ceremonial functions in the future. On the other hand, girls are supposed to leave home upon their marriage. More problematically, Hindu families usually have to offer dowry to the family to whom they will marry off their daughters. Due to such financial burden, girls are often disfavored by their families from the moment of their births. This tends to lead to female feticide as well as discriminatory treatment for daughters in terms of nutrition intake and access to education and health care services, compared to sons, at the household level. Furthermore, violence against women is often justified in favor of men.

Discrimination in India is not confined to gender, but age, caste, ethnicity/tribe, religion, and disability. Based on differences by those social factors, women are not necessarily united, but diverse in their socio-economic situation. Social advancement is more common among those women who are highly educated from wealthier families. On the other hand, there are groups of people called Dalits, namely the “untouchable”, who have been forced to engage in “unclean” work in the Indian caste system over the generations in India. Similarly, the diverse minority tribal groups of people often live in marginalized forest or riverside areas prone to disasters for the sources of their livelihoods, such as forest resources or traditional fisheries. While those groups of people are considered to be most oppressed and most disadvantaged in India, Dalit women or women of minority tribal groups suffer more from dual burdens of caste/tribe and gender. The Government of India has designated scheduled caste (SC) and scheduled tribal (ST) groups as well as other backward classes (OBC), and taken affirmative action to increase the number of public officials from those groups through a quota system.

According to United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), the Gender Inequality Index (GII) of India in 2013 was 0.563, on a 0 to 1 scale, with 0 denoting equality and 1 inequality. India was ranked 127 in the GII as shown in Table 2.1 below. As the average GII of South Asian countries was 0.539, India’s GII was slightly worse. For example, while Pakistan was ranked the same 127 as India, Bangladesh, Nepal, and Sri Lanka were ranked 115, 98, and 75, respectively. Compared to other South Asian countries, India had a very low rate of female members of parliament (10.9 percent) and a huge gender gap in the rate of women and men who completed secondary education and in labor force participation rate. The GII, modified from UNDP’s Gender Development Index (GDI) and Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM), consists of four elements of: 1) reproductive health; 2) empowerment; and 3) economic activities.

Table 2.1 Gender Inequality Index (GII) 2013

	India	Bangladesh	Pakistan	Nepal	Sri Lanka
HDI Ranking (2013)	135	142	146	145	73
GII (2013)	0.563	0.529	0.563	0.479	0.383
GII Ranking (2013)	127	115	127	98	75
MMR (2010)	200	240	260	170	35
AFR (2010-2015)	32.8	80.6	27.3	73.7	16.9
Rate of female members of parliament (2013)	10.9	19.7	19.7	33.2	5.8
Rate of women (25yrs +) completed secondary education (2005-2012)	26.6	30.8	19.3	17.9	72.7
Rate of men (25yrs +) completed secondary education (2005-2012)	50.4	39.3	46.1	39.9	75.5
Labor force participation rate for women (15yrs +) (2012)	28.8	57.3	24.4	54.3	35
Labor force participation rate for men (15yrs +) (2013)	80.9	84.1	82.9	63.2	76.4

Source: UNDP. 2013. *Human Development Report 2013*. New York: UNDP

Similar to the GII, India was ranked 114 out of 142 countries for Gender Gap Index (GGI) in 2014 by World Economic Forum (see Table 2.2). The GGI of India increased from 0.601 in 2006 to 0.646 in 2014, based on which gender disparity was slightly improved (see Table 2.3). The GGI consists of indicators in 4 elements: 1) participation in economic activities and opportunities; 2) education attainment; 3) health; and 4) participation in politics. Due to the greater number of indicators in each element, more detailed comparative assessment is available through the GDI than the GII. As shown in Table 2.2 below, the GGIs of India in the elements of educational attainment and health were 0.85 and 0.94, respectively whereas those in the elements of participation in economic activities and opportunities and participation in politics were 0.41 and 0.39, respectively. While gender gaps in the latter were much wider than those in the former, rankings in the latter were better than those in the former due to comparison to other countries.

Table 2.2 Gender Gap Index 2014

	Rank	GGI Score	Sample Average	Female	Male	Female to Male Ratio
GGI	114	0.646				
Economic Participation and Opportunities	134	0.41	0.60			
Labor force participation rate	130	0.36	0.67	30	84	0.36
Wage equality for similar work (survey)	109	0.56	0.61	-	-	0.56
Estimated earned income (PPP\$)	135	0.24	0.53	1,980	8,087	0.24
Legislators, senior officials, and managers	-	-	0.27	-	-	-
Profession and technical workers	-	-	0.65	-	-	-
Educational Attainment	126	0.85	0.94			
Literacy rate	126	0.68	0.87	51	75	0.68
Enrollment in primary education	117	0.97	0.94	84	87	0.97
Enrollment in secondary education	116	0.79	0.62	-	-	0.79
Enrollment in tertiary education	111	0.78	0.88	20	26	0.78
Health	141	0.94	0.96			
Sex ratio at birth (f/m)	139	0.89	0.92	-	-	0.89
Health life expectancy	95	1.04	1.04	58	56	1.04
Participation in Politics	15	0.39	0.21			
Women in parliament	111	0.13	0.25	11	89	0.13
Women in ministerial positions	107	0.10	0.20	9	91	0.10
Years with female head of state (last 50 years)	1	0.72	0.20	21	29	0.72

Source: World Economic Forum. 2014. *Global Gender Gap Report 2014*. New York: World Economic Forum.

Table 2.3 Trend of GGI

	Overall		Economic Participation		Educational Attainment		Health & Survival		Political Empowerment	
	Rank	Score	Rank	Score	Rank	Score	Rank	Score	Rank	Score
2014 (out of 142 countries)	114	0.646	134	0.41	126	0.85	141	0.937	15	0.385
2013 (out of 136)	101	0.655	124	0.446	120	0.857	135	0.931	9	0.385
2012 (out of 135)	105	0.644	123	0.459	121	0.852	134	0.931	17	0.334
2011(out of 135)	113	0.619	131	0.396	121	0.837	134	0.931	19	0.312
2010 (out of 134)	112	0.615	128	0.403	120	0.837	132	0.931	23	0.291
2009 (out of 134)	114	0.615	127	0.412	121	0.843	134	0.931	24	0.273
2008 (out of 130)	113	0.606	125	0.399	116	0.845	128	0.931	25	0.248
2007 (out of 128)	114	0.594	122	0.398	116	0.819	126	0.931	21	0.227
2006 (out of 115)	98	0.601	110	0.397	102	0.819	103	0.962	20	0.227

Source: World Economic Forum. 2014. *Global Gender Gap Report 2014*. New York: World Economic Forum.

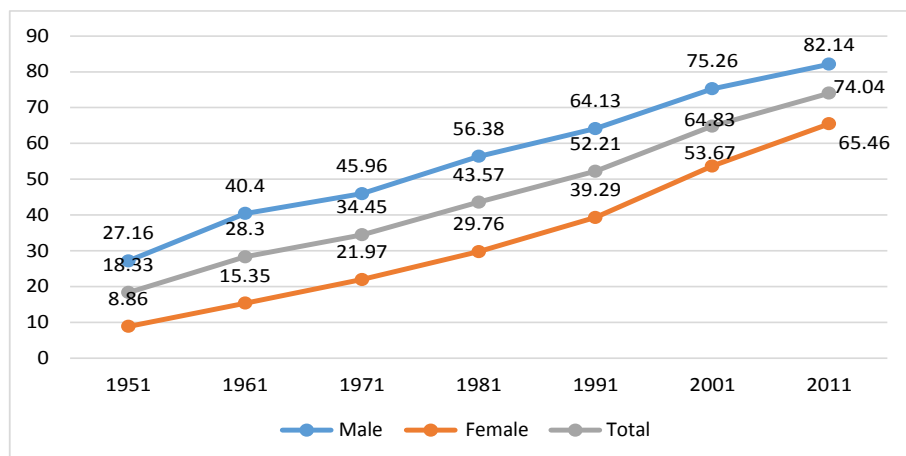
3. Gender Equality Situation

3.1 Education

India achieved a great advance forward in items 2 and 3 of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) for girls' and women's education. The MDG2 is intended for the achievements in the universal elementary education up to 2015. In 2007-08, the net enrollment ratio (NER) in primary education of India reached a level of 95%. The rate is rising up to 99.89% in 2010-11¹. Further, the MDG3 is designed to eliminate the gender disparities by 2015. The Gender Parity Index (GPI) of the gross enrollment ratio (GER) in primary education which was 0.76 in 1990-91 has been improved to 1.01 in 2010-11, exhibiting a reversal in the GPI. The GPI of the GER in the secondary education climbed to 0.88 of 2010-11 from 0.6 of 1990-91. The GPI of the GER in the higher education climbed to 0.88 in 2011-12 from 0.54 in 1990-91.

Although there has been a certain level of improvement in the school attendance rate of primary education and the GPI, there remains a big disparity in the literacy rate and school attendance rate in higher education, in particular, among different gender and other socioeconomic groups of children and people. Since India has diversified social groups pertaining to the different castes, tribes, and religions in addition to different regional and states' characteristics, there are wide disparities even among girls and women. As illustrated in Figure 3.1.1, there is a substantial improvement in the literacy rate of both adult males and females in 2011, as compared to that in 1951. However, the female literacy rate of 65.46 percent is lower than the male literacy rate of 82.14 percent. The gender disparity is close to 15 percentage points. Further, as illustrated in Figure 3.1.2 (left), the disparity of the female literacy rate between rural areas and urban areas exceeds 20 percentage points. In terms of states, as illustrated in Figure 3.1.2 (right), a disparity between female literacy rate in eight EAG (Empowered Action Groups) states and other states is 13.43 percentage points. This figure is much higher than the gender disparity of 5.8 percentage points. Further, whereas the GER of the entire females in higher education (age: 18 through 23) is 19.4 percent, that of SC females is 13.9 percent, and that of ST females is 9.7 percent, registering a remarkably low figure. The GER of females with disabilities and Muslim females are still lower (Figure 3.1.3).

¹ The District Information System for Education (DICE) for 2010-11.

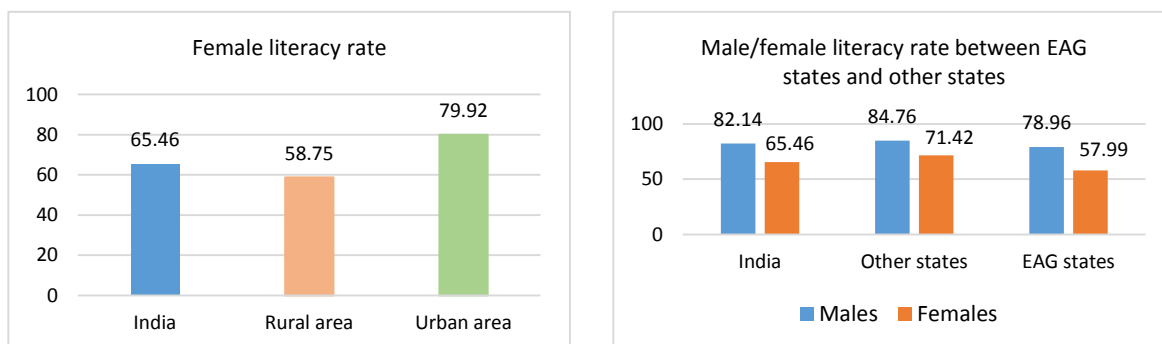


Source: Provisional Population Totals – India, (Chapter 6: State of Literacy, p.102)

http://censusindia.gov.in/2011-prov-results/data_files/india/Final_PPT_2011_chapter6.pdf

(last accessed on January 20, 2015)

Figure 3.1.1 Transition of Adult Male/Female Literacy Rates (1975 through 2011)

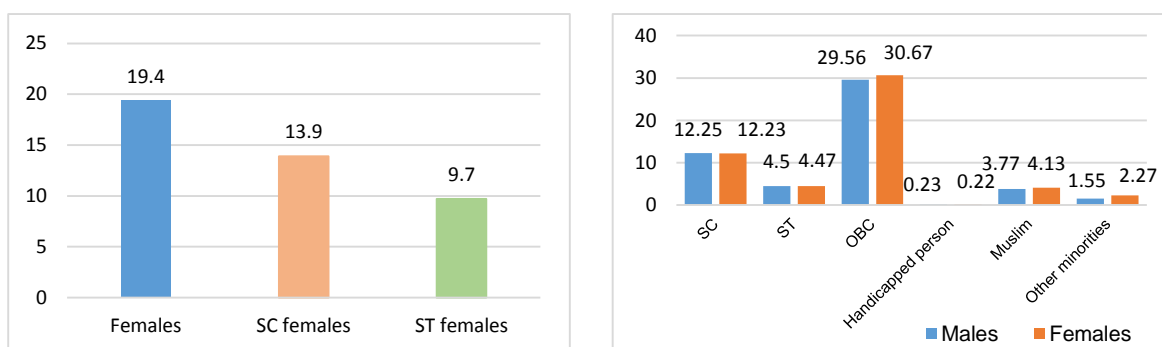


Source: Provisional Population Totals – India, (Chapter 6: State of Literacy)

http://censusindia.gov.in/2011-prov-results/data_files/india/Final_PPT_2011_chapter6.pdf

(last accessed on January 20, 2015)

Figure 3.1.2 Difference of literacy rates among females



Source: All India Survey on Higher Education 2011-12

Figure 3.1.3 Gross Enrollment Ratio GER) of Females in Tertiary Education (2011-12) (by SC and ST)

To place importance on providing equal educational opportunity to female, SC and ST, and redressing the gender disparities, the Government of India revised the National Education Policy in 1986. In particular, the top priority was placed on mitigating the restrictions on the female access to primary education and improving the rate of the female students repeating a year in school. The revised policy takes a step forward to mention the female vocational training, female participation in the education of technologies and specialties, and promotion of the work in the non-traditional fields. In the 12th Five Year Plan (2012 through 2017), the Government of India focuses its attention to the human resources development of young people through vocational training for the purpose of ensuring nation-wide economic growth and engagement of the workers in decent jobs. In India, the Scheme of Vocationalization of Secondary Education for the youth having finished the ten-year educational course was introduced in 1988. After that, more than 9,600 vocational training schools (10+2) were established, and more than one million students have been educated. Further, there are 9,404 Industrial Training Institutes (IISs) as of 2011. Of these, 1,409 ITIs are for females. Further, there are 960 female schools established as annexes to general ITIs. The Women's Vocational Training Program under the central Government covers the National Vocational Training Institute for Women at NOIDA and ten regional vocational training institutes (for 7,768 students).

As illustrated in Table 3.1.1, not many of the males and females aged 15 through 29 have received vocational training whether formal or informal. Gender disparity by the difference in the field and course of the vocational training is also observed (Table 3.1.2). The computer-related courses account for about 30 percent both for males and females, without gender disparities. The percentage of females in the field of textile products and cosmetics is predominantly greater, whereas the percentage of males in the field of engineering and automobile repair is predominantly greater.

Table 3.1.1 Experience of Taking the Vocational Training Courses among Males and Female Aged 15 through 29 (2004-05)

At the time of survey	Male	Female
Received vocational training	1.7%	0.9%
Received formal vocational training	2.6%	2.1%
Received informal hereditary vocational training (hereditary purpose)	5.0%	2.8%
Received informal vocational training (other than hereditary purpose)	4.4%	3.1%
Not received vocational training	85.5%	90.2%
Missing value	0.8%	0.9%
Total	100%	100%

Source: National Sample Survey (NSS), 61st round, Report 517. Status of Education and Vocational Training in India, 2004-2005. cited in ADB. 2013. *India Gender Equality Diagnostic of Selected Sectors*. Manila: ADB.

**Table 3.1.2 Field of Formal Vocational Training Courses Taken
by Males and Female Aged 15 through 29 (2004-05)**

Field	Male	Female
Mechanical engineering	11.2	1.1
Electric and electronic engineering	17.8	2.3
Computer	30.5	31.2
Engineering and construction	3.8	1.2
Textile products and related fields	0.2	23.4
Art work	1.1	2
Medical services	3.7	9.3
Office and business	4.2	6
Automotive repair	11.8	0.7
Cosmetics	0	4.1
Nutrition and infantile education	0	2.6
Others	13.7	16
Missing Value	2.00	0.10
Total	100	100

Source: National Sample Survey (NSS), 61st round, Report 517.

Status of Education and Vocational Training in India, 2004-2005. cited in ADB. 2013.

India Gender Equality Diagnostic of Selected Sectors. Manila: ADB.

As described above, enrollment in the formal vocational training institute starts after the tenth grade has been completed. Accordingly, the school attendance rate in the vocational training institute depends on the school attendance rate, drop-out rate, and graduation rate before that time. As one goes from early secondary school to late secondary school, and from late secondary school to vocational institute, there is a remarkable decrease in the GER both for males and females (Table 3.1.3). For SC, both males and females show the average and more without much disparity. The GER of ST in the late secondary education is lower than the average. The GER of the early and late secondary school for ST females including vocational training institute is lower. There is a gender disparity in the GER for the 6th graders through 12th graders, especially between ST males and ST females (Table 3.1.4).

Table 3.1.3 Male/Female GER for 6th Graders through 12th Graders (2009-2010)

	Class VI - VIII (Age: 11-13)		Class IX - X (Age: 14-15)		Class XI - XII (Age: 16-17)	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
India	84.5	78.3	66.7	58.5	38.3	33.3
SC	90.5	86.6	71.2	63.5	37.4	33.5
ST	87.8	78.8	54.2	44.2	31.4	22.3

Source: Ministry of Human Resource Development. 2011. Statistics of School Education 2009-2010.

Delhi: MHRD.cited in ADB. 2013. *India Gender Equality Diagnostic of Selected Sectors*.

Manila: ADB.

Table 3.1.4 Gender Parity Index (GPI) in GER for 6th graders through 12th graders

	Class VI-VIII	Class IX-X	Class XI-XII
India	0.93	0.88	0.87
SC	0.96	0.89	0.89
ST	0.90	0.82	0.71

Source: Ministry of Human Resource Development. 2011. Statistics of School Education 2009-2010.

Delhi: MHRD. cited in ADB. 2013. *India Gender Equality Diagnostic of Selected Sectors*.

Manila: ADB.

3.2 Health

The sex ratio in India was 1,000 males to 933 females according to the 2001 National Census. A slight improvement of 940 in female population was observed in 2011 (Table 3.2.1). However, generally, the normal sex ratio is considered to be 100 females as against 105 males (about 0.952 female against one male). Since the world's average level for females is 986, the imbalance of India is serious. Although this figure is higher (better) than 926 in China, it is lower (worse) than 978 in Bangladesh and 943 in Pakistan of South Asia. This shows that the percentage of female population to male population in India is quite low.

Table 3.2.1 Sex Ratio in the World

	2001	2011
India	933	940
Bangladesh	958	978
Pakistan	938	943
China	944	926
Japan	1,041	1,055
World's average	986	984

Source: Extracted from Chapter 5 Gender Composition of the Population, 2011 National Census.

In India, birth of a male infant is preferred to that of a female infant and gender preselection and gender discrimination against girl infants/children in terms of nutrition intake and medical treatment are observed at the household level. Accordingly the sex ratio (male/female ratio) of 914 in the range from 0- to 6-year old children including infants is much unbalanced as compared to the sex ratio of 944 for those aged seven or more.

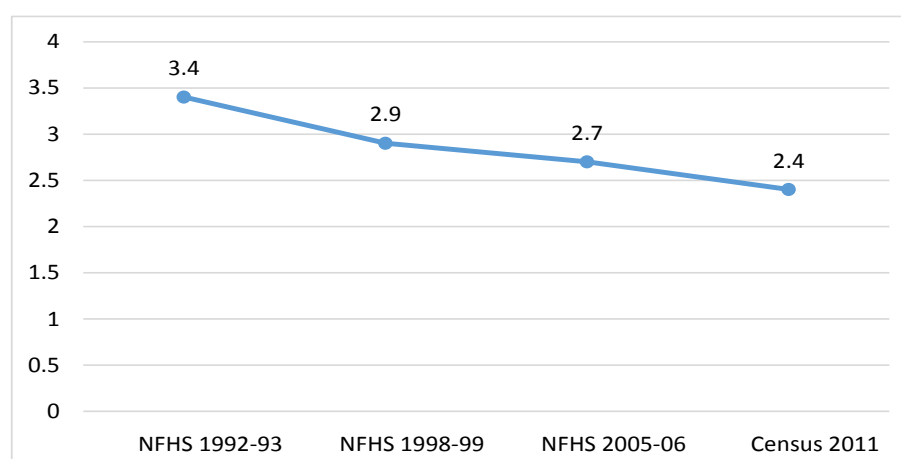
There is a big difference in the sex ratio according to states. This is closely related to gender biased ideas and gender institutions deeply rooted in each region. There is not necessarily an improvement over the result of the 2001 National Census. Gender preselection and gender discrimination against girl children in terms of raising method can be escalating. In the State of Kerala showing the highest value in India, the sex ratio for persons aged 7 or more in 2011 is 1,084, whereas that for children aged 0 through 6 is 959. In the State of Haryana showing the lowest value in India, the sex ratio for persons aged 7 or more is 885, whereas that for children aged 0 through 6 is 830. In both cases, the sex ratio for children aged 0 through 6 is higher in favor of males. When only the sex ratio for children aged 0 through 6 is observed according to state, the ratio is 959 in the State of Kerala exhibiting the highest value in the south, whereas, in the State of Orissa showing the lowest figure in the south, the figure is 934. This figure is greater than the figure of 899 in the State of Uttar Pradesh exhibiting the highest figure in the north. Further, the State of Haryana showing the lowest figure in the north registers 830, and the Capital Territory of Delhi registers 866, both exhibiting remarkably low figures.

Table 3.2.2 Sex Ratio in 2001 and 2011 by Age and State

	Total		Sex Ratio (0 – 6 years)		Sex Ratio (7 years and more)	
	2001	2011	2001	2011	2001	2011
India	933	940	927	914	934	944
North						
UP	898	908	916	899	894	910
Haryana	861	877	819	830	869	885
South						
Kerala	1,058	1,084	960	959	1,072	1,099
Orissa	972	978	953	934	976	985
Delhi	821	866	868	866	813	866

Source: Office of the Registrar General & Census Commissioner. 2012. *2011 Census*. Delhi: ORGCC.

The total fertility rate of India has reduced from 2.9 to 2.4 during 1998-99 and 2011 (Figure 3.2.1). There are differences in the total fertility rate between urban areas and rural areas and among different states, and the total fertility rate is also affected by the literacy rate and economic level of women. In the first place, according to the 2011 National Census, the total fertility rate is 2.9 in the rural areas, whereas the figure is below 1.9 in the urban areas which is below the population replacement level (Table 3.2.3). In the State of Bihar having the highest total fertility rate among the northern states, the figure is 3.6. The total fertility rate of the rural area is 3.7 which is 1.1 greater than that in the urban area. The figure of the States of Goa, Andhra Pradesh, and Tamil Nadu in the south was already 1.8 when the National Family & Health Survey (NFHS) was conducted in 2005-06. This indicates a big difference between the northern and southern states. Similarly, as illustrated in Table 3.2.4, the total fertility rate of the illiterate women is higher than that of the literate women. In the State of Bihar, the difference between those two groups of women is 2.2. According to the NFHS-3 (2005-06), the total fertility rate of the poorest women is greater than that of the richest women by two. As illustrated in Table 3.2.5, this figure is greater than those of the ST and Muslims.



Source: *NFHS 2005-06 and 2011 Census*

Figure 3.2.1 Transition of Total Fertility Rate (1992-93 through 2011)

Table 3.2.3 Total Fertility Rate 2011 (by Main North/EAG State)

	Total	Rural area	Urban area
India	2.4	2.7	1.9
Bihar	3.6	3.7	2.6
UP	3.4	3.6	2.6
MP	3.1	3.3	2.1
Rajasthan	3.0	3.2	2.4
Jharkhand	2.9	3.2	2.1
Chhattisgarh	2.7	2.9	1.9

Source: Register General, India, 2013

Table 3.2.4 Total Fertility Rate by Literacy 2011 (by Main North/EAG State)

	Illiterate women	Literate women
India	3.3	2.1
Bihar	4.7	2.5
UP	4.0	3.1
Assam	3.7	2.1
Jharkhand	3.7	2.4
MP	3.7	2.8

Source: Register General, India, 2013

Table 3.2.5 Total Fertility Rate by Social Group

	Total Fertility Rate
India	2.7
SC	2.9
ST	3.1
OBC	2.8
Muslims	3.4
Hindu	2.6

Source: *NFHS 2005-06*

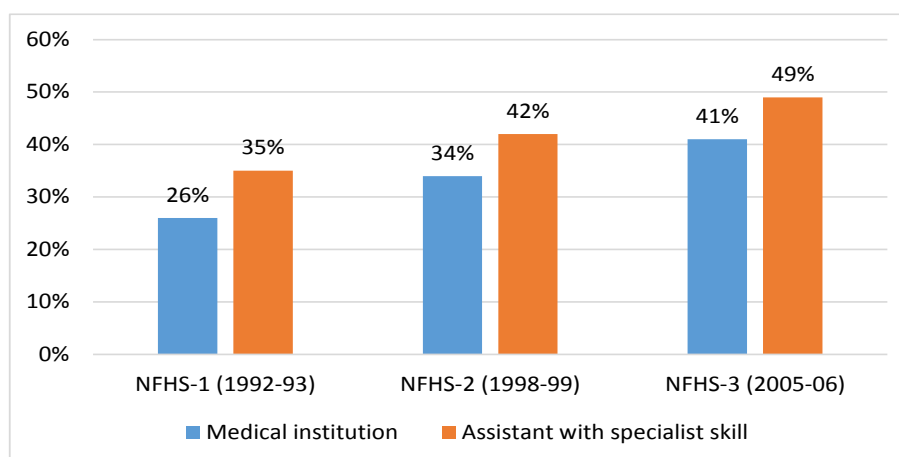
The Indian maternal mortality ratio (MMR) per 100,000 birth is 178 of 2010-12 against 212 of 2007-09, showing a slight improvement. According to the World Bank, the Indian MMR is 190 in 2010-14. In other South Asian countries, Nepal registers the same figure of 190, and Bangladesh and Pakistan indicate 170, demonstrating that India is inferior in the World Bank's data. The figure is far from the target of 109 in the MDG5 of India. The value achieved in 2015 is estimated at 140. In India, there are great disparities among states of lower (better) MMR (105) in the south and other states (127), and EAG states, consisting of eight states of Bihar, Jharkhand, Madhya Pradesh, Chhattisgarh, Orissa, Rajasthan, Uttar Pradesh, and Uttarakhand, and Assam (257), as illustrated in Table 3.2.6 below.

Table 3.2.6 Maternal Mortality Ratio (2010-12) (by Region)

	Maternal Mortality Ratio
India	178
EAG & Assam	257
South	105
Others	127

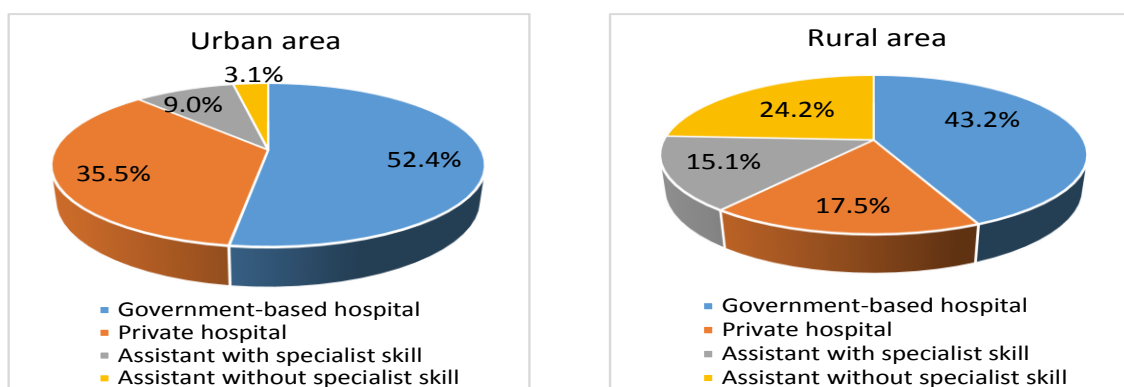
Source: Register General, India, 2014

High MMR figures in India are considered as resulting from low institutional delivery rate and limited ante-natal and post-natal check, as well as a higher frequency of pregnancy and child birth at the age of 20 or less. In the first place, according to NFHS-3 (2005-06), there was an increase of child birth in a medical facility from 26 percent of 1992-93 to 41 percent of 2005-06, and the rate of child birth through the aid of a specialist increased from 35 to 49 percent. However, there is a big disparity between the rural areas and urban areas (Figure 3.2.2). According to the Registrar General, India, the child birth rate in a medical facility is 87.9 percent, and the child birth rate through the aid of a specialist is 9 percent in the urban areas. When these figures are added together, the figure comes close to 97 percent in the urban areas. By contrast, in the rural areas, the child birth at a medical facility is only 60.7 percent, and child birth at home through the aid of a TBA (Traditional Birth Attendant) without specialist skill accounts for 24.2 percent (Figure 3.2.3). The NFHS-3 (2005-06) indicates that 50 percent or more of the women surveyed during the period of the last five years delivered to a child at home and 9 percent at their parents' home. When asked for the reasons, 72 percent of the respondents replied that they did not need to have delivery in any medical facility, and 26 percent mentioned the high cost for child birth at a medical facility as a reason they did not have a baby there.



Source: Ministry of Health and Family Welfare, Government of India. 2007.
National Family Health Survey (NFHS-3) 2005-06. Delhi: MoHFW, GoI.

Figure 3.2.2 Transition of the Place and Method for Child Birth (1992-93 through 2005-06)



Source: Registrar General, India 2013

Figure 3.2.3 Birth place and type of birth attendant

According to the NFHS-3 (2005-06), 76 percent of the women giving birth in the last five years replied that they received ante-natal and post-natal check. However, only 44 percent of the women received first ante-natal check within three months after pregnancy and 22 percent received first physical examination after four or five months after pregnancy. Further, only 52 percent received a total of three or more ante-natal check (check of abdomen, treatment of ferric medicine, a preventive injection against tetanus, etc.)². The women in the urban areas tend to receive three or more ante-natal check as compared to the women in the rural areas. This disparity is also found among different states. According to the NFHS-3 (2005-06), the percentage of the women receiving three or more ante-natal check when they were pregnant for the last five years prior the survey is as high as 90 percent in the States of Kerala, Goa and Tamil Nadu in the south. The figure is 17 percent in the State of Bihar of the north, and is 27 percent in the State of Uttar Pradesh, showing a big disparity³.

In India, there are frequent cases of adolescent pregnancy due to early marriage. According to the World Bank, the adolescent fertility rate (AFR) indicating a percentage of pregnancy and child birth by 1,000 adolescents aged from 15 to 19) of India is 33. This figure is much lower than those in other South Asian countries as exemplified by 74 in Nepal and 81 in Bangladesh. However, the figure of India is higher than 17 in Sri Lanka and 27 in Pakistan. According to the NFHS-3 (2005-06), at the time of the survey, 50 percent of the surveyed women aged 20 through 49 experienced child birth at the age of 20 or less. Half these women gave birth at the age of 18 or less. The figures for pregnancy and child birth by adolescents are particularly higher in the rural areas. Higher figures are also found among women of lower education level. This is because the knowledge about contraception and implementation of family planning are on the lower level among the women in the rural areas, females Muslim, ST women, and women of lower education and economic levels. This is also related to the higher total fertility rate, pregnancy and child birth of shorter intervals, and a greater number of unwanted pregnancies and child births⁴.

According to the Government of India, about 2.4 million people have been infected with HIV, and the infection rate of adults is estimated at 0.31 percent (2009)⁵. The infected persons aged 15 or less account for 3.5 percent of all the infected persons. The infected persons aged 15 through 49 are said to account for 83 percent⁶. Women are said to account for 39 percent of all the infected persons. Further, 55 percent is concentrated in four southern states, i.e., 500,000 persons are infected in the State of Andhra Pradesh, 420,000 persons in the State of Maharashtra, 250,000 persons in the State of Karnataka, and 150,000 persons in the State of Tamil Nadu⁷. According to NFHS-3 (2005-06), 61

² Ministry of Health and Family Welfare, Government of India. 2007. *National Family Health Survey (NFHS-3) 2005-06*. Delhi: MoHFW, GoI.

³ *ibid.*

⁴ *ibid.*

⁵ <http://www.worldbank.org/en/news/feature/2012/07/10/hiv-aids-india> (last accessed on January 20, 2015)

⁶ *ibid.*

⁷ *ibid.*

percent of the female respondents aged 15 through 49 and 84 percent of the male respondents aged 15 through 49 replied that they have heard about HIV/AIDS. However, only 17 percent female and 33 percent male respondents have comprehensive knowledge about HIV/AIDS. There are said to be frequent cases of fundamental misunderstanding about the HIV infection method and preventive method⁸.

The Indian health administration is mainly implemented by the Ministry of Health and Family Welfare. The National AIDS Control Organization (NACO) is concerned with HIV/AIDS, and the Ministry of Women and Child Development (MoWCD) is related to the health for children. In 1983, National Health Policy was mapped out and was revised in 2002 into a policy program with priority placed on the improvement of access to the medical facility through restructuring of the organization and increase in the budget. The National Population Policy worked out in 2000 aims to decrease the total fertility rate (down to the level of population replacement by 2010) and to ensure the population which is sustainable up to 2045. The major national program includes the Reproductive and Child Health Programme (RCH) 2013 intended to reduce the total fertility rate, maternal mortality ratio, and infant mortality rate and the *Janani Shishu Suraksha Karyakram* (JSSK) 2011 designed to improve the reproductive health related facilities and services. Implementation is under the charge of the Ministry of Health and Family Welfare. In addition, the Integrated Child Development Scheme (ICDS) 1975 is implemented by the MoWCD, while the National Policy on HIV/AIDS and the World Bank are implemented by NACO.

3.3 Agriculture

In India, agriculture is a basic industry accounting for about 14 percent (2013-14) of the GDP and employing about 54.6 percent of the total labor population⁹. About 70 percent of the total population live in the rural areas and depend on agriculture for their living. However, the income from agricultural products accounts for 33 percent of the total income of farmers, and the wage income by daily work in agriculture is restricted to 12 percent¹⁰. Agriculture does not always provide a stable source of income. As of 2012, the arable land of India accounts for 52.5 percent of the total national land and the arable land per capita is 0.13ha, with a coverage rate of irrigation being 35.2 percent¹¹. In the State of Punjab in the northwest and states in the south characterized by rich water resources, not only rice cultivation and cereals production but also production of horticultural products (such as vegetables and fruits) based on irrigation are actively carried out. In other regions and states, on the other hand, there is small-sized agriculture based on monoculture by use of rain water intended for

⁸ *ibid.*

⁹ "Economic Survey of India 2013-2014," <http://indiabudget.nic.in/budget2014-2015/survey.asp> (last accessed on January 20, 2015)

¹⁰ Desai, S. et al. 2010. *Human Development in India*. cited in ADB. 2013. *India Gender Equality Diagnostic of Selected Sectors*. Manila: ADB.

¹¹ <http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/AG.LND.AGRI.ZS/countries> (last accessed on January 20, 2015)

self-sufficient living¹². Production of the high-value-added products in India accounts for 7 percent and the total production and the percentage of the processed agricultural products are limited to 2 percent¹³. As a result, the poverty headcount ratio in the rural area is higher than that in the urban area. By state, the poverty headcount ratio in the States of Bihar, Chhattisgarh, Jharkhand and others in the north is more than double that in the States of Punjab (northwest) and Kerala (south)¹⁴.

Similarly to the cases in many developing countries, women play an important role in agriculture in India. In 2009-10, 79 percent of the women, as compared to 63 percent of the men, engaged in agriculture in the rural areas¹⁵. Thus, women account for 46 percent of all the workers in the agricultural sector¹⁶. Particularly in the mountainous area characterized by labor-intensive agriculture, more women are engaged in agriculture. Further, female labor accounts for 37 percent in the production of agricultural products and 73 percent in all the work related to animal husbandry¹⁷. India mainly produces rice, wheat, maize, beans (gram, etc.), colza oil (rapeseed oil, mustard oil), cotton, sugar cane, etc. The home-based farmers for self-sufficient living produces rice, wheat, maize, etc. The livestock raised in greater numbers includes cows, water buffaloes, goats and sheep (Table 3.3.1). In such productive activities, women are working in almost all types of work, as illustrated in Table 3.3.2. Further, the annual working time for agriculture is 3,485 hours for women as compared to 1,212 hours for men. The working time for women is almost three times that for men.

Table 3.3.1 Breakdown of Main Livestock (2012-13)

Livestock	Percentage
Cow	37.28
Water buffalo	21.23
Goat	26.4
Sheet	12.71
Pig	2.01
Others	0.37
Total	100

Source: *Livestock Census 2012*

<http://www.dahd.nic.in/dahd/writeReadData/Livestock.pdf>
(last accessed on January 20, 2015)

12 “About 70% of the farmers are engaged in agriculture on the land of less than 1 ha in 2003.” Agarwal, B. 2010.

“Rethinking agricultural production collectivities,” *Economic and Political Weekly*, XLV, (9).

13 “Report of the Working Group on Agriculture Marketing and Infrastructure, secondary agriculture and policy required for internal and external trade for the XII five year plan 2012-17,”

http://planningcommission.gov.in/aboutus/committee/wrkgrp12/agri/weg_rep_market.pdf

(last accessed on January 20, 2015)

14 ADB. 2013. *India Gender Equality Diagnostic of Selected Sectors*. Manila: ADB.

15 *ibid*.

16 2011 *Census of India*.

17 Jarial and Bhatt. 2013. “Reminding women’s contribution in livestock sector,” *Agriculture Today*.

Table 3.3.2 Agricultural Work for Women

Field	Details
Production of rice, cereals, minor cereals	Preparation of farm land
	Selection of seeds, growing of seedling
	Applying of fertilizer
	Sowing, Transplanting seedlings (paddy)
	Weeding
	Harvesting
	Post-harvest treatment
Livestock	Cleaning of livestock shed
	Collection of manure
	Collection of fodder, supply of water and feed
	Pasturing (grazing)
Forest	Collection of firewood
	Collection of forest resources (fruits, fodder, medicinal herb, etc.)

Source: PwC. 2014. "Draft Report Card – Agriculture and Forestry," p.22.

Despite the important role played by women, women are not recognized as farmers and have not received the right or reward worthy of their contributions. In the first place, in India, only 12.4 percent women own their land, and 50 percent of the land owned by women has an area of 0.5ha or less, accounting for only 9.9 percent of all the farmland¹⁸. Women are not recognized as farmers because they do not own land, and are excluded from the opportunity of agricultural extension services or training programs¹⁹. Further, the women without agricultural land are restricted in their access to the micro financing and similar services. As compared to men, women are restricted in the purchase of production materials such as seeds and chemical fertilizers, and in the procurement of land cultivation machines/cows and labor forces. Thus, women are not allowed to be engaged in cultivation, sowing, transplanting seedlings, or weeding at proper times²⁰. As a result, the agricultural productivity of women is lower than that of men by 20 through 30 percent²¹. Further, gender disparity is found in wages of agricultural labor. Women tend to be employed in simple agricultural work such as transplanting for paddy and weeding. Thus, women receive only 69 percent of the wages received by men²². In the harvesting work where there is not much difference in male/female work, there is a difference of wages by about 20 percent (Table 3.3.3).

¹⁸ 2005-2006 Agricultural Census. Cited in ADB. 2013. *India Gender Equality Diagnostic of Selected Sectors*. Manila: ADB.

¹⁹ ADB. 2013. *India Gender Equality Diagnostic of Selected Sectors*. Manila: ADB.

²⁰ *ibid.*

²¹ *ibid.*

²² *ibid.*

**Table 3.3.3 Transition of Wage Gap between Men and Women
in Harvesting Work (Unit: Indian rupee/day)**

	Men	Women	Wage gap between men and women
1999-2000	58.7	48	81.77%
2009-2011	101	83	82.18%
2012-2013	168	138	82.14%

Source: Ministry of Labor and Employment

<http://www.indiastat.com/table/labourandworkforce/380987/wageratesforagriculturaloccupations19952014/209143/844543/data.aspx> (last accessed on January 20, 2015)

Among women in rural areas, SC and ST women are more vulnerable than other women and even SC and ST men. Since the SC and ST in rural areas are characterized by smaller properties and income with lower educational level, they are obliged to depend on agriculture for living. The percentages of the SC and ST in the total population are 16.2 percent and 8.2 percent, respectively. The SC accounts for 12 percent of all the landowners and ST accounts for 8.6 percent. The SC and ST respectively own 10.6 percent and 11.4 percent of the agricultural land used. Although the quality of the agricultural land is not clear, the ST can be said to have been re-distributed by the land reform in a fair manner to some extent. However, the SC is re-distributed with smaller pieces of land, when population ratio is taken into account. As illustrated in Table 3.3.4, 78 percent of the SC owning the agricultural land has only a very small piece of land (1 ha or less)²³. In terms of the entire India, 67 percent of the owners of all the land in India have a very small piece of land (1 ha or less)²⁴. This means that the agricultural land owned by the SC is relatively small. Without intervention of the Government, the cycle of poverty can be perpetuated and cannot be mitigated.

Table 3.3.4 Distribution of Land among SC and ST (2010-11)

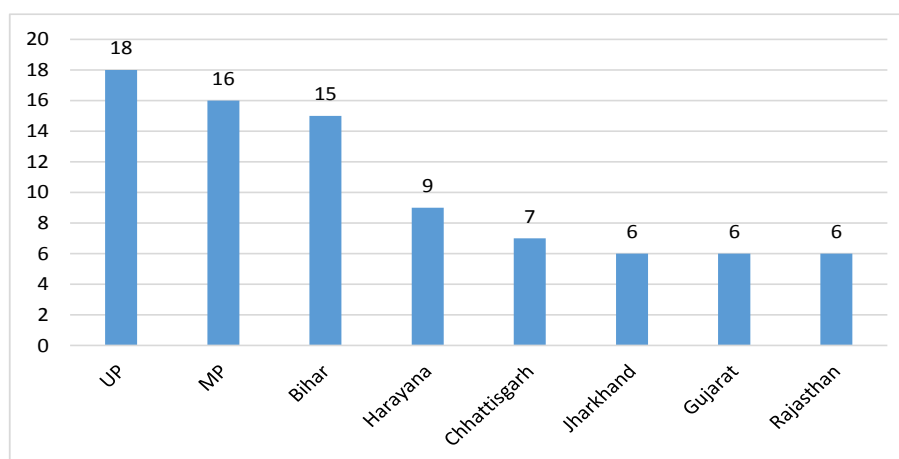
Land size	SC				ST			
	Number of people (Million)	Percentage (%)	Area (Million ha)	Percentage (%)	Number of people (Million)	Percentage (%)	Area (Million ha)	Percentage (%)
Very small (1 ha or less)	13.2	78	5	36	6.4	53	3.1	17
Small size (1 through 2 ha)	2.4	14.1	3.4	24.2	3	25	4.1	22.5
Intermediate between small- and medium-size (2 through 4 ha)	1	5.8	3	21.4	2	14.1	5	27.47
Medium size (4 through 10 ha)	0.33	1.9	2	14.2	1	6.3	4.3	23.6
Large size (10+ha)	0.052	0.3	0.836	6	0.11	0.91	2	9.3
Total	17	100	14	100	12.5	100	18.5	100

Source: *Agriculture Census 2010-11*

²³ *Agriculture Census 2010-11.*

²⁴ *State of Agriculture Report 2012-13.*

With climate change, the development and management of water resources are considered as increasingly important for Indian agriculture. The degree of vulnerability to climate change differs according to the state (Figure 3.3.1). Since female farmers are users and managers of the water resources, insufficient amount of water is considered to give an adverse effect to women generally²⁵. Water is used not only for irrigation to produce agricultural products including the kitchen gardening, but also for drinking, cooking, washing and feeding livestock²⁶. According to the qualitative survey on female farmers by the UN Women in 2013²⁷, one of the greatest concerns for female farmers is a decline in agricultural production and deforestation caused by changing patterns of rainfall. As described above, this gives a negative impact to their livelihood and food security. The country is anticipated to be further exposed to the risk of insufficiency of water (including household water) and food, a sharp increase in loan and resulting loss of the land. The ADB report²⁸ points out that effective management of water resources requires women as managers and users of water to actively take part in decision-making processes so that their needs will be integrated in the planning and implementation stages of relevant policies/programs.



*Unit: # of districts

Source: ICAR Annual Report 2013-14, <http://agricoop.nic.in/Annualreport2013-14ENG.pdf>
(last accessed on January 20, 2015)

Figure 3.3.1 States Considered as including the Districts Vulnerable to Climate Change

The Government of India has mapped out the National Agriculture Policy (2000) and National Policy for Farmers (2007) so far. The National Agriculture Policy (2000) focuses attention to the economic growth of the agriculture sector, while the National Policy for Farmers (2007) attaches importance to the improvement of farmers' welfare. The 12th Five Year Plan (2012 through 2017) refers to redistribution of land to the female farmers and land-less farmers and provision of extension services to female farmers. To put it more specifically, such a program is to be implemented in conformance to the national program such as the *Mahila Kisan Sashaktikaran Pariojana* (Strengthening Women

²⁵ ADB. 2013. *India Gender Equality Diagnostic of Selected Sectors*. Manila: ADB.

²⁶ *ibid.*

²⁷ UN Women. 2013. *Hearts & Minds: Women of India Speak*. New York: UN Women.

²⁸ ADB. 2013. *India Gender Equality Diagnostic of Selected Sectors*. Manila: ADB.

Farmers Scheme). Efforts should be made to take up the action to mainstream gender into projects by allocating 30 percent of the total budget for women only, changing awareness of female and male farmers through gender sensitization workshop, organizing self-help groups (hereinafter referred to as “SHGs”), improving women farmers’ capabilities, improving their access to information and microfinance, involving them in decision-making processes, and reflecting gender needs in the extension system and agricultural policies.

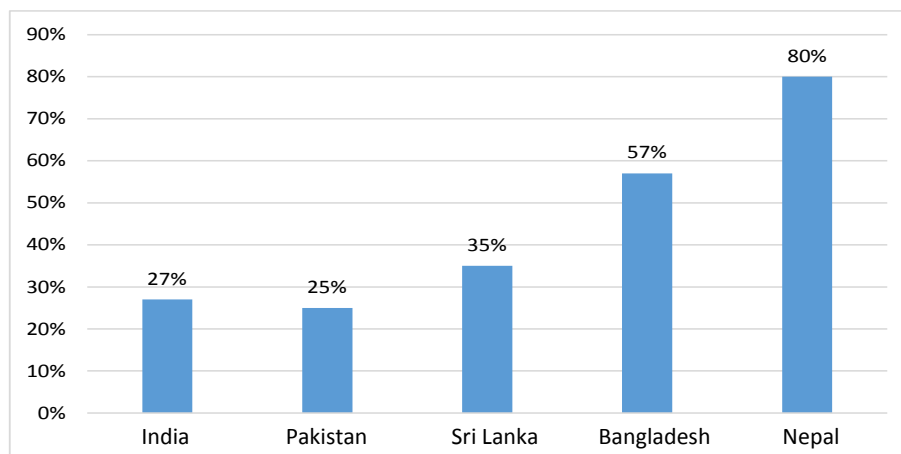
The Government organizations related to Indian agriculture includes Ministry of Agriculture, Ministry of Rural Development and Ministry of Food Processing Industries. The section in charge of gender issues is positioned in the Department of Agriculture and Cooperation. In the first place, the National Gender Resource Center in Agriculture (NGRCA) was established within the Department of Agriculture and Cooperation in 2004-05. It takes a charge of the gender-related projects as a gender focal point and gives advice to the state departments of agriculture to incorporate gender issues into the agriculture policy and agriculture programs. In the meantime, the Gender Budgeting Cell (GBC) together with the NGRCA is intended to review all the programs of the Department of Agriculture and Cooperation from the viewpoint of gender and to ensure budget planning and expenditure for the benefit of women farmers.

3.4 Employment/ Economic Activities

1) General Employment Issues

According to the World Bank, the women's labor force participation rate (LPR) in India is 27 percent (2010-14) showing a very low level. This signifies a critical gender disparity of 53 percentage points as compared with the men's rate of 80 percent²⁹. When compared with those of other countries of South Asia, this figure is the lowest second only to 25 percent of Pakistan (Figure 3.4.1). According to the ILO, the women's LPR in India stand in the 121st rank in 131 countries of the world. In the item of the “Economic Activities and Opportunity” of the GGI by above-mentioned World Economic Forum, India stands in the 134th rank, and is included in the 5-percent lowest group.

²⁹ World Bank, <http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SL.TLE.CACT.FE.ZS> (last accessed on January 20, 2015)

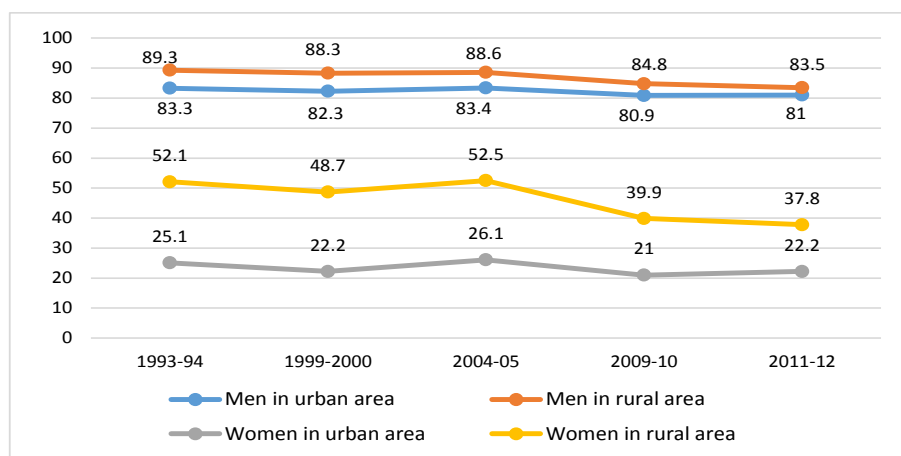


Source: World Bank

<http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SL.TLF.CACT.FE.ZS> (last accessed on January 20, 2015)

**Figure 3.4.1 Women's Labor Force Participation Rate
in Major Countries in South Asia (2010-14)**

India achieved an economic growth of annual 8.5 percent from 2004-05 to 2009-10. After that, there was a substantial growth in employment. However, this was not always linked with an increase in women's employment or women's LPR. As illustrated in Figure 3.4.2, according to the National Sample Survey (NSS), the women's LPR in the urban areas in 2009-10 slightly declined from the 2004-05 level of 26.1 percent. In the rural areas, there was a decline of 13.6 percentage points from 52.5 percent. In 2011-12, there was a further decline of 2.1 percentage points. As a result, the gender disparity of LPR in the rural areas is expanded to 45.7 percentage points in 2011-12 from the 2004-05 level of 36.1 percentage points.

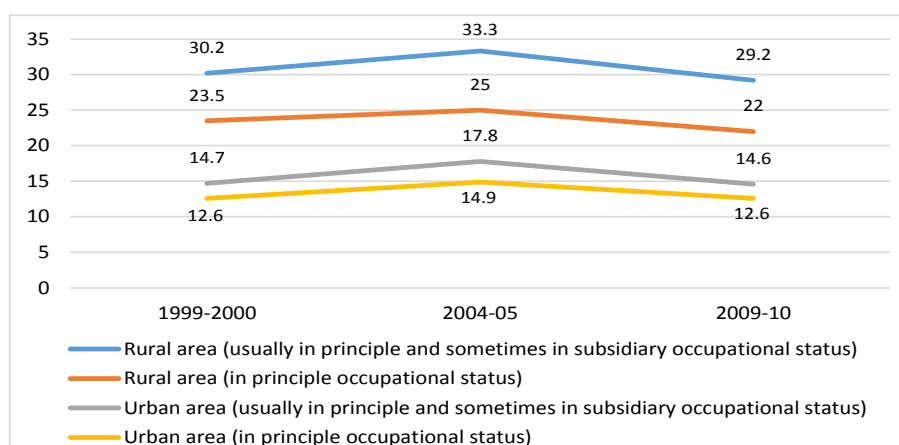


Source: India National Sample Survey cited in "A return to stronger employment growth in India?" ILO Asia-Pacific Research Brief Series, No.2, Nov. 2013.

**Figure 3.4.2 Transition of Labor Force Participation Rates for
Men and Women (1993-94 through 2011-12) (by Area)**

In the latter half of the 2000s (2005 through 2010) characterized by remarkable economic growth in India, the labor force increased by only 1.1 million people from 459 million³⁰. Up to 2010 when signs of an economic recovery appeared, economic growth without employment continued. Insufficient employment in 2005 through 2010 gave a serious impact particularly to the women's employment in the rural areas, leading to a sharp decline in their LPR. As a result, 21.4 million women lost the job (of this figure, 90 percent were women of the rural areas), whereas men's employment increased by 22.5 million. In 2012, new jobs for 14 million people were created, resulting in a total of 474 million jobs. Whereas women's employment saw an increase of 4.5 million in the urban areas, 2.7 million women lost their jobs in the rural areas³¹. Thus, the economic growth and employment growth in the latter half of the 2000s benefited only male workers and female workers in the urban areas³².

A decline in women's LPR mainly in the rural areas is attributable to such factors (on women side) as entrance to a higher-level school, devotion to housekeeping, and lack of work suited to the education level and skill of women³³. A decline in women's LPR from 2004-05 to 2009-10 is reflected in a decline of LPR for all the women in principle occupational status, and women in usually principle and sometimes subsidiary occupational status³⁴. In 2005-10, 10.8 million women in principle occupational status lost jobs and 10.1 million women in usually principle and sometimes subsidiary occupational status lost jobs from the 2000-05 level. In 2010-12, further 5.5 million women in principle occupational status lost jobs, while 7.3 million women in usually principle and sometimes subsidiary occupational status gain jobs (Figure 3.4.4).



Source: NSS cited in ILO. 2014. *Low Female Employment in a Period of High Growth: Insights from a Primary Survey in Uttar Pradesh & Gujarat*. Delhi: ILO.

**Figure 3.4.3 Women's Labor Force Participation Rate
(1999-00 through 2009-10) (by Area and Occupational Status)**

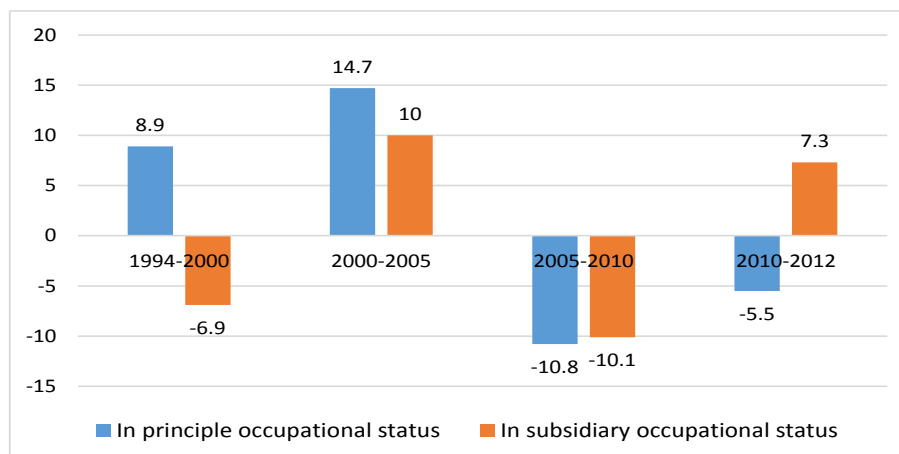
³⁰ ILO. 2014. *Low Female Employment in a Period of High Growth: Insights from a Primary Survey in Uttar Pradesh & Gujarat*. Delhi: ILO.

³¹ *ibid.*

³² ILO. 2013. "A return to stronger employment growth in India?" *ILO Asia-Pacific Research Brief Series*, No.2, Nov. 2013.

³³ *ibid.*

³⁴ *ibid.*



*unit: million persons

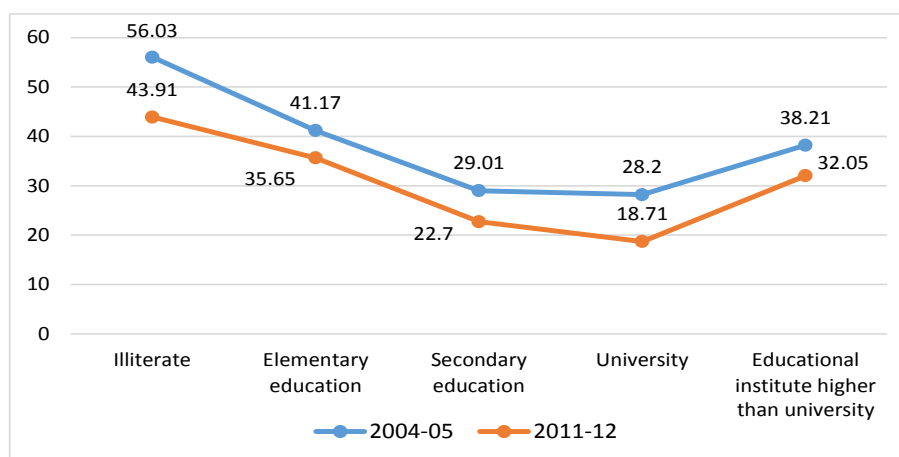
Source: NSS cited in ILO. 2014. *Low Female Employment in a Period of High Growth: Insights from a Primary Survey in Uttar Pradesh & Gujarat*. Delhi: ILO.

**Figure 3.4.4 Transition of women's labor force participation
(1994-2000 through 2010-2012)**

Let's observe the women's LPR of India by education level. Figure 3.4.5 shows a U-shape, which indicates that more women of lower education level and higher educational level are engaged in the job than those of the intermediate education level, and hence the LPR of the women on the intermediate level is very lower. Illiterate women are motivated or forced to work for economic reasons. The women in the intermediate educational level are considered to be intermediate in social and economic scale. They might face objection from their family when they want to work outside, because they have to play the role of housewives in conformity to the gender institution embedded in their society and culture. Further, there may not many jobs suited to their education level. Thus, their opportunity for work is considered to have been restricted for such reasons³⁵. For the women having received higher education at the graduate school or similar institution, on the other hand, there are many highly-paid jobs suited to their education level. An incentive to the job participation is considered to be given to these women³⁶. However, in any of the education levels, there is no doubt that there is a decline in the women's LPR in 2009-10 from 2004-05 level.

³⁵ MPRA. 2013. "Declining Trends in Female Labor Force Participation in India: Evidence from NSSO," http://mpr.ub.uni-muenchen.de/44373/1/MPRA_paper_44373.pdf (last accessed on January 20, 2015)

³⁶ *ibid.*



Source: NSS 2004-05 & 2011-12 cited in MPRA. 2013. "Declining Trends in Female Labor Force Participation in India: Evidence from NSSO," http://mpa.ub.uni-muenchen.de/44373/1/MPRA_paper_44373.pdf (last accessed on January 20, 2015)

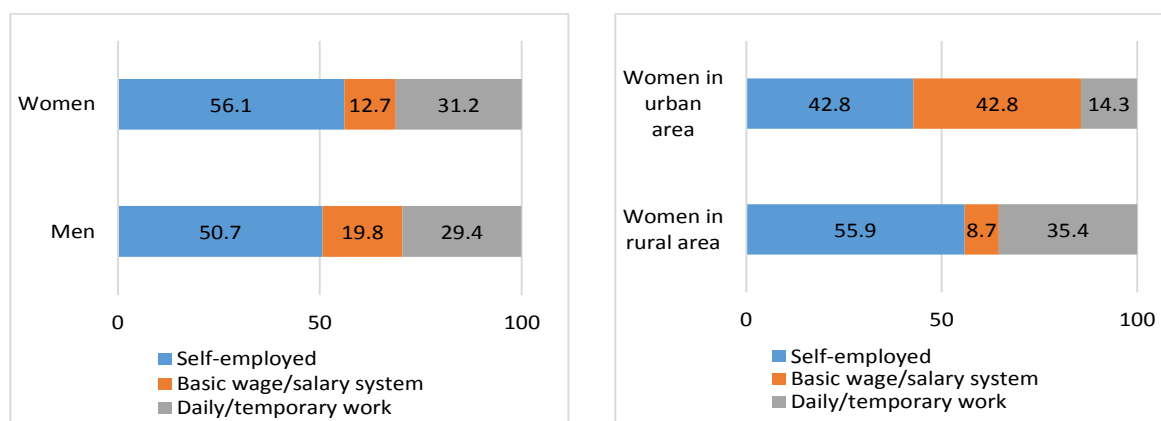
Figure 3.4.5 Transition of Women's Labor Force Participation Rate by Education Level

From a macroscopic viewpoint, the Indian employment exhibits a shift from agricultural field to non-agricultural field as a result of the economic growth. As illustrated in Table 3.4.1, in 2011-12, there is a decline of more than ten points in the percentage of both male and female workers in the agricultural field from the 1999-2000 level. This decline is offset by an increase in the percentage of the secondary and tertiary industries. Similarly, as illustrated in Figure 3.4.6, there has been a big change in the form of work. As a result, there was a sharp decline in the percentage of self-employed women to 56.1 percent in 2011-12 from the 1999-2000 level of 76.3 percent. The percentage of female workers engaged in daily/temporary work declined, from 37.1 percent to 31.2 percent, whereas the percentage of the women engaged in the work under the basic wage/salary system climbed from 7.1 percent to 12.7 percent. This is because the form of the work by women in the urban areas has changed, particularly because there has been a sharp increase in the percentage of the people working under the basic wage/salary system. The percentage of the women in the rural areas working under the daily/temporary employment system is still high, while the percentage of those working under the basic wage/salary system remains low.

Table 3.4.1 Changes of the Percentage (by Industry Type) of the Workers by Gender

	Primary industry (Agriculture)	Secondary industry (Manufacturing industry)	Tertiary industry (Service industry)
1999-2000			
Total	61.7	15.8	22.5
Men	54.9	17.7	27.3
Women	76.3	11.7	12.0
2011-12			
Total	48.9	24.3	26.8
Men	43.6	25.9	30.5
Women	62.8	20.0	17.2

Source: NSS, 68th round cited in ILO. 2013. "A return to stronger employment growth in India," cited in *ILO Asia-Pacific Research Brief Series*, No.2, Nov. 2013.



Source: NSS, 68th round, “Key Indicators of Employment and Unemployment in India 2011-12.”

Figure 3.4.6 Percentage in the Form of Work (2011-12) (by Gender and Area)

Only 7 percent of all the people working in India are organized workers in the formal sector. The majority of them are working in the informal sector without belonging to any labor organization, and are not protected by social security or the legal minimum wage level. Many of the female workers belong to this category. According to NSS (2011-12) (68th round)³⁷, 72 percent of all workers are working in the informal sector³⁸. When viewed by area, the percentage is 69 percent in the urban areas while the percentage climbs to 75 percent in the rural areas. In the case of female workers, 73 percent of female workers are working in the informal sector in the rural areas and 64 percent are working in that sector in the urban areas. Ninety three percent of the people working in the informal sector are engaged in non-agriculture field. Further, as illustrated in Table 3.4.2, the self-employed people in the informal sector working in the rural and urban areas are 57 percent and 58 percent, respectively, indicating the highest figures. This is followed by the daily/temporary workers exhibiting a figure of 32 percent in the rural areas. In the urban areas, the percentage of those working under the basic wage/salary system is 27 percent. Lastly, the percentage of those working under the basic wage/salary system is 11 percent in the rural areas, and the percentage of daily/temporary workers in the urban area is 16 percent.

Table 3.4.2 Form of Work in the Informal Sector (by area)

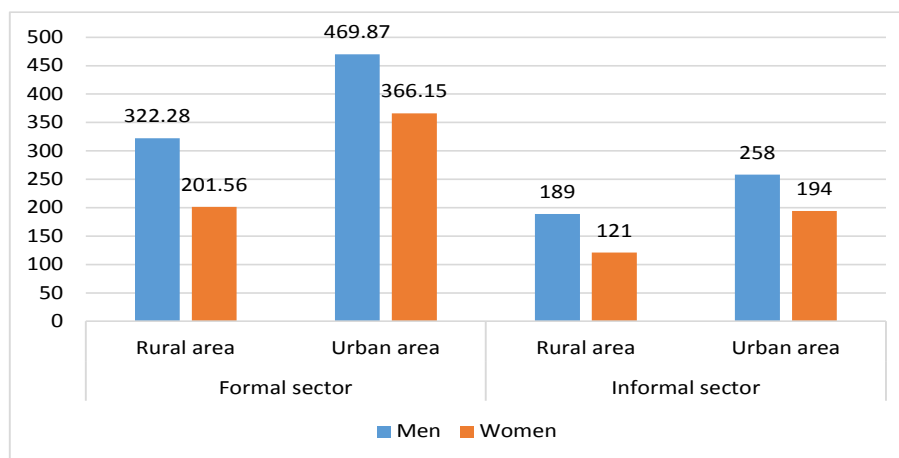
	Form of work	Percentage
Rural area	Self-employment	57%
	basic wage/salary system	11%
	Daily/temporary	32%
Urban area	Self-employment	58%
	basic wage/salary system	27%
	Daily/temporary	16%

Source: NSS, 68th round, “Informal Sector and Condition of Employment 2011-12.”

³⁷ NSS, 68th round. “NSS Report No. 577: Informal Sector and Conditions of Employment in India.”

³⁸ *ibid.*

The businesses accounting for the predominant majority in the informal sector are micro, small, and medium enterprises (MSMEs), where more than 8 million people are employed. Ninety four percent of the MSMEs are unqualified and unregistered enterprises. People working in this field are automatically placed in the category of “Unorganized Workers”, who are forced to work under the poor conditions without being protected by social security or the legal minimum wages. Independently of gender, area or form of the work, the people working in the informal sector suffer from a big disparity in wages as compared to those working in the formal sector (Figure 3.4.7). Further, the people working in the same informal sector even under the basic wage/salary system are exposed to disparity in gender and area in such a way that the a male working in the rural areas gets 189 rupees per day, a female working in the rural areas 121 rupees per day, a male working in the urban areas gets 258 rupees per day, and a female working in the rural areas 194 rupees per day.



*unit: Indian rupees/day

Source: NSS, “Key Indicators of Employment and Unemployment in India 2011-12”
& “Informal Sector and Conditions of Employment in India.”

**Figure 3.4.7 Wage Gap among Workers Working under Basic Wage/Salary System
(by sector, gender and area)**

The Ministry of Labour and Employment has taken a responsibility for the formulation and implementation of the policies on employment in India. Although such individual legal systems as Factory Act, 1945, the Building and other construction Workers Act, 1996, and Industrial Employment Act, 1946, and such legal systems for female workers as the Equal Remuneration Act, 1976 have been created, comprehensive related policies common to all sectors have not yet been worked out. Focusing attention on the improvement of the working conditions for the vulnerable labor groups including the Unorganized Workers, women, SC, ST, and others who do not belong to any organization and are not protected by social security, the Government of India is trying to change the “Unorganized Sector” currently accounting for the majority of the Indian economy, into the formal sector (Formal Organizational Sector). To put it more specifically, the restrictions of the labor law should be relaxed to give an incentive to take place of the formal

sector. Further, the Government of India is active in further promoting the MSMEs sector characterized by remarkable growth. This sector is awarded with the top priority in economic development programs. Seven point three six percent of all the MSMEs (including the unregistered enterprises) are managed by women, 7.83 percent by SC, 5.76 percent by ST, and 41.94 percent by OBC. The Government aims to achieve the inclusive economic growth including such vulnerable social groups of people.

2) Support of Women's Economic Activities

According to the 2006-07 data of the MSMEs registered in India, the enterprises owned by women accounts for 13.9 percent, and those managed by women reach 10.1 percent. When the unregistered enterprises are taken into account, there are 1.7 million enterprises managed by women, which account for 7 percent of the total³⁹. Many of the enterprises launched by women are said to be petty businesses. Many of female entrepreneurs face problems with capital and financing. These problems largely come from limited income, lack of collateral, and lack of knowledge on the procedures for borrowing loans⁴⁰. Further, the number of people qualified for registration of an enterprise is set at six, but many of the enterprise includes the manager plus one employee, or is a home based worker without any employee.

According to the India Reserve Bank, the bank accounts of the commercial banks owned by women in India occupy less than one third of all the accounts, corresponding to only 28 percent of the amount of savings of women⁴¹. In terms of the percentage of the bank accounts owned by women by area, the east exhibits the lowest figure of 22.4 percent⁴². In the south showing the highest figure, the percentage is 44.4 percent, which does not even exceed the half. The figures of the women in the rural areas as well as the SC and ST women are considered to be still smaller. Further, the percentage of the credit granted to women by commercial banks is as low as 14.2 percent. The credit granted to women in 2004-06 is only 11 percent of the amount of savings of women⁴³. Only a smaller number of bank accounts are opened by women. This is because the ID card (family register, taxpayer's registration card, etc.) required to open a bank account is often created under the name of a male householder, and it is often difficult to have documents for ensuring the ID to be created by a public organization, because women are not used to visit such a place due to the limited movement⁴⁴.

In India, for the purpose of improving the women's livelihood, active efforts have been made to organize the SHGs, where saving and credit activities are performed in a group. Eighty percent

³⁹ ADB. 2013. *India Gender Equality Diagnostic of Selected Sectors*. Delhi: ADB.

⁴⁰ *ibid.*

⁴¹ *ibid.*

⁴² *ibid.*

⁴³ *ibid.*

⁴⁴ *ibid.*

of the members of the SHGs are said to be women. Two point nine million people have been organized as of March 2007, and the credit amounts to 11 billion rupees⁴⁵. The credit is also granted by the Micro-finance Institutes (MFIs). In any case, as viewed from the amount of credit granted by banks, that granted by SHGs and MFIs is said to be extremely limited⁴⁶. According to the impact survey by the World Bank, 96 percent through 98 percent of 25 MFIs target SHGs only, and individual financing is provided only by 30 percent of MFIs⁴⁷. The same survey asked the respondents if they know of the loan system by MFIs, and 39 percent of the female respondents replied in the negative. Only four percent of them had used the loan system⁴⁸. MFIs are frequently found in the south, and outreaching to the poorest people is also taken up as a challenge to be addressed.

The Government of India has an organization known under the name of *Rashtriya Mahila Kosh* designed to develop the micro financing skill of the women in villages and to improve their livelihood. National programs include the National Rural Livelihood Mission, Support to Training and Employment Program for Women, and others. Their activities are performed mainly in the rural areas. In the near future, the population of working age will account for 50 percent of the total population. Accordingly, the National Skill Development Agency (NSDA) was also established for the purpose of promoting development of the skill of young people and socially disadvantaged groups including women, SC and ST in particular.

3.5 Violence against Women

In India, in response to the case of gang rape on a 23-year-old girl taken place in December 2012, much attention has been focused on the violence against women (VAW). VAW in India heavily attributes to unequal gender relations, women's low status, and women's economic reliance on men. Further, the legal system has been created or maintained to the advantage of men due to gender discrimination. The legal circle, police and community have a male-oriented social structure where the justice or protection of a female victim tends to be ignored⁴⁹. India includes extensive and diversified social/economic groups, and the positions of women are diversified. Accordingly, VAW in India is considered to be based rather on the gender which is deeply rooted in each area and group, than on the single culture⁵⁰.

VAW in India includes the domestic violence (DV) between married couple or partners, sex selective abortion, child marriage, forced marriage, dowry deaths, acid attacks, rape, abduction, and human

⁴⁵ *ibid.*

⁴⁶ *ibid.*

⁴⁷ *ibid.*

⁴⁸ *ibid.*

⁴⁹ "India: Violence against Women. Current Challenges and Future Trends," <http://www.freiheit.org/Aktuelle-Berichte/1804c270551p/index.html> (last accessed on January 20, 2015)

⁵⁰ *ibid.*

trafficking.

According to the NCRB (National Crime Records Bureau), the reported cases of crime against women are 155,553 for 2005. In 2013, this figure almost doubled to 309,546 (Table 3.5.1). The Government of India has been working on the extermination of VAW by developing or revising related policies/laws and legal systems. However, such efforts are not very effective so far. According to the NCRB, in 17.4 percent of VAW cases, the police has failed to handle the case in a fair manner from the standpoint of the female victim. In 26.5 percent of the similar cases, the legal action by the female victim is interfered by the perpetrator, his supporters, and even community. Further, in 40.2 percent of the cases of the VAW, women do not take the matter to court or mediation of the community, because of fear of the perpetrator, fear of the case of sexual violence being made public, lack of knowledge about laws, and a lack of motivation by considering that they cannot win in a legal suit.

Table 3.5.1 Transition of the Reported Cases of Crime against Women

	2005	2012	2013
Cases of crime against women (Number of reported cases)	155,553	244,270	309,546

Source: NCRB

3.5.1 Female Feticide

As discussed above, according to the 2011 National Census, the sex ratio in India (ratio of women to 1,000 men) was improved to 940 from 933 in the 2001 National Census. However, the ratio of women to men in India is very low in the world-wide perspective. To get the normal men/women ratio, it is necessary to cover the shortage of about 35 million female population⁵¹. In particular, the sex ratio of the infant and children aged 0 through 6 has declined from 927 of 2001 to 917 of 2011. The states showing a particularly low ratio of baby girls at birth and in the subsequent childhood include the States of Punjab, Rajasthan, and Haryana in the northwest⁵².

This abnormal sex ratio is caused possibly by female feticide resulting from a sense of gender values for preferring birth of a male infant to that of a female infant, and abandonment of upbringing of female infants and children⁵³. In 1994, a law was passed to prohibit gender diagnosis of a pregnant woman and female feticide. However, more than about 500,000 female fetuses are said to be aborted every year. Similarly, the under-five mortality rate (U5MR) has been higher than other countries of the South Asia (Table 3.5.1.1). The infant mortality rate of girls per 1,000 birth is high in both rural and urban areas (Figure 3.5.1.1).

⁵¹ *ibid.*

⁵² S. Anderson & D. Ray. 2012. "The Age Distribution of Missing Women in India." *Economics & Political Weekly*, Dec. 2012 Issue.

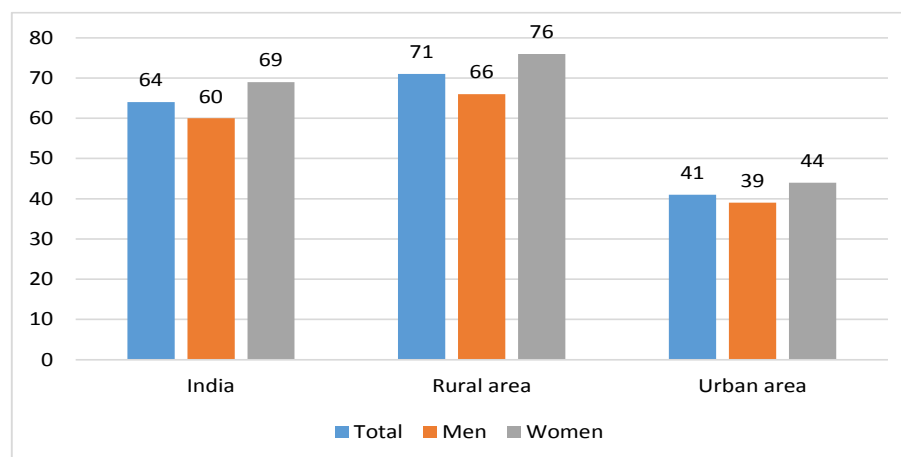
⁵³ *ibid.*

Table 3.5.1.1 Under-five Mortality Rate by Gender 2013
(compared with other countries of the South Asia)

	India	Bangladesh	Pakistan	Nepal	Sri Lanka
Under-five mortality rate	53	41	86	40	10

Source: World Bank

<http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SH.DYN.MORT> (last accessed on January 20)



Source: Registrar General of India, Sample Registration System

Figure 3.5.1.1 Infant Mortality Rate (2009) by Gender (per 1,000 births by area)

3.5.2 Child Marriage

Child marriage is a practice widely adopted in all the states of India, although there are differences according to the degree. About 23 million girls are faced with this problem⁵⁴. In India, women are allowed to marry at the age of 18 or more according to the law. However, 47 percent of the women (20 through 24) get married at the age of 18 or less, according to the United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA), and 15 percent of them get married at the age of 15 or less⁵⁵. Although this practice is against the law, it is widely accepted in the community. Thus, only 766 cases were reported to the police in 2005 through 2012⁵⁶.

3.5.3 Domestic Violence (DV)

According to the NFHS-3 (2005-06) surveyed in 29 states in 2005-06, the percentage of ever-married women (aged 15 through 49) having ever been physically violated is as high as 34 percent throughout India. Further, the UNFPA reports that two out of three married women are victims of DV⁵⁷. According to the result of NFHS-3 (2005-06) and the data of NCRB (National Crime Records Bureau), nine percent of the married women have been exposed to sexual violence such as forced sexual intercourse throughout the nation, and 31 percent of the married women have undergone a slight physical violence such as a slap in the face, while 10 percent have experienced a serious DV

⁵⁴ NGO Submission to CEDAW Committee for 58th Session in 2014.

⁵⁵ *ibid.*

⁵⁶ *ibid.*

⁵⁷ <http://www.ptinews.com> (last accessed on January 20, 2015)

such as burning and attack by a tool. Twelve percent of the women having replied to have undergone physical DV have suffered from a bruise, personal injury, sprain, and fracture as a result of DV. Further, 14 percent of the surveyed women have undergone mental violence. However, only one of four women sought help to protect against violence by her husband. Two out of three of them did not seek help, and did not consult with any other person. Further, in the case of sexual violence by their husbands, only 12 percent women sought help or consulted others for advice. The consulted persons are family members in most cases. There is almost no case where the police or public organization is consulted⁵⁸.

In India, there have been many cases of dowry death due to infulfilled dowry demand. With respect to the dowry death, the Government of India has instituted and revised the Dowry Prohibition Act, Protection of Women from Domestic Violence Act, and Cruelty under Section 498-A of the Indian Penal Code. However, according to the NCRB, dowry related deaths account for 3.4 percent of all the crimes against women in 2012. In 2014, an average of 22 women per day were killed by the family of the husband because of dissatisfaction over the dowry.

According to NCRB, 43.6 percent of the crimes against women have been committed by the husband or his family. As illustrated in Table 3.5.3.1, the reported cases of the violence (torture) inflicted on married women by the husband or his family have increased by 83 percent in eight years from 2005 through 2012. Similarly, three cases of dowry-related murder provided in the criminal law show an increase of 21 percent, 40 percent and 106 percent, respectively. However, the percentage of conviction is very small; moreover, there is a decline to 15 percent in 2012 from 19.2 percent in 2011.

**Table 3.5.3.1 Transition of Violence and Dowry Murder Cases
by Husband or his Family (2005 through 2012)**

	2005	2012	Increase rate
Violence (torture) by husband or his family	58,319	106,527	83%
Total cases of dowry murder	7,858	9,759	24%
1. Dowry murder (under section 304-B in IPC (Indian Penal Code))	6,787	8,233	21%
1. Dowry murder (under section 302-B in IPC)	1,038	1,458	40%
2. Negligence of dowry murder by mistake (under section 304/308 in IPC)	33	68	106%

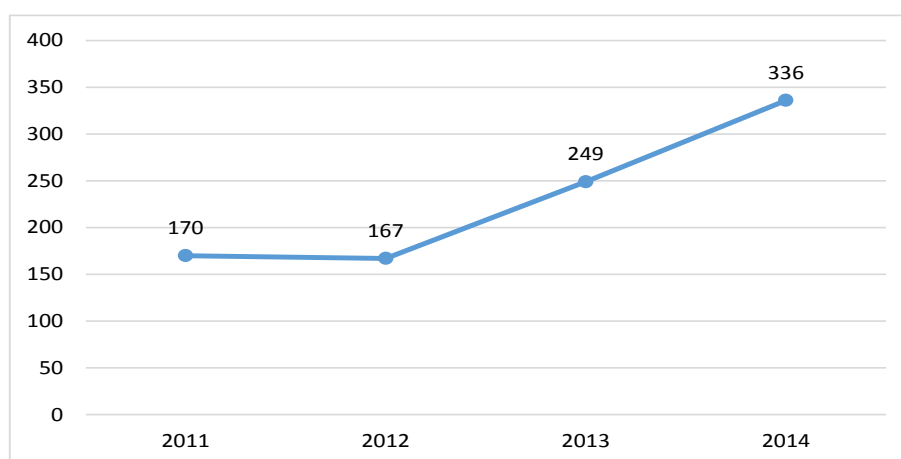
Source: NCRB

⁵⁸ Ministry of Health and Family Welfare, Government of India. 2007. *National Family Health Survey (NFHS-3) 2005-06*. Delhi: MoHFW, GoI.

3.5.4 Sexual Harassment and Rape

The NCRB reports that 24,923 cases of rape occurred in 2012 in India. The forced sexual intercourse between husband and wife is not handled as a crime in India, and is not included in this report. Ninety eight percent of 24,923 cases have been committed by the persons acquainted with the victim. This is higher than the world's average. Perpetrators consist of family members (1.6 percent), relatives (6.4 percent), neighboring inhabitants (34.7 percent) and other acquaintances (57.2 percent). Further, frequent cases of incest are also characteristic of Indian VAW. India has an increase of 46.8 percent from 267 cases in 2011 to 392 cases in 2012, as against the world's average of 3 percent.

Rape is closely related to the social stigma by the nature of the crime. The number of reported cases is considered to be much smaller than the actual number. The United Nations Office on Drugs and Crimes (UNODC) shows that the number of the reported cases of rape in 2010 is 1.8 per 1,000 persons in India, as compared to 9.4 in Germany, 19.2 in Norway, 27.3 in U.S.A. and 63.5 in Sweden. A considerable disparity is observed when compared with the figures of those countries. This indicates a great influence of the vulnerable position of Indian female victims, lower percentage of conviction, and social stigma. Further, there are few policewomen in charge of accepting a report of the damage. There have been several cases where the victims are subjected to a secondary damage by inconsiderate male policepeople. Many victims are considered to have been hesitated in reporting the cases. India has 84,479 policewomen, which account for only 5.33 percent of all the police people. According to the MoWCD, the number of annual cases of sexual harassment against women in the workplace reported to the National Commission for Women (NCW) has been on the increase during the period from 2012 to 2014 (Figure 3.5.4.1).



Source: NCW

Figure 3.5.4.1 Transition of the Number of the Cases of Sexual Harassment in Workplace (2011 through 2014)

To revise the criminal law on sexual crime, the Government of India established the Justice Verma Committee in 2011. One month after the foundation, this committee submitted a proposal report incorporating the definition of rape, medical treatment of the rape victim, and revision of the verification procedure in legal respect. In response to this report, the National Assembly passed the Criminal Law Amendment Act 2013, whereby the criminal law and related laws of India were revised. Thus, five courts were established to conclude a trial on sexual violence against women earlier than the ordinary court. A help line “1091” designed specifically for women was initiated in major cities. Further, the Sexual Harassment of Women at Workplace (Prohibition, Prevention and Redressal) Act 2013 for prohibiting sexual harassment at the workplace was also passed.

Further, the Government of India established “One Stop Crisis Center (OSCC)” in Bhopal as a capital of the State of Madhya Pradesh in July 2014 for the first time in India, to take care of the female victims of rape, dowry-related violence, DV, and human trafficking. The OSCC is staffed by law specialists, policemen, and health-related agents. It is planned to provide services such as counseling, assistance in handling procedures for taking up the matter with the police, subsequent safety measures for the saved victims, legal counseling by lawyer, and collection of scientific evidence. It is also intended to provide overall care and services including treatment by installing the OSCC in medical facility.

3.5.5 Honor Killing, Forced Marriage by Abduction, and Acid Attack

According to the NCRB, the number of women killed under the name of “honor” has climbed in 377 during the period from 2010 through 2013. Further, the survey of the Law Commission reports that 560 married couples under threat sought protection from the police. Of these people, 121 were killed. NCRB reports that 80.2 percent of the victims of kidnapping and abduction in 2012 in India are women (38,667), and 63.2 percent of these women were kidnapped and abducted for the purpose of forced marriage. The NCRB further reports that, during the period from 2010 through 2012, there are 225 cases where women were attacked with acids. In recent years, there is an increase in the number of women attacked by acids. Since there was no law specifically to handle such cases, an article on the attack by acids was added to the Criminal Law Amendment Act 2013 passed in 2013.

3.5.6 Human Trafficking

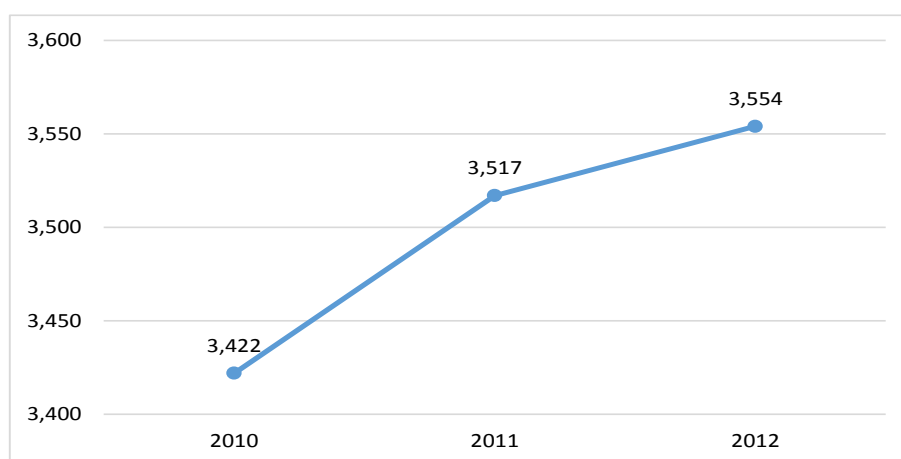
India is a source and destination of human trafficking. However, trafficking within India accounts for 90 percent of the total, and trafficking across the national boundary from Bangladesh, Nepal, Pakistan, Cambodia, and Myanmar is said to occupy about 10 percent⁵⁹. Girls and women are targeted in human trafficking in most cases; not many boys are targeted⁶⁰. When India is used as a transfer

⁵⁹ Hameed et. al. 2010. “Human Trafficking in India: Dynamics, Current Efforts, and Intervention Opportunities for the Asia Foundation,” <https://asiafoundation.org/resources/pdfs/StanfordHumanTraffickingIndiaFinalReport.pdf> (last accessed on February 2, 2015)

⁶⁰ *ibid.*

country for human trafficking, victims are sold as prostitutes to the Middle Eastern countries (Bahrain, Saudi Arabia, UAE (Dubai), Kuwait, etc.), and as maids to Europe, U.S.A., and Middle Eastern countries⁶¹. When India is the final destination in human trafficking, boys are mainly to provide slave labor in the field of agriculture, brick manufacturing, circus show, and begging. Girls and women are mainly used for slave labor as housemaids and prostitutes⁶². Further, 80 percent of 2.8 million sex workers engaged in the sex industry in India have been brought by human trafficking and 20 percent of them are below 16 years old⁶³.

Human trafficking in India is said to provide a growth industry having a 9 billion-dollar market. Human trafficking is expanding on both the domestic and international dimensions⁶⁴. The UNODC indicates that there has been a continued increase in the reported number of cases of human trafficking intended for prostitution after 2010 (Figure 3.5.6.1). The NCRB reports that there were 2,579 cases notified as violating the Immoral Traffic Act, 1956 out of 4,566 cases reported to the Anti-Human Trafficking Units of the Government in 2013, and the number of women victims aged 19 or older was 1,896 (Table 3.5.6.1). However, this is only the tip of the iceberg. In practice, the number of female victims to human trafficking intended for prostitution amounts to more than one million. It is said that 200 female victims to human trafficking occur every day, according to calculation⁶⁵.



Source: 2010 through 2012: UNODC, 2012

Figure 3.5.6.1 Arrested Cases of Human Trafficking Intended for Prostitution

⁶¹ *ibid.*

⁶² *ibid.*

⁶³ *ibid.* and UN Women. 2013. "Baseline Study of UN Women's Anti-Human Trafficking Programme," <http://asiapacific.unwomen.org/en/digital-library/publications/2013/2/un-women-s-anti-trafficking-programme-a-study> (last accessed on February 2, 2015)

⁶⁴ Hameed et. al. 2010. "Human Trafficking in India: Dynamics, Current Efforts, and Intervention Opportunities for the Asia Foundation," <https://asiafoundation.org/resources/pdfs/StanfordHumanTraffickingIndiaFinalReport.pdf> (last accessed on February 2, 2015)

⁶⁵ UN Women. 2013. "Baseline Study of UN Women's Anti-Human Trafficking Programme," <http://asiapacific.unwomen.org/en/digital-library/publications/2013/2/un-women-s-anti-trafficking-programme-a-study> (last accessed on February 2, 2015)

Table 3.5.6.1 Number of Reported Cases of Women to Human Trafficking (2013)

Details	Number of cases
Number of reports to Anti Human Trafficking Unit	4,566
Number of reported cases for violating “the Immoral Traffic (Prevention) Act, 1956”	2,579
Number of female victims in reported case for violating the ITPA	1,896

Source: NCRB, 2013

Poverty is the root cause for human trafficking in India. The major targets are girls and women positioned in a lower social status and accompanied by a heavy load of dowry in future⁶⁶. Further, these girls and women have limited information and knowledge due to lower education level, and are vulnerable to such a crime⁶⁷. A survey report on human trafficking by the Asian Foundation (TAF)⁶⁸ points out that the States of Orissa, Bihar, Jharkhand and Chhattisgarh specified as EAG (Empowered Action Group) states by the Government and characterized by a high poverty headcount rate are the sources for girls/women trafficking. In the meantime, Delhi and Goa provide transfer points and destinations⁶⁹. This survey also indicates that the States of Orissa, Bihar and West Bengal have been driven into severer poverty by the cyclone and flood in and after 1991, and the States of Jharkhand and Chhattisgarh by the Naxalite Movement spanning over 40 years, with the result that cases of human trafficking have increased in numbers⁷⁰.

In terms of social group, many of the victims to human trafficking are estimated to be SC and ST girls/women. This is known from the fact that the percentage of the SC and ST in all the sex workers is as high as 62 percent and 30 percent, respectively⁷¹. This is considered to have been partly influenced by the practice of the temple prostitution (where a SC or ST girl before first period of menstruation is devoted to men of higher caste in the same community) called *Devadasi*, which has long been performed in the States of Karnataka, Andhra Pradesh, and Maharashtra. The gender discrimination and discrimination by caste deeply rooted in society can be considered to have a big influence on human trafficking⁷².

Human trafficking mainly depends on abduction and kidnapping which are manipulated by organized crime groups⁷³. First contact with a victim or her family is taken by the relative or acquaintance living nearby in many cases. Many criminals and criminal groups are said to be working in bringing the victim to the destination for final sale, through transfer points⁷⁴. In the meantime, the report of

⁶⁶ *ibid.*

⁶⁷ *ibid.*

⁶⁸ *ibid.*

⁶⁹ *ibid.*

⁷⁰ *ibid.*

⁷¹ *ibid.*

⁷² *ibid.*

⁷³ *ibid.*

⁷⁴ Based on the information obtained by the present writer in an interview with the people related to the Rescue Foundation.

the UN Women⁷⁵ indicates that, in the above-mentioned States of Andhra Pradesh, Bihar, West Bengal and Jharkhand characterized by higher poverty rate, many women seek jobs and go out into the urban areas in India as well as the Middle Eastern countries to earn living. This makes it difficult to distinguish between ordinary migration for work/migration for marriage and human trafficking (crime)⁷⁶. In many cases, however, even if they are not sold as sex workers, they tend to be forced to work as a housemaid at a low wage for 15 hours or more a day, or they are exposed by violence of the employer to work under miserable conditions⁷⁷.

In an effort to solve the problem of human trafficking, the Government of India is creating organization systems and preparing related bills. In the first place, in addition to the police, the Anti-Trafficking Cell was established in the Ministry of Home Affairs of the Central Government, and the Anti-Human Trafficking Units (AHTUs) were set up in the State Governments. In the field of legal phase, the Immoral Traffic (Prevention) Act, 1956 is available. Although definition of human trafficking is not included, this Act covers all forms of human trafficking and sexual abuse of children. A “child” is defined to indicate the age below 16. Sexual abuse of the minority (age: 18 or less) is a serious crime. In particular, sexual abuse for commercial purposes is a serious crime. Even when the female victim is an adult, it is also considered as a heavy crime if she is forcibly used as a prostitute. This law refers to the rescue of girls/women as victims of human trafficking and provision of services for social rehabilitation, stating that the related policy agencies are responsible.

The Government of India is also making efforts in the field of prevention of human trafficking, prosecution, protection, and human resources development. In addition to the efforts made by the above-mentioned AHTUs and Anti Trafficking Cell, Integrated Anti-Human Trafficking Units (supported by UNODC) with emphasis placed on human resources development and Anti-Trafficking Nodal Cell State Program, the Integrated National Plan of Action is working out an action plan for human trafficking, in cooperation with the related authorities. Further, the *Ujjawala* Scheme program which commenced in 2007 provides comprehensive supports in the prevention of human trafficking, rescue of victims, social rehabilitation, reintegration into the community, and return to the native country. In these efforts, 86 rehabilitation centers have been established, and 4,000 women victims have been supported. In addition, the “Short Stay Homes” program is designed to extend assistance to the women placed in all forms of difficulties, without being restricted to the victims to human trafficking. The possible beneficiaries include the girls/women rescued from whorehouses and girls/women having escaped by their own efforts, as well as the women discarded by the family for social stigma. Thus, 342 or more Short Stay Homes have been installed under this program.

As a challenge toward the elimination of human trafficking in India, the TAF points out problems with

⁷⁵ UN Women. 2013. “Baseline Study of UN Women’s Anti-Human Trafficking Programme,” <http://asiapacific.unwomen.org/en/digital-library/publications/2013/2/un-women-s-anti-trafficking-programme-a-study> (last accessed on February 2, 2015)

⁷⁶ *ibid.*

⁷⁷ *ibid.*

laws, judicial system, the enforcement power of the law, and social rehabilitation service⁷⁸. The concrete problems pointed out include insufficient binding force of law due to multiple laws related to human trafficking, presence of many corrupt judges, heavy loads on the prosecutor due to excessive caseloads of trial, insufficient awareness of human trafficking by the policeman and judge resulting in lower priority of the human trafficking problem, and poor living environment of the shelter for the victims to human trafficking. According to the result of the 2005 survey in particular, six times the current number of judges of the Supreme Court are required⁷⁹ for the examination of all the currently pending issues. The insufficiency in the number of personnel engaged in the administration of justice can also be serious. Further, the UNODC survey of 2005 indicates that 80 percent of the 852 policemen surveyed consider it completely unnecessary to give priority to human trafficking or consider this issue to be of lower priority, and 40 percent of them replied that they had never heard of the concept of human trafficking⁸⁰. To solve the problems of human trafficking in India, it is essential to support the victims and, at the same time, to increase the number of persons engaged in the administration of justice and to raise the awareness of the policemen, judges, and related persons.

⁷⁸ Hameed et al. 2010. "Human Trafficking in India: Dynamics, Current Efforts, and Intervention Opportunities for the Asia Foundation," <https://asiafoundation.org/resources/pdfs/StanfordHumanTraffickingIndiaFinalReport.pdf> (last accessed on February 2, 2015)

⁷⁹ *ibid.*

⁸⁰ *ibid.*

4. The Government's Interventions in Gender Mainstreaming

4.1 The CEDAW

The Convention for Eliminating All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW), was adopted at the 34th United Nations General Assembly held in 1979 and issued in 1981, which is aimed at eliminating all forms of discrimination against women and contributing to full gender equality⁸¹. Discrimination against women is defined by the convention, and signatory states are required to undertake necessary interventions to eliminate discrimination against women in political, administrative, and socioeconomic activities⁸². As of April 2014, the total number of signatory states is 188. The Government of Japan signed it in July 1980 and ratified it in June 1985. Upon ratification, the signatory states are required to amend their existing domestic laws to coordinate them with the CEDAW, which prevents some countries, including the US, from ratifying the convention. Furthermore, the signatory states are supposed to submit a periodic report on the progress of status of women and gender equality every four years. The reports are reviewed by the CEDAW Committee.

The Government of India signed the CEDAW in July 1980 and ratified it in July 1993. After ratification, the Government of India submitted the first periodic report covering 1993 to 1997 in August 1998, the next one, in October 2005, which combines the 2nd and 3rd periodic reports covering from 1997 to 2005, and the latest one, in 2012, which combines the 4th and 5th periodic reports. Key points, including positive aspects and challenges, in the review of the latest report done by the CEDAW Committee are as follows:

Evaluation of India's combined (the 4 th and 5 th) periodic report by the CEDAW Committee	
Positive Aspects	<ol style="list-style-type: none">1) The enactment and revision of numerous laws and legal provisions aimed at eliminating discrimination against women. In particular, the CEDAW Committee welcomes the adoption of:<ul style="list-style-type: none">• The Criminal Law Amendment Act, 2013;• The Prohibition of Employment of Manual Scavengers and their Rehabilitation Act, 2013;• The National Food Security Act, 2013;• The Sexual Harassment of Women in the Workplace (Prevention, Prohibition and Redress) Act, 2013;• The Protection of Children from Sexual Offences Act, 2012; and• The Right of Children to Free and Compulsory Education Act, 2009.2) The State's efforts to improve its institutional and policy framework aimed at accelerating the elimination of discrimination against women and promoting gender equality, such as:<ul style="list-style-type: none">✓ The establishment of the Bank for Women <i>Bharatiya Mahila Bank Ltd.</i> in 2013 to advance economic empowerment of women;✓ The creation of the National Mission for Empowerment of Women (NMEW) (2010-15) in 2010 to address women's issues;✓ The introduction of <i>Indira Gandhi Matritva Sahyog Yojana</i> (IGMSY)(2010)3) The ratification or acceding to the following international instruments:<ul style="list-style-type: none">✓ The Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities in 2007;✓ The Convention against Transnational Organized Crime; the Protocol to Prevent, Suppress, and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children; and the Protocol against the Smuggling of Migrants by Land, Sea, and Air, in 2011.

⁸¹ <http://www.mofa.go.jp/mofaj/gaiko/josi/> (last accessed on January 7, 2015)

⁸² *ibid.*

Challenges	Violence against Women	<p>While the State has made efforts to enact a legal framework to prevent and respond to violence against women, including women from the marginalized caste and communities, such as the Dalit and Adivasi women, there are still the following concerns:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ The stark increase of violent crimes against women, especially rapes, kidnapping and abduction, by 902.1% since 1971; ✓ The retention in the Penal Code of an exemption from punishment of rape when committed by the victim's husband if the wife is above 15 years of age; ✓ The escalation of caste-based violence, including rape, against women and girls, and the downplaying by key State officials of the grave criminal nature of sexual violence against women and girls; ✓ The high number of dowry-related deaths since 2008; ✓ The persistence of so-called 'honor' crimes perpetrated by family members against women and girls; ✓ The declining girl-child sex ratio from 962 per 1000 in 1981 to 914 per 1000 in 2011; ✓ The criminalization of the same sex relationships; and ✓ The increasing number of acid attacks against women in 2002.
	Violence against women in border areas and conflict zones	<p>The Committee is deeply concerned about the reported high level of violence against women in conflict-affected regions (Kashmir, the North East, Chhattisgarh, Odisha, and Andhra Pradesh):</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ The significant number of displaced women and girls, particularly in the North Eastern region, as well as a result of sporadic communal violence; ✓ The continued marginalization and poverty of women and girls survivors of the Gujarat riots living in the relief colonies; and ✓ The lack of centers providing medical, psychological, legal, and socioeconomic support to women and girls who are victims of sexual violence in conflict-affected areas.
	National Machinery	<p>The State took measures to strengthen the government strategy and its machinery for the advancement of women, including the Ministry for Women and Child Development, the adoption of the National Mission for Empowerment of Women (NMEW) (2010-2015) and of the proposed amendment to the National Commission for Women Act, 1990. However, the Committee is concerned about the limited operational and financial independence of the National Commission for Women (NCW) and the state commissions as well as a lack of a transparent system of nomination of the members and Chairperson of the NCW. Another concern is about the budget allocated for women's empowerment in the Ministry for Women and Child Development.</p>
	Trafficking in Persons and exploitation of prostitution	<p>Despite the establishment of Anti-trafficking Units, sensitization programs, and so on, the Committee remains concerned at the alarming persistence of trafficking in the country, both internal and cross-border, at the lack of protection and services available to women and girl victims of trafficking and sexual exploitation and at the lack of efforts to address their root causes.</p>
	Participation in political and public life	<p>While there are six women Ministers in the 23-member cabinet of the new Government, there remain concerns about the low representation of women in political and public life, for example in the <i>Lok Sabha</i> (Lower House of Parliament), where only 62 out of the 543 members of Parliament are women, or on the Supreme Court of India where only one of the 26 sitting judges is a woman. Furthermore, the adoption of the women reservation in Services Bill has been pending before Parliament since 2010.</p>
	Education	<p>Despite the enactment of the Act, guaranteeing free and compulsory education for all children aged 6 to 14, in 2009, the Government spent only 4 percent of GDP on education. Girls with disability and minorities still register low enrollment rates, and the drop-out rate among adolescent girls is as high as 64 percent, making them vulnerable to child marriage. The Committee is equally concerned that girls are subjected to sexual harassment and violence including in conflict-affected regions.</p>

	Employment	Women's labor force participation rate has declined both in rural and urban areas. Women working in the informal economy (agriculture, domestic and home-based work) are not covered by labor laws and other social protection measures. There is the gender wage gap indicating that women earn only 50 to 7- percent of the wages earned by men, and another statistical data shows that women only own 9 percent of land. Despite the newly enacted Sexual Harassment of Women in the Workplace Act, there are some clauses that might undermine its efficiency, and the Act does not include an effective complaints mechanism for domestic workers. Furthermore, the Government has not ratified the ILO Convention No. 189 (2011) concerning decent work for domestic workers.
	Health	Despite the achievement of greater coverage in maternal health services, the Committee is still concerned about the persistently high ratio of maternal mortality in some states and the high rate of deaths resulting from unsafe abortions. The Committee is also concerned about the low budgetary allocation to health services; the disparities in maternal health care, including between the urban and rural areas; and limited availability of, and accessibility to modern forms of contraceptives.
	Rural Women	The prevalence of customs and traditional practices prevent rural women from inheriting or acquiring land and other property, especially the women from scheduled castes and tribes. In addition, rural women and women living in remote areas have difficulties in gaining access to health and social services and in participating in decision-making processes at the community level. Rural women are particularly affected by poverty and food insecurity, lack of access to natural resources, safe water, and credit facilities.
	Women from scheduled castes and scheduled tribes	Dalit women and women from scheduled tribes face multiple barriers in accessing justice, due to legal illiteracy, lack of awareness of their rights, and limited accessibility to legal aid. Due to the financial, cultural, and physical barriers faced by Dalit and women from scheduled tribes, their access to health services and other public services is limited.
	Women with disabilities	The Rights of Persons with Disabilities Bill (2014) is pending before the Parliament. The Committee is concerned that women with intellectual or psychosocial disabilities can be denied legal capacity and committed to institutions without their consent and without recourse to any meaningful remedy or review. In addition, those women can be sterilized without their consent. The Committee is also concerned that women with disabilities experience a high rate of poverty, lack access to education, employment, and health service, especially in rural areas. They often experience harassment in public and are excluded from decision-making processes. Another concern is the lack of disaggregated data on persons with disabilities, especially on violence against women with disabilities.
	Marriage and family relations	While the enactment of the Prohibition of Child Marriage Act (2006) has led to a certain decrease in the number of early and forced marriages of girls, the Committee is concerned at the high prevalence of such marriages and that victims of child marriages must file a petition with a court to void the marriage within two years after reaching the age of majority. It is also concerned about the report that judges often authorize marriages of under-age girls based on Muslim Personal Laws and that no legislation ensuring the registration of all marriages in the State party has been adopted. The coexistence of multiple legal systems with regard to marriage and family relations in the State party results in the deep and persistent discrimination against women. The Committee is particularly concerned that spousal property is overall governed by a regime of separate property so that women are not awarded their share in the property accumulated during marriage, and that the proposed amendments to the Special marriage Act and Hindu Marriage Act only provide a limited and discretionary possibility for distribution of marital property.

4.2 Gender Policies

In the Constitution of India, basic human rights and gender equality are ensured before law. The Constitution does not merely touch on the goal of ensuring gender equality, but requires the Government to take “positive discrimination” measures to address it⁸³. From the 9th Five Year Plan for 1974 to 1978, the Government started addressing women’s issues and women’s empowerment, shifting from welfare to develop approach⁸⁴. However, there was a critical gap between *de jure* women’s rights ensured in the Constitution and other legislations and *de facto* status of women in India. In this light, to close this huge gap was analyzed or highlighted as a critical challenge faced by the Government of India in some analytical papers and national plans, including a report on the status of women in India, “Toward Equality” (1974), written by the NCW, “the National Perspective Plan for women, 1988 – 2000”, the *Shramshakti* Report, 1988, and “the Platform for Action, Five Years After - an Assessment.”

In 2001, the Government of India developed the National Policy for the Empowerment of Women, aimed to bring about the advancement, development, and empowerment of women. To achieve this goal, the Government emphasizes the involvement of diverse stakeholders as well as the following nine purposes:

- 1) Creating an environment through positive economic and social policies for full development of women to enable them to realize their full potential;
- 2) The *de-jure* and *de-facto* enjoyment of all human rights and fundamental freedom by women on an equal basis with men in all spheres – political, economic, social, cultural and civil
- 3) Equal access to participation and decision making of women in social, political and economic life of the nation
- 4) Equal access to women to health care, quality education at all levels, career and vocational guidance, employment, equal remuneration, occupational health and safety, social security and public office etc.
- 5) Strengthening legal systems aimed at elimination of all forms of discrimination against women
- 6) Changing societal attitudes and community practices by active participation and involvement of both men and women.
- 7) Mainstreaming a gender perspective in the development process.
- 8) Elimination of discrimination and all forms of violence against women and the girl child; and
- 9) Building and strengthening partnerships with civil society, particularly women’s organizations.

⁸³ “National Policy for the Empowerment of Women (2001),” <http://wcd.nic.in/empwomen.htm> (last accessed on March 3, 2015).

⁸⁴ *ibid.*

The policy include as prioritized areas: judicial legal systems; decision making; mainstreaming gender in the development processes; economic empowerment of women (poverty eradication, micro credit, women and economy, globalization, women and agriculture, women and industry, and support for services); social empowerment of women (education, health, nutrition, drinking water and sanitation, and housing and shelter) environment; science and technology; women in difficult circumstances; violence against women; rights of the girl child; and mass media.

All central ministries and state departments have been supposed to translate the policy into a set of concrete actions, through a participatory process of consultation with MoWCD and National/State Commissions for Women. The plans are specifically supposed to include the following:

- 1) Measurable goals to be achieved;
- 2) Identification and commitment of resources;
- 3) Responsibilities for implementation of action points;
- 4) Structures and mechanisms to ensure efficient monitoring, review and gender impact assessment of action points and policies; and
- 5) Introduction of a gender perspective in the budgeting process.

The 12th Five Year Plan (2012 to 2017), a national development plan of India, includes the chapter of “Women’s Agency and Child Rights.” In this plan, the Government of India emphasizes the elimination of gender-based inequality, discrimination, and violence as the prioritized challenges which the Government should tackle. It aims at the inclusion of women and children in development processes through not only the policies and programs which directly target them, but mainstreaming a gender perspective into general policies and programs. For this goal, the Government attempts to reflect women and children’s voice in the planning processes of national plans and promote socioeconomically disadvantaged people, especially women and girls from scheduled castes and scheduled tribes. As stated in the previous plan (2007 to 2012), the 12th Five Year Plan also pays special attention to a women’s agency. The plan points out the following six strategies to address the women’s agency: 1) women’s economic empowerment; 2) construction of social and physical infrastructure; 3) development of legal systems; 4) women’s participation in governance; 5) the inclusion of all vulnerable women; and 6) mainstreaming a gender perspective in national policies.

4.3 National Machinery

4.3.1 Ministry of Women and Child Development

The present Ministry of Women and Child Development (MoWCD) in India was originally established as the Department of Women and Child Development in 1985 in accordance with increasing development needs for women and children. The mandate of the Ministry is to materialize the development of women and children in a broad sense. The Ministry also takes responsibilities for developing plans, policies, and programs as well as relevant laws which can contribute to the

advancement of women and children. The Ministry also plays a role as an implementing agency as well in the provision of the services necessary for women and child well-being, the implementation of skill development training for women and the youth, and advocacy and gender-sensitization activities to raise the awareness of gender equality. The Ministry is mandated to ensure that women are socially and economically empowered and play an important role in the development of India at the status equal to men.

Almost all programs under the MoWCD are implemented by NGOs. One of its main programs, the Integrated Child Development Service (ICDS) program, consists of service packages, including services pertaining to nutrition, immunization, health checkups, pre-school education, non-formal education etc. In addition, the Ministry operates the program called “*Kishori Shakti Yojana* (to empower adolescent girls). Thus, the programs implemented under the Ministry are mainly focused on children and the youth rather than women.

There are six financially independent organizations under the MoWCD as follows:

- 1) National Institute of Public Cooperation and Child Development (NIPCCD)
- 2) National Commission for Women (NCW)
- 3) National Commission for Protection of Child Rights (NCPCR)
- 4) Central Adoption Resource Agency (CARA)
- 5) Central Social Welfare Board (CSWB)
- 6) *Rashtriya Mahila Kosh* (RMK)

The key Indian laws relevant to gender equality are the following:

- ✓ The Protection of Women from Domestic Violence Act, 2005
- ✓ The Sexual Harassment of Women at the Workplace (Prevention, Prohibition, and Redressal) Act, 2013
- ✓ Amendments to Criminal Law, 1983 (tougher punishment for rapes)
- ✓ Immoral Traffic in Women and Girls Act, 1956 (amended in 1986)
- ✓ The Indecent Representation of Women (Prevention) Act, 1986
- ✓ The Dowry Prohibition Act, 1961 (prevention for dowry-related violence and death)
- ✓ The Commission of Sati (Prevention) Act, 1987 (strengthening the prevention for honor killing and killing female widows)
- ✓ National Commission for Women (NCW) Act, 1990 (the protection of women’s rights, the establishment of the NCW and granting it authority, etc.)

4.3.2 National Commission for women and High Level Committee on Status of Women

The NCW was established in 1990 as the national supreme body to protect women’s rights. The NCW consists of several cells, including “Complaint & Investigation Cell”, “Legal Cell”, “Research & Studies Cell”, and so on. The Government of India points out the ideal situation of women in

India, indicating that their security is protected wherever they are and that they have access to all forms of rights and opportunities as Indian citizens regardless of castes/tribes/classes. Based on this, the NCW emphasizes the goals of women's economic and political empowerment; the prevention of discrimination and violence against women; and the advancement of socially disadvantaged women, especially women from SC and ST and women with disabilities.

In February 2012, the MoWCD approved the establishment of the High Level Committee on Status of Women (HLCSW), mandated to make recommendations in line with findings from the research on status of women in India and gender analysis conducted. The original organization of the HLCSW used to do gender analysis and make a report, "Toward Equality" in 1974. Currently, the HLCSW has conducted research on the situation of women in social, economic, political, and administrative aspects. Above all, it focuses their research topics on the identification of the areas which the Government can more effectively and more efficiently make political interventions.

4.4 Gender Budgeting

In general, gender budgeting is considered as a powerful tool for gender mainstreaming. In this light, the Government of India has undertaken various activities pertaining to gender budgeting, aimed at positive impacts on women. In 2004, the Ministry of Finance first constituted an Expert Group on classification system of the Government transactions to examine the feasibility of and suggest the general approach to gender budgeting and economic classification. In December 2004, instructions to establish a Gender Budgeting Cell by January 1, 2005 was issued by the Department of Economic Affairs, Ministry of Finance, and distributed to all Ministries/Departments.

The gender budget of India is divided into 2 categories as follows:

Part A: Women Specific Scheme (allocated fully for women)

Part B: Pro Women Scheme (allocated 30 percent of the total budget for women)

In 2012, the working group formed started developing the guidelines to conduct gender audits on relevant policies, programs, and schemes operated by the Government. The MoWCD developed the guidelines on gender budgeting, and distributed it to all State Governments in 2013. Despite the efforts made by the Government, the implementation of gender budgeting remains as a key challenge to be tackled by the Government.

5. Interventions by Other International Organizations

5.1 Education Sector

1) UNICEF

Project Title	Purposes/ Main Activities
WAAZ Do Digital Campaign (2010-)	Support for the students who dropped out and advocacy activities through media
<i>Deepshikha Programme</i> /Building Young Futures (2008-)	Targeting 65,000 women and girls Life skill training for women and young entrepreneurs the empowerment of those women

2) World Bank

Third Elementary Education Project (SSA III) (2014-)	Improving learning outcomes of students at primary school through improving the quality of education Strengthening the monitoring and evaluation system Improving the access to school of socially disadvantaged children
Technical Engineering Education Quality Improvement II (2010-)	Strengthening the institutional capacity of the target universities/graduate schools so that they can train high level future engineers/ faculty members

3) ADB

Rural Education Project (2014-)	Targeting children 3 to 11 years old in Karnataka and Tamil Nadu States who dropped out of school
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5.2 Health Sector

1) UNICEF

Project Title	Purposes/ Main Activities
ICDS	Taking measures for children below 6 years old with malnutrition Health care support Support for expectant mothers, mothers, and young women

2) World Bank

ICDS	Support for making ICDS policies, framework, and systems, human resource development, and support for the communities targeted
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3) DfID

Improved Family Planning and Reproductive Health Services in India (2012-)	Promotion of prevalence of family planning and contraceptives, of a decrease in MMR, and of prevention of unsafe abortion in Bihar and Odisha States
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5.3 Agriculture Sector

1) World Bank

Project Title	Purposes/ Main Activities
Rajasthan Agricultural Competitiveness Project (under implementation)	Sustainable increase in agricultural productivity in Rajasthan State Improving income of farming households Main components: 1) resistance to climate change; 2) value chain; 3) formation of farmers; 4) project management; and 5) monitoring and evaluation
India: Economic Empowerment Project for Women (SEWA)	Support for entrepreneurs of small and medium enterprises, especially the poor and vulnerable women, through IT (information technology) Elimination of women's vulnerability Poverty reduction
Diversified Agricultural Support Project (DASP)	Improvement of agricultural productivity Promotion of private sector development Construction of infrastructure in rural areas

2) IFAD

Tejaswini Rural Women's Empowerment Programme (2005-)	Providing opportunities and choices for poor women Support for Self-help groups (SHGs) (access to micro credit and linkage with micro finance institutes (MFIs)) Promoting women's well-being
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3) ADB

Agribusiness Infrastructure Development Investment Program (2010 - 2018)	Verification of value-added agricultural products Creation of employment Improvement of agricultural and non-agricultural income Poverty reduction
Karnataka Integrated and Sustainable Water Resources Management Investment Program (2014 - 2021)	Expansion of water resources necessary for agricultural production in Karnataka State

5.4 Employment/ Economic Activities

1) World Bank

Project Title	Purposes/ Main Activities
Friends of Women's World Banking (2002-)	MFIs took over the activities for lending money to women which Ms. Era Bhatt, a founder of SEWA, used to do
National Rural Livelihood Project (2011-2017)	Targeting 2,860,000 households and 280,000 SHGs in 13 states Improvement of the rural poor person's livelihoods Improvement of their access to public financial institutes and public organizations

2) ADB

Micro, Small, and Medium Enterprise Development Project (2010-)	Reach out of Small Industries Development Bank of India to micro small enterprises in 12 states
Skills Development for Inclusive Growth (2011-)	Support for the National Skill Development Council in policy making Support for establishing relevant councils

5.5 Violence against Women (Trafficking in Persons)

The Government of India & UN Women

Safe Delhi Campaign (2010- 2015)	Making the public space safer for women Developing a model to combat against violence against women
Anti-Human Trafficking Programme 2013	Improving the Government's capacity for protection of women and prevention of trafficking in persons Decreasing the number of woman and girl victims through advocacy activities and community's participation

6. Gender Mainstreaming by JICA

6.1 International Trends in Gender Mainstreaming⁸⁵

International discourses and initiatives on gender equality started from the feminist movement in 1960's in the US and followed by the declaration of "UN Decade for Women (1976 – 1985)" in the 1st World Women Conference in 1975 and the adoption of CEDAW in the 34th session of the UN General Assembly. Through such trends, women were re-acknowledged as actors to play an important role in economic development rather than as passive beneficiaries from social welfare programs⁸⁶. Based on this re-recognition, the advancement of women was called for more than ever all over the world.

Through 1970's to early 1990's, the concept of Women in Development (WID) which puts more weight on the correction of gender disparity by granting women equal opportunities and the advancement of women (equality approach) became widely adopted by international aid agencies and the civil society. Based on this concept and approach, numerous projects targeting women were implemented. However, the oversight of women's role and capability and for limited opportunities and benefits for women have nothing to do with women themselves, rather those are largely the result from unequal power relationship with men. Due to this, gender specialists came to realize that without transforming the unequal social structure of the root cause, gender equality and the advancement of women would not be fully achieved. In the 1990's, based on the post-structuralism and post-modernism, they focused more on such unequal power relations and addressed the transformation of the relations and social structure for the empowerment of the socially disadvantaged, especially women. This was the shift of WID to Gender and Development (GAD) in approach to gender equality.

Upon the shift from WID to GAD, the target of interventions also shifted from women only to both women and men. Similarly, the purpose of the interventions shifted from meeting "Practical Gender Needs" to "Strategic Gender Needs." While the former focuses on women's basic human needs for their survival, including education, vocational training, health care, drinking water/sanitation, etc., the latter is the need to empower them to collectively transform gender institutions, including the gender-based division of labor and structural power relations, perpetuated over the generations.

After the 4th World Women Conference in 1995, the gender mainstreaming approach through which a gender perspective is integrated into all the processes of planning, implementation, and M&E for projects/programs became widely adopted as a strategy for promoting the concept of GAD. The MDGs which were adopted in the UN Millennium Summit in 2000 include 8 development goals to be globally achieved by 2015. Goal 3 of the MDGs is to promote gender equality and empower women, and most of the other goals are also closely related to gender equality. Thus, gender mainstreaming

⁸⁵ Based on JICA's "Trends and Approaches on Gender and Development (2007)."

⁸⁶ Voserup, Ester. 1970. *Women's Role in Economic Development*.

has been considered as an essential element for achieving the MDGs.

6.2 Efforts by the Government of Japan and JICA⁸⁷

In association with those international trends, the Government of Japan refers to ensuring equity, one of main principles, in the new Official Development Assistance (ODA) Framework developed in 2003. In the framework, based on the gender equality point of view, the Government commits to the promotion of advancement of women in developing countries, their active participation, and equal distribution of benefits between both sexes. Japan's Mid-term Policy on ODA, developed from a standpoint of human security, also takes into account ensuring equity for the socially-disadvantaged, including women. Accordingly, the Government revised the WID Initiative to the GAD Initiative which focuses on the approaches of GAD and gender mainstreaming, and announced it at the Beijing + 10 held in March 2005.

In line with the ODA Framework and Mid-term Policy on ODA, JICA also sets a similar goal that it makes further efforts to promote the advancement of women by ensuring the active participation of women and women's being benefited from development. To address the goal, JICA first attempts to improve the level of understanding of its officials and relevant personnel about the importance of gender equality in the context of development. Secondly, it attempts to integrate a gender perspective in all processes of relevant projects. Associated with the revision of the WID initiative to the GAD Initiative, JICA also revised its Guidelines for Women in Development to Guidelines for Gender and Development which is aimed at mainstreaming gender into all JICA projects.

However, JICA has not institutionally developed any concrete system to mainstream gender into JICA projects. The extent to which women actively participate in activities of JICA projects or are benefited from JICA projects tend to largely depend on the level of understanding and awareness of its planners and implementers. As a result, gender impact of JICA projects in terms of gender often tend to vary by projects. Even if positive impact in women's empowerment and more equal gender relations resulted from any given project, it is not necessarily due to strategic interventions, but rather, an incidental outcome. In order for JICA to apply a more effective and efficient approach to gender mainstreaming, JICA first needs to collect information on and analyze the approach and interventions effective for women's active participation and empowerment in each of the main development sectors. Based on the effective approach and interventions identified, JICA needs to develop the institutionally unified system for gender mainstreaming.

As the first step, in the following paragraph 6.5, four JICA projects are reviewed from a gender perspective, identifying effective approach to and interventions for women's active participation and empowerment, and making key recommendations which should be taken into account in planning a new project in similar sector/context in the future.

⁸⁷ *ibid.*

6.3 ADB's Gender Mainstreaming

The Asian Development Bank (ADB) supports developing countries through the provision of loan projects in the construction of infrastructure in the sectors of transportation, energy, urban water supply, vocational training, small-scale irrigation. The ADB categorizes almost all their loan projects from a gender perspective at a very early stage of planning. In the projects categorized into the upper two categories out of four categories in total, it aims to provide equal opportunities for women, promote their active participation, and materialize their empowerment. For this purpose, the ADB integrates a gender perspective in the planning process of each project. Such systematic procedures for gender mainstreaming have been developed and applied by the ADB.

There are four categories for ADB's projects in terms of relevance to gender. At the very early stage of planning, persons-in-charge of each project in the ADB try to categorize it based on its nature and characteristics, and the final decision is made through discussion as noted above.

GEN (Gender Equity Theme)

- ✓ Projects which can lead directly to women's empowerment and gender equality

EGM (Effective Gender Mainstreaming)

- ✓ Projects which include many elements of women's empowerment and gender equality

SGE (Some Gender Elements)

- ✓ Projects which include any gender-related element, not as many as EGM Projects, but can benefit more women with some additional efforts

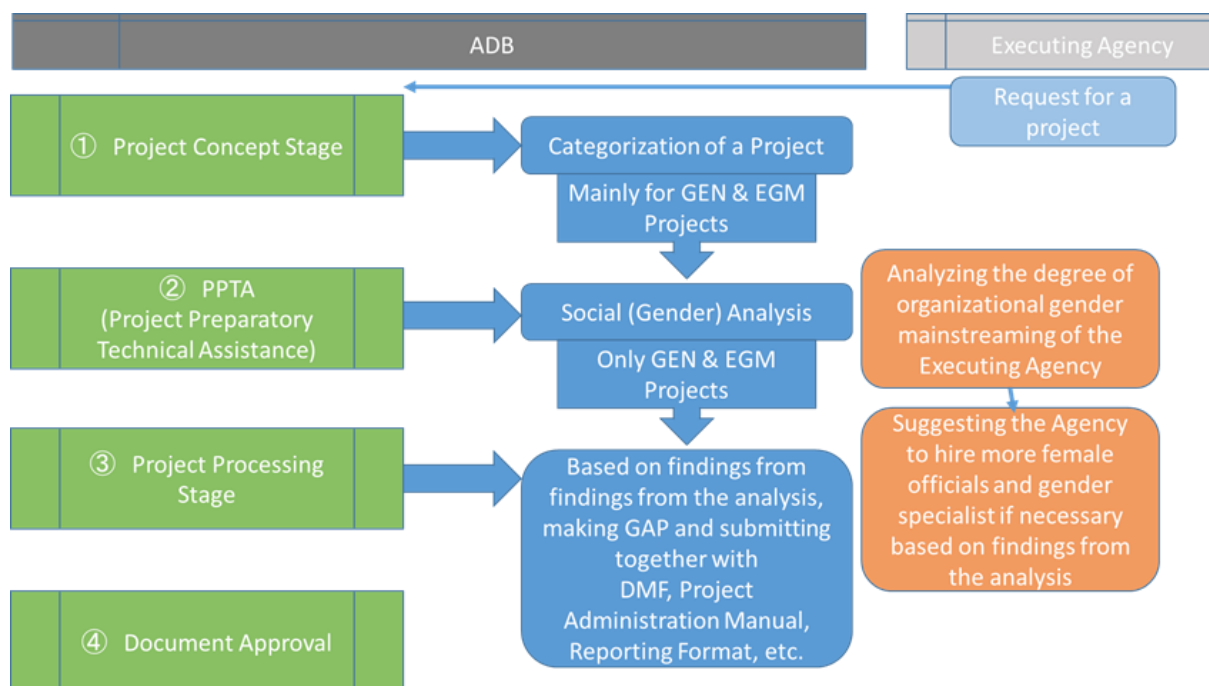
NGE (Non Gender Elements)

- ✓ Project which include no element of gender

For the ADB projects categorized into the GEN or EGM, socio-gender analysis is to be conducted by ADB's consultants after the categorization. After the analysis in the planning process, the Design & Monitoring Framework (DMF) is to be made in accordance with findings from the analysis by a person-in-charge, integrating women's empowerment and gender equality as project outcomes and relevant activities in the DMF. In those projects, women are to be targeted, and gender-disaggregated data is to be collected and monitored the progress of the project in terms of gender on a basis of the indicators stated in the DMF. In terms of organizational gender mainstreaming, based on finding from the socio-gender analysis, the ADB attempts to suggest the executing agency of a prospective project to hire more female officials for their organization and gender specialist for the project if not sufficient. Furthermore, the ADB's gender specialists are to develop Gender Action Plan (GAP) in which the detailed contents of a project are written briefly, including the point of how the project can contribute to women's empowerment and gender equality. The GAP is to be submitted as the document relevant to

the Report & Recommendation of the President (RRP) together with other documents.

The flow chart below shows how gender is mainstreamed into the processes of each loan project of the ADB.



Source: the writer of the report developed this chart based on an interview with a gender specialist in ADB India.

Figure 6.3.1 Flow chart of Gender Mainstreaming for the Planning Processes of an ADB Loan Project

6.4 Definition and Conceptual Framework of Women's Empowerment

Gender mainstreaming is a tool to address women's empowerment and gender equality. To mainstream gender into future JICA projects means that each of those projects is aimed at the empowerment of women through its activities. Before reviewing the selected JICA projects in India from a gender perspective, first it is important to understand exactly what 'empowerment' means. Based on the definition of 'empowerment', what kinds of interventions at each of the planning, implementation, and monitoring & evaluation (M&E) processes can effectively lead to the empowerment of women can be identified as key points to review the selected JICA projects. Finally, through those steps, the conceptual framework of empowerment and gender mainstreaming is developed, based on which the selected JICA projects in India are reviewed.

In general, while 'empowerment' is regarded as autonomy, self-determination, and self-confident, 'process', 'choice', and 'agency' are often emphasized as its important concepts. This idea is fully covered by N. Kabeer in her definition of 'empowerment' in 1999⁸⁸. She defines 'empowerment' as the expansion in people's ability to make strategic life choices where this ability was previously

⁸⁸ Kabeer, N. 1999. "Resources, Agency, and Achievement: Reflections on the Measurement of Women's Empowerment." *Development and Change*, Vol. 30, Issue No. 3, pp. 435-466.

denied them.” Thus, ‘empowerment’ means the process in which people’s ability (to have choices) changes, and N. Kabeer points out three factors to determine the change of choices: 1) resources; 2) agency; and 3) achievement. She also considers ‘resources’ as preconditions, ‘agency’ as the process through which an individual person is empowered, and ‘achievement’ as outcome.

Those three factors are also conceptualized in Capability Approach by A. Sen. In this Approach, A. Sen considers individuals’ capability with which they are able to achieve their subjective future goals of “beings and doings” (Functional Achievements) by choosing and taking advantage of available resources on their own account, and evaluate the degree of the achievements in their sense of value⁸⁹. Above all, what he focuses on is not either quantity or quality of resources, but ‘agency’ with which individuals can decide what resources to choose and utilize in order to address ‘beings’ and ‘doings’ by themselves. Based on this, A. Sen defines an agent as “a person who acts and brings about change.”

In the light of those concepts, in order to empower women through activities of development projects, it is necessary to as preconditions, provide women with resources which usually are not available for them, to develop their agency by encouraging them to decide and act on their own account through the activities of the project, and to give them opportunities to evaluate their changes and achievements according to their sense of value. In detail, resources are not necessarily cash and in-kind, but human resources, information, services, and training programs. Those resources are usually distributed and controlled exclusively by authority at the community level and the household head, namely men, at the household level. Thus, in the projects into which gender is mainstreamed, proactive interventions should be undertaken in order to change such inequitable systems for the distribution of resources and opportunities and provide women with information, service, and other resources.

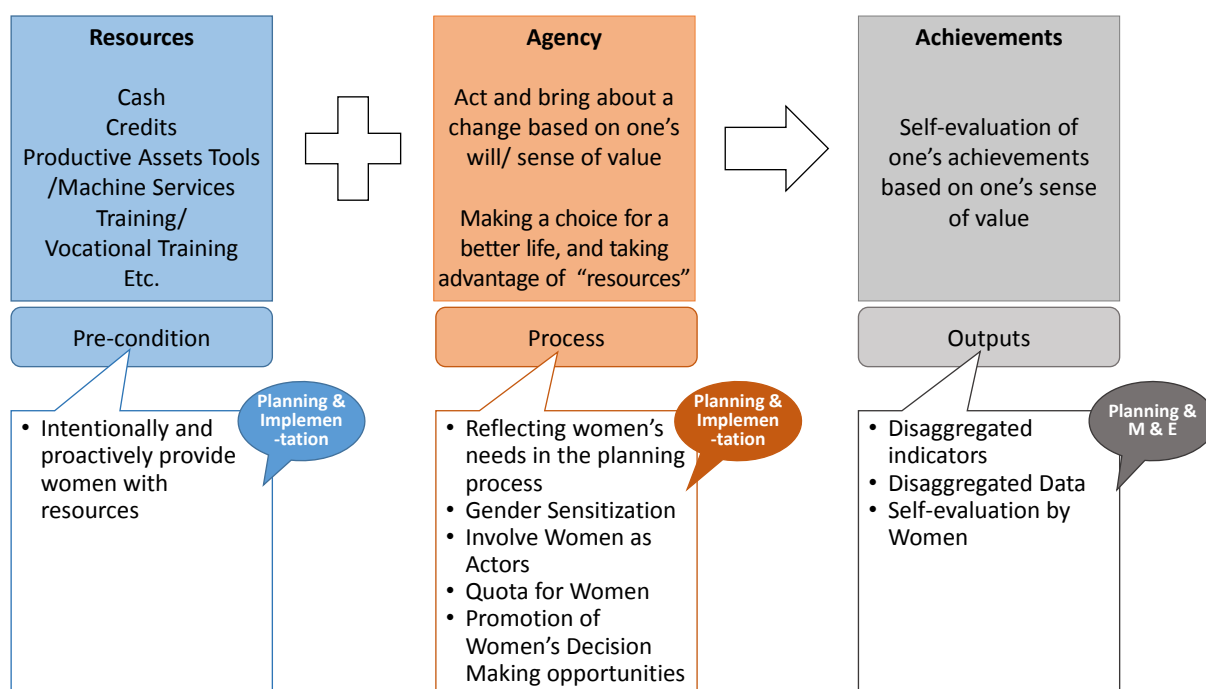
Next, for women’s agency, it is important to raise the gender awareness of both men and women and provide women with opportunities to make decisions and act on their own. In the patriarchal society of developing countries, in particular, men usually dominate the role of making decisions at the community and household levels, and women are not given such opportunities. Therefore, in gender-mainstreamed projects, women should not be treated as passive beneficiaries or assistants for men, but main actors to play an important role, and should be encouraged to actively participate in the projects. It is also important to provide women with the learning process of developing their decision-making and bargaining power through their own experiences that women, as active members and leaders, make important decisions and take responsibilities for their group activities. Thus, it is necessary to conduct gender sensitization⁹⁰ workshop targeting both men and women in the community at the initial stage of the projects, and attempt to change their gender-biased attitudes toward women and gender institutions, including gender-based division of labor and men’s domination over decision-making power. In order to ensure women’s opportunities to participate in decision-making

⁸⁹ Sen, A. 1985. *Commodities and Capabilities*. Oxford: Oxford Publications.

⁹⁰ To change the gender-biased attitudes and behaviors of men and women and raise their awareness of gender equality.

processes, a quota system is also an effective intervention.

Finally, under gender-mainstreamed projects, their M&E process should focus on the measurement of the degree of achievement of women's empowerment. With quantitative and qualitative indicators, the extent to which women received and took advantage of resources and opportunities and how often and how actively they participated in decision-making processes should be measured. In the Project Design Matrix (PDM) for each project, if women's empowerment or women-related matters are set for project purpose, outputs, and activities, indicators are automatically disaggregated by gender, which makes it possible to measure the degree of achievement of women's empowerment. Since empowerment includes the concept of evaluating individuals' achievements based on their sense of value, it is also important to integrate an activity in which women can do self-evaluation on their changes and achievements at the planning stage of the projects.



Note: developed by the writer of this report, based on the concept of empowerment by N. Kabeer and the concept of Capability Approach by A. Sen

Figure 6.4.1 Conceptual Framework of Empowerment

Based on the framework above, the following ten points are identified as key points to review the selected JICA India's projects from a gender perspective and evaluate them on the extent to which they are mainstreamed gender:

- ① Whether or not women are involved as beneficiaries. If so, whether or not women are regarded as actors in the project;
- ② Whether or not project purpose, outputs, and actives are set for women's empowerment;
- ③ Whether or not gender-disaggregated indicators are developed and gender-disaggregated data are collected in the project;

- ④ Whether or not gender analysis, including women's and men's needs, their access to/control over resources, women's constraints in terms of time, areas of movement, etc., and so on, was conducted prior to or at the initial stage of the project and findings from the analysis was reflected in the planning and implementation processes of the project;
- ⑤ Whether or not any interventions were undertaken to promote women's active participation (e.g. recruitment of local female motivators/mobilizers and the introduction of a quota system for the membership of any decision-making bodies/committees and participants in training programs);
- ⑥ Whether or not any interventions, including gender sensitization workshops, were undertaken to change the existing gender role and unequal gender relations in the target areas of the project;
- ⑦ Whether or not training programs as well as workshops and meetings were set up at the time and place convenient for women with the contents which are interesting and understandable even for illiterate women. Also whether or not JICA experts, counterparts, or local motivators attempted to convince women's husbands or other family members to encourage women to attend training programs even which did not take place nearby and lasted for several days as well as to take women's role, such as household chores and child care.;
- ⑧ Whether or not information on resources, key persons, and the market were provided to women in the project;
- ⑨ Whether or not any training programs or learning opportunities through which women can develop planning skills, leadership, and bargaining power were provided to women in the project; and
- ⑩ How women's role at home and their contribution to their livelihood changed, and hence, how gender relations changed (women's self-evaluation and evaluation of women by men's and community people)

6.5 Review of the Selected JICA Projects in India from a Gender Perspective and Recommendations for the Formation of Gender-mainstreamed Projects

The JICA India's projects selected for the review are four in total, including 1 completed project and 3 on-going projects as listed below. Reasons for the selection of those four are mainly due to the higher possibility that similar projects will be planned in the future and the priority areas of JICA India Office. From the ten points described in 6.4 above, those four projects are reviewed and analyzed, and based on the analysis, key recommendations are also made.

- 1) Delhi Mass Rapid Transport System Project, Phase 3 (Loan Project) - on-going
- 2) Himachal Pradesh Crop Diversification Promotion Project (Technical Cooperation) – on-going
- 3) Hogenakkal Water Supply and Fluorosis Mitigation Project (Loan Project) – on-going
- 4) Tamil Nadu Afforestation Project Phase 2 – (Loan Project) - completed

1) Delhi Mass Rapid Transport System Project, Phase 3

Project Title	Delhi Mass Rapid Transport System Project, Phase 3 (Yen Loan Project) L/A in March 2012
Sector	Transportation
Target Area	The Capital Territory of Delhi
Executing Agency	Delhi Metro Rail Corporation Limited (DMRC)
Background	Upon its current rapid urbanization, Delhi, Chennai, and other big cities face the problem of the serious traffic jam with an increase in the number of automobiles. The increase in the number of automobiles has resulted in economic loss and environmental pollution, including air pollution and undesired sound, and resulting health damage. In order to reduce the traffic jams and pollution caused by automobiles, the development of a large scale transportation system is needed. In the 11th Five Year Plan (April 2007 to March 2012), the Government of India put a focus on the development of the transportation sector, and suggested the construction of a large scale rapid transportation system in the cities of which the population is over 4 million.
Outline of the Project	<p>Purpose: The project, in which an additional 83 km of Mass Rapid Transport System will be constructed in the capital territory of Delhi, India, is aimed at the reduction of traffic jams and environmental pollution. By achieving this goal, the project also attempts to contribute to the regional development and improvement of the urban environment of the target areas.</p> <p>Activities: 1) civil engineering work (underground areas, including metro stations and whole targeted lines) 2) electrical and connection-related work for whole targeted lines 3) procurement of train cars 4) consulting services (review of the design, execution management, etc.)</p> <p>Points for promoting social development (gender, HIV/AIDS, participatory development, people with disabilities, etc.) Since most of the workers engaged in construction work for this project are migratory workers, they are at risk to HIV infection. Thus, the executing agency of the project should cooperate with relevant local NGOs and conduct prevention activities at their expense. The agency is also expected to provide the facilities and services specific to elderly people and people with disabilities.</p>
Analysis from a gender perspective	<p>① Women are also a part of the target groups of this project since they can be passengers of Delhi Metro. The DMRC, the executing agency of this project, has attempted to increase the number of female passengers by ensuring their security in the metro. However, the percentage of female passengers is only 25 percent, and 80 percent of them are women from 9 to 30 years old who are students or office workers from relatively wealthy families. Due to the fare of the metro (minimum fare Rs.8), the DMRC does not necessarily intend to target poor people, including poor women.</p> <p>② This project targets an unspecified number of passengers and aims at the provision of the metro services, which is the main characteristic of this project. In their interview, the representatives explained that DMRC partly contributes to women's freedom of movement and consequently to women's empowerment by ensuring their security in the metro. They pointed out that in reality, even Muslim women move around on the metro by themselves.</p> <p>③ The DMRC does not always conduct surveys or collect data disaggregated by sex, age, occupation, etc. However, in case they conduct surveys, they collect the data disaggregated by those social factors.</p> <p>④ Gender analysis was not done in the planning process of this project. What was done for the selection of metro stations' locations was the economic survey on available public transportation neighboring candidate areas for the stations and on existing public and commercial facilities nearby. The voice of people, not even that of men, was heard or reflected in the planning process.</p>

	<p>⑤ No gender specialist has been hired for this project, but women guards have been hired for security purpose. The DMRC has established CISF(Central Industrial Security Force)and assigned its members at each station. As of November 2014, there are 5,000 guards employed, and out of 5,000, almost 1,000 are women. Up until 2013, there were only 800, but the DMRC took an affirmative action to increase the number of female guards by 25 percent.</p> <p>⑥ The DMRC provides a 6 month-long (800 hours) training for their beginning employees who are candidates for supervisor positions and 3 to 4 month-long (500 hours) training for other beginning employees. Those training programs include one for gender sensitization.</p> <p>⑦ In terms of organizational/institutional gender mainstreaming by the DMRC, the DMRC has developed gender-related regulations, including equal employment opportunities and equal wages/salary of both their regular employees and laborers. The DMRC has provided dormitories for female employees, established the committee working on sexual harassment at workplace, and granted female employees maternal leave and childcare leave. In addition, the DMRC has supported female employees' cultural & sports activities outside of work and fielded trips a couple of times per year as incentives. In terms of services specific to female passengers and people with disabilities, the DMRC has set up a women only car in each metro and reserved several seats for women, people with disabilities, and elderly people in each car. It has also set up a couple of alarm buttons and a CCTV in each car of the metro as well as guards at each station.</p> <p>⑧ Not relevant to this project. However, in terms of women passengers' access to information on any risks, there are several information boards, at platforms, on how to report, how to take measures, etc. whenever they are at risk.</p> <p>⑨ Not relevant to this project.</p> <p>⑩ Not relevant to this project. However, in terms of an increase in women's movement, women passengers might have not needed to depend on men for moving around, compared to the time before the metro services were provided.</p>
Recommendations	<p>For future projects to support for the construction of a metro:</p> <p><u>Targeting women</u></p> <p>✓ Women in even urban areas sometimes have limited freedom of movement in the evening, in particular, due to traditional gender institutions and current prevalence of rapes. By targeting women, projects to support the construction of a metro will also need to ensure the security of women passengers in the metro, which can contribute to women's freedom of movement. Thus, it is important to target women in those projects.</p> <p>✓ However, those project tend to target only the women group who utilize the metro for community and schooling every day. Other women who do not take the metro every day, including poor and elderly people can be excluded. It is important for the executing agencies of those projects not to exclude the poor in particular.</p> <p><u>Collection of detailed data on passengers</u></p> <p>✓ The executing agencies of those projects should regularly collect the data disaggregated by not only sex, but SC/ST/OBC, occupation, educational level, with/without disabilities, etc. both during the week day and on the weekends. Based on the results of the data collection, the agencies should take measures to outreach the groups who do not/cannot afford to take the metro.</p> <p><u>Integration of Gender Needs</u></p> <p>✓ All but a few matters, such as the selection of stations' locations, which can be affected by economic factors, should be analyzed from a gender perspective (e.g. women's perception of fear/risks, gender needs, etc.) by hearing from women and men. Their voices should be reflected in the planning and operation of the metro services.</p> <p>✓ It is also important to respond to not only women's needs, but the needs of elderly people and people with disabilities.</p>

	<p><u>Taking measures to increase the number of female passengers</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ The most important/prioritized issue for women passengers is their security in the metro. Thus, the executing agencies should ensure their security by setting up a women only car (strengthening the unauthorized use of the car by men), alarm system, CCTV, information boards on how to reduce risks/report at platform/stations, etc. and employments of guards, including women guards. ✓ The agencies also need to identify risky spots of each station and strengthen checking around the spots, especially in early morning and late evening. <p><u>Promotion of organizational/institutional gender mainstreaming</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ In order to provide such gender-friendly services, the employees of the agencies have to have strong commitment to or awareness of gender equality. For this, the agencies are highly recommended to have gender-related strict regulations on equal employment opportunities, equal salary, equal opportunities for promotion, maternity and child care leave, etc. In the planning process, JICA also can advise the agencies to conduct gender sensitization training for their employees in the planning processes of those projects. ✓ Equal wages should be given for temporary female workers. Since most of laborers are the men who have migrated from other places by themselves, JICA also need to advise the agencies to conduct HIV/AIDS-related activities, especially prevention, at their expense.
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2) Himachal Pradesh (HP) Crop Diversification Promotion Project

Project Title	HP Crop Diversification Promotion Project (Technical Cooperation) Jan. 2011to Jan. 2016
Sector	Agriculture • Agricultural Development
Target Area	99 households in Hamirpur, Himachal Pradesh (HP) State
Implementing Agency	Department of Agriculture, HP State
Background	<p>HP State, located in mountainous areas in the northern part of India, has advantages in terms of climate conditions, varying from the temperate zone to sub-tropical zone HP, and accessibility to Delhi, the largest consumption region. Therefore, the state has a high potential for diversification of crops, production of more value-added agricultural products, especially vegetables, and the sales of them in Delhi. Although 70 percent of the total population in the state engage in agriculture, 80 percent of them are small size land holdings (less than 1.2 ha). Furthermore, as irrigated land accounts for only 18 percent of the total arable land, most farmers produce a single crop for self-consumption purpose, depending on rainfall. Irrigation and infrastructure are not sufficiently developed in HP State. The methods of farm management, land use, and agricultural development based on the characteristics of each area have not been identified or developed. Therefore, extension skill and services by the State Government are not sufficient. In 2009, based on findings from the development survey conducted by JICA, the State Government of HP requested JICA support for a technical cooperation project. The project is aimed at capacity development for agricultural extension workers and the development of the model to promote crop diversification through activities done in the pilot projects.</p>
Outline of the project	<p>Project purpose: Development of a system by the Department of Agriculture, HP State to promote the diversification of agricultural products in the project target areas (5 districts).</p>
	<p>Outputs:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) Improvement of planning and implementation capacity of the DOA 2) Development of the training system on crop diversification for extension workers 3) Improvement of extension skills of core extension workers 4) Establish a model to promote crop diversification through activities in pilot project areas.

	<p>Activities:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) to examine the contents of pilot projects to develop the model for crop diversification, to conduct training programs on PDCA (Plan-Do-Check-Action) in order to make a plan for crop diversification in the pilot project target areas, to make plans, and to make guidelines 2) to make a training plan for extension workers, develop the training curriculum, review training materials and develop new ones 3) to plan training programs for core extension workers and other extension workers in other areas 4) to conduct base-line surveys, construct necessary infrastructure and set up the agricultural field for display, form farmers' groups and women's groups, to provide extension services on crop diversification (farm management, cultivation, post-harvest treatment, marketing, infrastructure-construction and maintenance, etc.) to the groups formed,
Analysis from a gender perspective	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> ① Women farmers are also included as beneficiaries in this project. However, they are not necessarily targeted for the main activities of this project, such as water resource management and vegetable cultivation, but rather the self-help group (SHG) activities which are limited to women members. ② In his project, the JICA gender expert, local gender specialist, and local motivator aim at women's economic empowerment through SHG activities and the improvement of the recognition/evaluation of family members and community people for women farmers' role and contribution to their livelihoods. ③ SHG activities are included in the section of activities in the PDM(Project Design Matrix)of this project. Indicators to monitor the progress of the project also include women specific ones, and gender-disaggregated data is also collected. However, women's participation is rather confined to SHG activities, and are not proactively promoted to participate in other activities, such as water resource management and vegetable cultivation activities. There is no mention about women in those activities in the PDM. ④ The base-line survey was conducted soon after the project was launched. Gender analysis (decision making by men and women, daily activities by men and women, women's access to micro credits, the organizations men and women belong to, etc.) was only partially integrated into the survey. The information collected through the gender analysis is useful for SHG activities aimed at the improvement of women' s income through food processing and so on. In order for women farmers to participate in water resource management and vegetable cultivation, however, information on women's access to/control over productive assets, such as land, land with irrigation, animals, machines, etc., agricultural material, such as seeds and fertilizer, and extension services was needed to a greater extent. Based on such information, how to involve women in the decision-making processes of main activities, such as water resource management and vegetable cultivation, should be analyzed and reflected in implementation process for women's empowerment and transformation of unequal gender relations. ⑤ A female local motivator as well as a male gender specialist have been hired in order to promote women's participation in the project. Based on the technical support by the JICA gender expert and local gender specialist, the motivator has attempted to build trust relationships with women by taking time and contributed to the participation of women in SHG activities in particular. Due to sociocultural constraints, SHG activities seemed to be limited to women from the early stage of the project. Similarly, the quota system was applied not in the beginning, but in the middle of the implementation process, for the membership for the water resource management committee, indicating that more than 30 percent of the committee members are women. In the beginning of the project, when community people formed a farmers' association in the target area, members of the association were limited to the farmers who have land under their names. This led to the automatic exclusion of women from

	<p>becoming members of the association. The members of the project's water resource management committee were also determined based on the same criteria, and as a result, women were excluded from the committee. The JICA gender expert, local gender expert, motivators, and other staff members suggested that the committee members to include women as well, and 3 women members were newly selected for the committee (3 women and 8 men).</p> <p>⑥ In order for women to participate in SHG activities, their responsibilities for domestic work and child care needed to be assumed by other family members. In this project, gender sensitization workshops to raise the awareness of gender equality and convince men to support women's active participation in the project were not conducted at all. A few husbands did not allow their wives to go out of the community and participate in the fairs/exhibitions to sell the products they made through their SHG activities.</p> <p>⑦ Training programs on food processing and such for SHGs have been conducted at the community center nearby so that women can easily participate in the training. In addition, the project has provided training on how to make a business plan for women at a time convenient for them before or after they have a monthly meeting for saving and micro credit activities. The educational level of women in the target area is relatively high, and there seems to be no problem for them to understand the contents of training. Two SHGs formed through this project working on food processing and vegetable cultivation consist of members who do not live nearby, but in different villages. Thus, in their interviews, members of those groups said that they have difficulty in getting together for monthly meetings and other group activities. Furthermore, the groups do not necessarily consist of members who have similar background and the same interests. Some members participate in the SHG activities to interact with other women while others take part to improve their livelihoods. Thus, the merits of group activities are not clear. Through the group activities, the members can reduce their labor and time spent on the activities on the one hand, but on the other hand, they also have to divide their profits among themselves and individual profit can be very limited. For those women who look for improvement to their livelihoods from the SHG activities, it is better to do some sort of income generating activity by themselves rather than through SHGs. The SHG activities undertaken by this project are appropriate for those women in nuclear households who need to first take care of their responsibilities for domestic work and childcare, and do the SHG activities when they have extra time. However, what the project should more proactively do is to identify the women who have access to land with irrigation and are willing to do vegetable cultivation for improvement of their livelihoods. This is very important to make women more visible as farmers in the community.</p> <p>⑧ Throughout the project, resource persons were introduced to the members of the SHGs. As a result, the members were able to obtain access to information on productive materials necessary for their activities. For example, the members of the SHG engaged in the production of vegetable seedlings were linked with shopkeepers of seeds shops through the project. The target area is close to the market areas, so the SHGs can easily forge links with the market. Furthermore, the educational level of the members of the SHGs is relatively high, they can broaden a market by themselves to some extent.</p> <p>⑨ As described above, based on the technical support by the JICA gender expert, the local gender specialist and local motivator provide the training on how to write a business plan for the members of the SHGs and do follow-up activities. For improving bargain power and marketing as well, based on the advice given by the JICA experts and their counterparts, the members of the SHGs could broaden a market to some extent. However, women's activities are limited to SHG activities and their decision-making power and leadership have not been tried in other main activities of the project. Thus, the project should have been designed to train women's decision-making power and leadership together with men in the main activities of the project.</p>
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	<p>⑩ Most women do not participate in other activities than the SHG activities. Consequently, there seems to be no change in power relationships between men and women at the household and community levels in the target area. Although women play a main role in agriculture since most of men work in the non-agriculture sectors in the target area, they have not been recognized as farmers. Similarly, there seems to be no change in gender relations in terms of gender-based division of labor. However, through the SHG activities, women have definitely gained access to information, skills, and micro credits, and most importantly their self-confidence.</p>
Recommendations	<p>For future projects to support the construction and management of irrigation and agricultural projection:</p> <p><u>Specification of women farmers</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ If farming households are specified as the target group of future projects in the PDMs, only men farmers can be recognized as main actors and women farmers can be excluded. Thus, “men and women farmers” should be specified as the target group of the projects so that all stakeholders of the projects can recognize women as actors and beneficiaries. <p><u>Overall goal for women is not generating income, but empowerment</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ It is not good for project planners to consider that all income generating activities are for women. Instead, it is important for them to design the project through which women can gain their agency and become empowered through such activities. <p><u>Do not limit women’s activities to SHG activities</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ As described above, if the project restricts women to SHG activities instead of proactively involving them in the main activities of the projects, this can marginalize women. The project planners should avoid such negative impacts of the projects on women. ✓ What is important is not that women will be separated from men, but that women’s role will be recognized and evaluated more positively and their voice will be more seriously taken into account in accordance with the improvement of the existing unequal gender relations and gender-based division of labor through the projects. ✓ SHG activities can be utilized as the first step in which women can freely speak up. At the same time, however, they should be involved in main activities through which women need to learn to gain their bargaining power through interaction with men and more importantly men need to change their biased or negative attitude/behavior against women. <p><u>Efforts by local motivators</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ It is essential for the projects to recruit some local key human resources, such as local motivators or local mobilizers to raise awareness of the women who used to seldom go out and speak up in the public because they lacked self-confidence, or were oppressed by the strict gender institutions deeply embedded in society. They are supposed to raise their awareness and motivate those women to actively participate in the projects and empower them through project activities. ✓ If any special interventions are taken in the projects, no services, information, or resources can be distributed among women or SC/ST/OBC people due to the existing unequal social structure. Thus, JICA experts and counterparts should proactively spend some time to take measures to change the structure in the projects by encouraging women and other socially-disadvantaged groups of people to participate in the projects and convincing men to support their participation. <p><u>Gender sensitization</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Through gender sensitization workshops at the very early stage of the projects, it is important for the JICA experts and counterparts to raise the awareness of not only women, but men in terms of gender equality and women’s empowerment. Through the workshops, they should change the negative attitude/behavior of men against women and convince them to support women to actively participate in the projects’ activities by doing domestic work for the women.

	<p>✓ The projects should be designed to address the goal of the improvement of awareness and transformation of existing unequal gender relations, indicating that women can participate even in training programs outside the community, participate in the decision-making processes of agricultural production, and take on an important role in the water resource management of the irrigation facilities.</p> <p><u>Identification/clarification of the merits of SHGs</u></p> <p>✓ The formation and activities of SHGs are essential for developing women's collective power. However, the projects should not apply SHG approach just as a purpose of the projects if there is no merit, especially in the case that SHGs consist of members who do not live close by or members do not share the same interests or purposes for their SHG activities. If there is no merit, SHG activities might constrain women from doing other activities.</p> <p>✓ The project planners should be more flexible, taking the SHG approach as one of the approaches. They should first assess the positive aspects of SHG activities based on the background of the target areas and women living there, and think about the most appropriate approach, including the SHG approach.</p> <p><u>Linking women with the market and marketing strategies</u></p> <p>✓ The projects should not provide only skill development training for women. Rather, women need to be trained in a comprehensive way necessary for doing business (e.g. how to make a business plan, marketing, bargaining power, etc.)</p> <p>✓ The projects should cover not only the process of production, but the process of sales. Otherwise, they cannot achieve an improvement of women's income or women's economic empowerment.</p>
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3) Hogenakkal Water Supply and Fluorosis Mitigation Project

Project Title	Hogenakkal Water Supply and Fluorosis Mitigation Project (Yen Loan Project) L/A in March 2009
Sector	Water Supply
Target Area	Krishnagiri and Dharmapuri Districts in Tamil Nadu State
Executing Agency	TWAD: Tamil Nadu Water Supply and Drainage Board
Background	<p>Due to rapid economic and population growth, demands for water resources have also increased by a large margin. However, the water supply has not caught up with the demands, and a shortage of drinking water has become more and more serious. Furthermore, based on geographical problems, the ground water pumped up from deep underground tends to be contaminated by fluorine and arsenic. In Tamil Nadu State located in the southern part of India, the problem of fluorine contamination in the ground water and its depletion has been prevalent over the state and become chronic. In the 11th Five Year Plan (April 2007 to March 2012), the Government of India put emphasis on the provision of water supply and drainage services to the urban population by 2011/12. In addition, in the Common Minimum Program developed in 2004/05, the Government also prioritized the expansion of public investment in the water supply systems, the supply of drinking water to all people in urban and rural areas, and the expansion of the sources of drinking water.</p>
Outline of the Project	<p>Purposes:</p> <p>Out of all districts in Tamil Nadu States, Krishnagiri and Dharmapuri Districts have faced the most serious problems of fluorine contamination and depletion of ground water. Thus, this project is aimed at safe and stable water supply for rapidly increasing demands through establishing new water supply and drainage systems and taking measures to eliminate fluorine contamination. Based on the provision of the services, the project also attempts to contribute to the improvement of living conditions of people living in the target areas.</p> <p>Activities</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) construction of water supply system (water pipes, drainage, pump stations, etc.) 2) anti-fluorine measures (basic survey, training for doctors, teachers, etc., advice on food intake, advocacy activities, etc.)

	<p>3) capacity development of the Panchayats (training on how to collect fare from people and manage the fund, how to maintain the water supply system's facilities at the village level, how to strengthen the functions of training institutions, etc.)</p> <p>4) provision of consulting services (executing management, skill improvement for taking measures against water leaks, etc.)</p> <p>Promotion of poverty reduction: Poverty headcount rate in the target areas is around 36.7 percent, which is higher than the average rate of India. This project is expected to contribute to poverty reduction through the improvement of living conditions.</p> <p>Promotion of social development (gender, anti-HIV/AIDS, participatory development, people with disabilities, etc.): It is necessary to involve people, including women, in activities relevant to making a drainage plan, capacity development for Village Water Supply and Sanitation Committees (VWSCs), management and maintenance for water supply systems, and advocacy activities, etc. from the planning process of the project</p>
Analysis for a gender perspective	<p>① Women are also included in the target groups of this project. However, this project does not pay special attention to women in spite of the fact that women are mainly the ones who fetch water. On the other hand, women, especially leaders of existing SHGs in the target areas, are included as main actors to play a role in conducting simple water quality tests and disseminating information on sanitation at the community level.</p> <p>② While their role in sanitation is kind of stereotypical and gender-biased, the one in the water quality tests are rather new and can lead to their further presence and leadership. However, as the main purpose of this project is the improvement of the living environment of people in the target areas and reduction of factors detrimental to their health, the project is not aimed at the empowerment of women at all.</p> <p>③ Indicators are developed on a household basis, not individual basis.</p> <p>④ Gender analysis on gender roles, especially gender division of labor for fetching water, was not conducted. However, the target areas are rather flat areas where women do not need to go far away fetching water. During the dry season, each Panchayat purchases the drinking water of a tank car at its own expense and provides it for people living in the Panchayat⁹¹ for free. If gender analysis had been conducted and information on the time women and other family members spent for getting in a line and fetching water several times had been collected, it would have been very important data/information to assess the impact of the project in the future. Gender analysis should have been done since women are the main fetchers and their needs for water supply and maintenance should have been reflected in the planning process of the project.</p> <p>⑤ By 2013, two years after the project was launched in 2011, the water supply systems were completed in most of the target areas. However, VWSCs had not been formed in the targeted Panchayats under the project's initiatives. Some Panchayats newly formed committees or let the members of Panchayats work on the management and maintenance of the water supply systems developed. As people are well aware of the quota system for the inclusion of a certain percentage of women and SC/ST members in the committee, the newly developed committees include some women and SC/ST members. One of the main reasons that the VWSCs were not formed as of December 2014 was that</p>

⁹¹ The Panchayat System is a South Asian political system mainly in India, Pakistan, Bangladesh, and Nepal. The word 'panchayat' literally means 'assembly' (*ayat*) of five (*panch*) wise and respected elders chosen and accepted by the local community. Traditionally, these assemblies settled disputes between individuals and villages. Upon the 73rd amendment to the Constitution, the Government of India has decentralized several administrative functions to the local level, empowering elected gram panchayats. Currently, the Panchayat System consists of three levels, including district, middle, and village levels, and members of each Panchayat are elected every five years. There is a quota system stipulating that at least a third of the total number of members should be women and that SC and ST members should be selected in accordance with the ratio of those groups of people to the total population.

	<p>the Communication and Community Development Unit under the project was established only in March 2014, which was more than one year after the water supply systems were developed in most of the target areas. Therefore, the CCDU has just hired consultants who were supposed to conduct needs assessments for training, develop training materials, and so on for the VWSCs, but has not hired local NGOs. The local NGOs are supposed to conduct training programs on how to collect fare from people for the members of the VWSCs. According to the operational guidelines for the project, the quota system that at least a third of the members of the VWSCs should be women is applied to this project. As mentioned above, the guidelines highly recommend selecting leaders of existing SHGs for members of the VWSCs. However, if staff members of the local NGO that will be hired as local mobilizers are not well aware of gender issues, they might undervalue or ignore the importance of involvement of women in the committees.</p> <p>⑥ In most of the panchayats in Krishnagiri and Dharmapuri districts where the writer of this report visited for interviews, women represented chairpersons of their Panchayats based on the requirement given by the District Governments. In the Panchayats where the percentage of SC/ST groups of people is high, women from SC groups took the position of chairpersons. Those female chairpersons from SC groups tended to be active and take leadership. On the other hand, female chairpersons in the Panchayats which do not have so many SC/ST groups of people were just selected on the basis of the requirement by the District Government, and the de facto role was taken by their husbands. Those women were chair persons in name only, and often did not participate in the decision-making processes as main actors. In forming the VWSCs, it is necessary to conduct gender sensitization workshops so that community people understand the role played by female and SC/ST members of the VWSc</p> <p>⑦ There are poor households in the target areas of this project. Landless people, including women, make a living through the daily wages doing agricultural work. Therefore, training programs should be conducted avoiding the agricultural busy seasons.</p> <p>⑧ For the maintenance of the water supply systems, each Panchayat hires operators on the regular and temporary basis. The operators who are usually men and male members of the management and maintenance committees developed at the community level tend to know and make contact with resource persons, such as the supervisors and assistant engineers of the project, whenever they face any technical problems. On the other hand, female members of the committee tend not to know or have contact information for resource persons and seem to have no way to solve technical problems. Therefore, it is very important for the project to give women members a real role rather than putting them in the committees for nothing.</p> <p>⑨ The operational guidelines for the projects states that women, especially leaders of existing SHGs, should be involved in VWSCs. Based on this, those women who can speak up and take leadership to some extent could be selected as members of the VWSCs. However, many SHGs consist of women members only, and they tend not to be used to interact with men and negotiate with them. They can be oppressed and discouraged from speaking up and participating in decision-making processes by men, especially male authority in the target areas. On critical matters, such as fare collection and so on, which can be strongly opposed by people, women members need to have the self-confidence to properly convince those people. Thus, it is necessary to train women members' in bargaining/negotiation power for such occasions.</p> <p>⑩ It is very important to increase the presence of women and improve the recognition/values of women's role by their playing not only a traditional role in advocating for sanitation, but a new role in doing water quality tests at the community level.</p>
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Recommendations	<p>For future water supply projects:</p> <p><u>Targeting more female-headed households</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ In water supply projects in India, SC/ST households are well targeted and benefitted, taking advantage of the quota system. However, no attention is paid to female-headed households in this sector at all. Since they are more socioeconomically disadvantaged and vulnerable, they should be recognized as one of main target groups. <p><u>Gender analysis</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ In India, fetching water is often regarded as women's and girls' work. In the plains, fetching water is not such heavy work as it is in mountain areas. However, it is very important to compare the time spent for fetching water per day and during dry seasons in particular between before and after the project is launched in order to assess the impact of the project on women. Furthermore, how women utilized the time saved by the new development of water supply systems should be evaluated by the end of the project. For those purposes, base-line surveys, including gender analysis on gender-based division of labor and the time spent for fetching water, should be conducted in the planning process of future projects. ✓ If women take responsibility for fetching water in the target areas of future projects, the problems faced by women and their needs will also have to be surveyed, and findings from the survey should be reflected in the planning process of the projects. <p><u>Women's' participation in the VWSCs and their role in the maintenance of water supply systems</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ The involvement of women in the decision-making process of the water-supply issues must be made more effective and efficient, since they play a main role in fetching water. Women's needs should also be integrated in the planning processes of the projects. ✓ Thus, women should not be involved as nominal members. Rather, women who have strong commitment to the management and maintenance of the water supply systems should be identified, encouraged to participate, and trained as leaders. ✓ Similarly, SC/ST people also need to be involve in the projects, especially decision-making processes, by applying the quota system. ✓ Project planners should consider giving women not only a traditional role in advocacy for sanitation, but a new role in water quality tests so that women can be more visible and their contribution to community activities are properly evaluated. <p><u>Hiring local NGOs with strong commitment to women's empowerment and gender equality</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ It is essential to hire local NGOs in order to promote the active participation of women and SC/ST people in the projects. The NGOs hired should have a thorough understanding of the unequal gender relations embedded in society and have sufficient experience in participatory community development with socially disadvantage people, especially women from SC and ST. ✓ In rural India, people strongly think that the Government of India should provide free water supply service. They do not imagine that they should bear the cost of management and maintenance for the system. Therefore, the NGOs hired will need to listen to people's ideas on the one hand, but on the other hand, they will need to raise the awareness of people for cost-sharing and encourage them to take ownership. <p><u>Skill development and leadership training for women</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ The maintenance of the water supply system is usually regarded as men's work, but women should be also trained in basic maintenance skills and knowledge ✓ In addition, women as well as SC/ST groups of people should also have access to information on resource persons through the projects.
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4) Tamil Nadu Afforestation Project Phase 2

Project Title	Tamil Nadu Afforestation Project Phase 2 (Yen Loan Project) L/A in March 2005
Sector	Forest Preservation
Target Areas	Tamil Nadu State
Executing Agency	Department of Forestry, the State Government of Tamil Nadu
Outline of the Project	<p>In rural India, indigenous tribal groups of people and other poor people depend exclusively on forest resources for firewood and as a source of cash income for their livelihoods. Growing population and animals led to unregulated grazing, which resulted in serious degradation of forests. Similarly, the growing economy resulted in commercial logging and deforestation. In phase one of the project started from 1995, the area of around 430 thousands ha was afforested by local people and the Department of Forestry, the State Government of Tamil Nadu under Joint Forest Management (JFM). In addition, institutional capacity of the department in terms of forest management skills with GIS was improved. Various interventions were done for introducing alternative ways/sources for generating income rather than forest resources. In detail, in the first phase of the project, some infrastructure was constructed in each of the target areas as well as income generating activities by SHGs were supported. In the second phase of this project, the area of 180 thousands ha is supposed to be afforested and well managed through the JFM.</p>
Outline of the Project	<p>Project purpose: The project is aimed at the reforestation of the degraded/deforested forests through participatory approach and improvement of local people's livelihoods.</p> <p>Activities: 1) afforestation (by JFM and agro-forestry) 2) income generating activities 3) capacity development for forest management (monitoring & evaluation, training, expansion of GIS system, construction of forestry skill extension centers, construction of infrastructure for local officers)</p> <p>Promotion of poverty reduction: Through this project, employment opportunities are expected to be increased and income of poor households, including SC/ST, to be improved.</p> <p>Promotion of social development (gender, anti-HIV/AIDS, participatory development, people with disabilities, etc.) Under this project, target groups of people are supposed to form Village Forest Committees (VFCs) and attempt to afforest and manage forests through the VFM in which members of the VFCs and other local people actively participate in the planning and implementation processes of afforestation. By involving one man and one woman from each household, the project takes into consideration a gender perspective. Furthermore, SHGs are formed and SHG members engage in income generating activities, including the sales of milk.</p>
Analysis from a gender perspective	<p>① Women and SC/ST people were targeted by this project. More importantly, they were not involved in only income generating activities, but also in the main activity of afforestation through VFCs (one man and one woman from each household) in this project. Therefore, women were regarded rather as main actors in this project.</p> <p>② Women's economic empowerment through income generating activities was aimed at in the project. However, political empowerment through their active and collective participation in decision-making processes of afforestation activities were not aimed at in the project.</p> <p>③ The information and data was disaggregated by not only sex, but also SC/ST/OBC, and other socioeconomic factors for the number and composition of VFC members, SHG members, employees for nurseries run by the Department of Forestry.</p> <p>④ Base-line surveys and PRA were conducted. Through these, women's actual economic situation and needs for livelihood improvement, daily time schedule, etc. were identified, based on which their income generating activities were planned and implemented.</p>

- ⑤ In order to motivate local women, the local NGOs which had long experience working at the grassroots level around the target areas were hired. They took responsibilities for the formation of SHGs, provision of training programs, and implementation of income generating activities. More opportunities for participating in SHG activities were given to women. As mentioned above, some quota systems were applied in the project so that women could participate in the decision-making processes of the project. For example, one man and one woman from each household should be involved in VFCs and at least a third of the total number of members for Executive Committees for the VFCs should be women. Through the quota system for the VFCs, women had opportunities to participate in community activities (afforestation) and access to information, which was a great output of the project. However, the right of voting in decision-making processes of the VFCs was not given to all members, but it was limited to only one person per household. Automatically, this ended up granting men the right and preventing women from participating in decision-making processes. The right of voting should have given to all members of the VFCs.
- ⑥ Many women actively participated in SHG activities in this project. However, no interventions, including gender sensitization workshops, were conducted to raise the awareness of women's empowerment and gender equality and convince men to support women by helping women doing domestic work so that women could easily attend SHG, VFC, and EC activities, especially training programs. In their interviews, some women members of the ECs described that they did not attend a 2-3 day-long study tour to advanced areas because they could not leave their children at home and stay overnight outside home. Such a study tour could have been a good opportunity for them to be inspired by other people in other areas, get information and knowledge, and learn from such experienced people. Thus, the project's staff members should have explained to them about the purpose and importance of the tour and encouraged them to attend. At the same time, such study tour should have been designed on the basis of women's convenience. The participation of women in income generating activities was aimed at in the project, but not their empowerment through participation in decision-making processes. There was the case that female members of the EC were not actual, but mere token members due to the quota system. Therefore, in making a decision on a critical issue, if women's ideas were different from men's ideas, women acquiesced and accepted men's ideas. Through the interviews with the women who participated in income generating activities, some women said that they gave the money they earned to their husbands and in-laws based on the patriarchal custom. Women's income generating activities did not necessarily lead to their empowerment.
- ⑦ Training sessions for SHG members were usually planned and conducted at times convenient for women and inside the community. However, as to training programs or study tours for more than one day for which participants needed to stay overnight outside home, few women in the Executive Committees participated in the training programs.
- ⑧ For support for income generating activities, the project was not limited to skill development training, but it attempted to link women to the market and give them concrete ways by which they could earn income. For this purpose, the project limited its target areas to the areas located nearby or accessible to the market. However, while women were linked to the market and got jobs on piecework basis, some of them suffered from health damage due to chemical raw materials. Furthermore, many women faced the problem of high cost for milk production and little profit from selling milk. Some of the women interviewed replied that although they want to purchase an additional cow to make more profit, they cannot afford to do so. Through this project, women could have cash income on the one hand, but on the other hand, they had never learned how to cut the cost and how to make future investment for further profits. As of December 2014 which is 10 years after the project was launched, women could not afford to save or invest.

	<p>⑨ In this project, training programs were conducted exclusively on skill development. But no training on how to develop business skill was conducted. Furthermore, no training on bargaining power and leadership was conducted. As a result, women did not seem to be collectively or politically empowered.</p> <p>⑩ In spite of various problems, women gained self-confidence through earning their own income. In some target areas, SHGs were recognized as social groups and their members were invited for not only VFM activities, but other community activities as well. The project brought about a kind of social transformation. However, it did not reach the point to change the existing gender role and unequal gender relations.</p>
Recommendations	<p>For future forestry projects:</p> <p><u>Targeting women for not only SHG activities, but also VFM activities</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ The percentage of people who depend on forest resources for fuel in India has decreased, and the relationship of women with forests is limited to fruits, herbs, and fodders. ✓ However, forests are a common resource to which community people have equal access (property rights belong to the Government), and they have a responsibility for the management of forests. For the responsibility they take, they also have rights to benefit from forest resources. ✓ In future forestry projects, women should not benefit from the projects by being hired as laborers for nurseries, which is a passive way. Women should be involved in the projects as main actors who take an important role in making decisions in the projects. <p><u>Promotion of women's participation in VFCs, especially in decision-making processes</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ It will not be sufficient to merely ensure the participation of women in the projects. But, the projects should apply the quota system for the members of all decision-making bodies and make sure that they are involved in the decision making processes of the projects. If one man and one woman from each household are invited to participate in any forestry management committees, both of them should be given the right of voting or making decisions in the projects. <p><u>Gender analysis</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ In the very beginning of the project or planning process of the project, base-line surveys, PRA, and gender analysis should be conducted. The gender analysis should include men's and women's access to/control over resources, gender role, men's and women's daily schedules, power relations between the sexes over decision-making, possible women's constraints from participating in forest management activities and income generating activities, possible measures to combat against the constraints, etc. Based on the analysis, the projects should be designed and implemented in order to address not only women's income generating activities, but their empowerment through project activities. <p><u>Hiring the local NGOs committed to women's empowerment and gender equality</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ It is essential to hire the local NGOs which are good at spending time motivating women to participate in the projects. ✓ However, the projects should not hire the NGOs which are satisfied only with the implementation of income generating activities, but moving forward to the empowerment of women as their eventual goal. <p><u>Gender sensitization</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ For income generating activities, JICA experts and their counterparts should not target women only, but approach men and convince them to support women to actively participate in the activities by helping women doing domestic work and taking care of children. Such gender sensitization activities should be done from the very beginning of the projects. ✓ Since women can play an important role in any forest management activities, the JICA experts and their counterparts will need to raise the awareness of men and women in terms of women's responsibility and capability for forest management

	<p><u>Strategic Gender Needs</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Training programs in the projects should not focus simply on skill development, but rather development of a business mind, especially how to increase profits/cash income, how to effectively utilize them for the future, etc. Similarly, women should develop their business skills, marketing, bargaining power, leadership, etc. ✓ Women also need to learn how to speak up, make decisions, and represent themselves with self-confidence. Throughout the projects, some active women should be trained as leaders who can lead even men.
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