

Rising Status of Women in India in the 20th Century

D. Pulla Rao

Abstract

Man and woman came into existence together on the planet earth, either by creation or by evolution and hence they had started living together, growing together and dying together. However, they are not enjoying their life together equally. Most of the time, men folk, all over the world, are enjoying the sweet part of the life leaving the bitter part to women. Women are being purposefully and forcibly denied equal share of both material and nonmaterial requirements for a happy life. The constitution of India had included special provisions to women to ensure gender equity in all walks of life. In India, discrimination on the basis of sex often starts at the earliest stages of life. The total literacy rate in 2001 was 65.38 per cent, for males it was 75.85 per cent and for females it was 54.16 per cent. In the case of WFPR by sex, it had been much higher for males as compared to females. Still women's representation in Lok Sabha and Rajya Sabha is very low. Special measures are needed to accelerate the process of political participation of women. Certain endeavours should be made in this direction to create proper environment to empower women and to enhance their capacity.

Keywords: Women; Sex Ratio; Literacy; Enrollment; Mortality Rate; Work Force; Political Participation.

Introduction

Women community though equal to men in population, is subject to a lot of deprivations even in this modern sophisticated world. Women are still treated as the second rated citizen or subordinate to men in all major fields of life i.e., social, economic and political. Though various efforts are being made to improve the status of women, women folk could not make maximum use of them and hence remained backward. In almost all countries, the Governments are providing special provisions for women's development and efforts are being made to extract maximum use of women's talent. It has been clear for decades that women in many parts of the world make key contributions in areas of development such as agriculture, health, education, water resources management etc.

Author's Affiliation: Professor of Economics, Flat No: 101, Vinayagar West Avenue, C.B.M. Compound, Visakhapatnam-530 003 Andhra Pradesh India.

Reprint's Request: D. Pulla Rao, Professor of Economics, Flat No: 101, Vinayagar West Avenue, C.B.M. Compound, Visakhapatnam-530 003 Andhra Pradesh India.
E-mail: pullaraod_2003@yahoo.co.in

In India, the shift from "welfare" to "development" of women took place in the Sixth Five Year Plan (1980-85). The Eighth Five-Year Plan (1992-97) promised to ensure that the benefits of development from different sectors do not bypass women. The Rashtriya Mahila Kosh was set up in 1993 to meet the credit needs of the poor and the asset less women. The Ninth Five-Year Plan (1997-2002) made two significant changes in the strategy of planning for women. Firstly, "empowerment of women" became a primary objective and secondly, the plan attempted "convergence of existing services" available in both women-specific and women related sectors. The Tenth Five-Year Plan (2002-2007) has made a major commitment towards "empowering women as the agent of socio-economic change and development". Based on the recommendation of National Policy for Empowerment of Women, the Tenth Five-Year Plan suggests a three-fold strategy for empowering women, through social empowerment, economic empowerment and gender justice.

Demographic Dimensions

(i). Sex Ratio

Sex ratio is defined as number of females per 1000 males. Sex ratio is a useful indicator to understand women's health and position in any society. India has distinction along with China and few other South Asian countries having a deficit of females for a long period. This is largely interpreted as the symptom of low status of women and discrimination of females existing in the country. Unusually high mortality Indian women faced relative to males until recently confirmed this fact. The female mortality registered significantly high rates than males at the younger ages, through it reverted recently.

Ashish Bose (2001) and Agnihotri (2001) stated that census has given a shocking aspect, namely a sharp decline in the female - male ratio in several states. They further stated that migration cannot explain this phenomenon, which must be the consequence of female foeticide on a massive scale, if not female infanticide and higher female child mortality rates. Sex ratio is a useful indicator to understand women's health and position in any society. India has distinction along with China and

few other South Asian countries having a deficit of females for a long period. This is largely interpreted as the symptom of low status of women and discrimination of females existing in the country. Unusually high mortality Indian women faced relative to males until recently confirmed this fact. The female mortality registered significantly high rates than males at the younger ages, though it reverted recently. This is revealed through a study of the sex ratios existing in our country from 1901 onwards. Strangely enough, in spite of the advances in medical sciences, the drop in death rate from 42.6 per cent in 1901 - 1911 to 8.4 per cent in 2001, the tremendous advances made in eradication of malaria and control of infectious diseases like tuberculosis, as well as, an increase in life expectancy for women from 23.3 years in 1901 - 1910 to 64.2 in 1996 - 2001, the sex ratios of our population continue to be adverse for women. In 1901, the sex ratio was 972 females per 1000 men. This ratio has been continuously declining from 1901 onwards except in 1951, 1981 and 2001. It is 933 in 2001 (Table 1).

Table 1: Population and Sex Ratios in India: 1901-2001

Census year	Total population (in millions)	Sex ratios (females per 1,000 males)
1901	238.10	972
1911	252.09	964
1921	252.32	955
1931	278.98	950
1941	318.66	945
1951	361.09	946
1961	439.24	941
1971	548.16	930
1981	685.18	933
1991	844.33	927
2001	1027.02	933

Source: Census of India, 2001.

Juvenile (0 - 6 age group) Sex Ratio

The age distribution of population in the Indian census follows five yearly groupings like 0 - 4, 5-9, 10-14 and so on. In 1991, it was decided to calculate literacy rates for the population seven years and over. Therefore, a new category of 0-6 age group was introduced in the primary census abstract, and literacy data for the age group seven and above were sorted out. Besides 0-6 age group was convenient to study

the import of the Integrated Child Development Services etc. In keeping with this practice, the 2001 census tables give data on literacy after excluding 0-6 age groups. In this process separate figures are available for the sex composition of the 0-6 age group.

Table 2 shows a sharp decline in the sex ratio of the under 0-6-age population in the last 40 years, i.e., 976 in 1961, 964 in 1971, 962 in 1981, 945 in 1991 and 927 in 2001, a decline of 18 points in this last decade.

Table 2: Sex Ratio In 0-6 Age Group: 1961-2001

Year	Sex ratio in 0-6 age group	Variation
1961	976	--
1971	964	-12
1981	962	-2
1991	945	-17
2001	927	-18

Source: Census of India, 2001.

Literacy Dimensions

Female Literacy Rate

The most important characteristic of population is literacy, which is a pre-requisite for the overall development of the country both socially and economically. Female literacy is considered to be a more sensitive index of social development compared to overall literacy rates. Female literacy is negatively related with fertility rates, population growth rates, infant and child mortality rates, and shows a positive association with female age at marriage, life expectancy and participation in modern sectors of the economy. In spite of all the special constitutional

provisions and governmental efforts, in the field of education, the disparities between males and females are still large. The gap between the literacy rates of males and females has been presented since 1901 when the female literacy rate was only 0.60 per cent as against 9.83 per cent among males. The disparity index (ratio of male literacy rate to female literacy rate) in 1901 was 16.4. On the eve of the initiation of planned economic development in 1951 the literacy rate of women was 7.93 per cent. And women education received a phenomenal jerk from 1961. One can notice a double-digit growth rate in that year and it continued to grow at an increasing rate thereafter and even surpassed the cutoff level of 50:50 by the year 2001 (Table 3).

Table 3: Sex Differences In Literacy Rates In India: (1901 To 2001)

Year	Male literacy rates	Female literacy rates	Disparity index
1901	9.83	0.60	16.4
1911	10.56	1.05	10.1
1921	12.21	1.81	7.6
1931	15.59	2.93	5.3
1941	24.90	7.30	3.4
1951	24.95	7.93	3.1
1961	34.44	12.95	2.6
1971	39.45	18.69	2.1
1981	56.50	29.85	1.9
1991	64.13	39.29	1.6
2001	75.85	54.16	1.4

Source: Census Report, 2001.

Female Enrollment at Various Levels of Education

After Independence, the government of India has designed several strategies for promotion of girls / women education. Separate institutions for girls / women education were opened. Special incentives to attract the girls / women into the academic institutions were introduced. As a result, the female literacy rate has gone up from 7.93 per cent in 1951 to 54.16 per cent by 2001. In the field of higher education also the share of females enrollment into various faculties has increased very substantially. The increase in women enrollment in the educational institutions has its impact on the women employment in educational institutions.

Let us now examine the progress of females' enrollment in primary, upper primary, secondary / high secondary and higher education stages. As shown in Table - 4 in 1950-51, the enrollment of girls was 28.1 per cent at primary school stage, 16.1 per cent at the upper primary stage, 13.3 per cent at secondary / higher secondary level and 10.0 per cent in higher education level compared with the corresponding percentage of 71.9, 83.9, 86.7 and 90.0 per cent among boys / men.

By 2000-01, the situation has considerably improved at all levels, in favour of females to 43.7 per cent at primary level, 40.9 per cent at upper primary level, 38.6 per cent in at secondary / higher secondary level and 36.9 per cent in higher education as against 56.3 per cent in primary stage, 59.1 per cent in upper primary stage, 61.4 per cent in secondary / higher secondary level and 63.1 per cent in higher education stage among boys / men.

Career counseling is being actively promoted to ensure that the skills acquired by girls and they appropriately utilize women. These positive initiatives have helped in improving the participation of girls / women at all levels of education especially in higher education since the post-independent period. It is evident that the enrollment of girls / women has increased at a faster rate than that of boys at primary, upper primary, secondary / higher secondary and higher education stage. The foregoing analysis shows that during the whole period of five decades after implementation of our constitution, the growth rate of enrollment of girls / women in all stages of education has been higher than that of boys / men.

Table 4: Percentage of Females' Enrollment of the Total Enrollment by Stages

Year	Primary I-V	Upper Primary VI-VIII	Secondary Hr. Secondary 10+2/Intermediate	Higher Education (Degree and above)
1	2	3	4	5
1950-51	28.1	16.1	13.3	10.0
1955-56	30.5	20.8	15.4	14.6
1960-61	32.6	23.9	20.5	16.0
1965-66	36.2	26.7	22.0	20.4
1970-71	37.4	29.3	25.0	20.0
1975-76	38.1	31.3	26.9	23.2
1980-81	38.6	32.9	29.6	26.7
1985-86	40.3	35.6	30.3	33.0
1990-91	41.5	36.7	32.9	33.3
1995-96	43.1	39.5	36.1	37.2
2000-2001	43.7	40.9	38.6	36.9

Source: Selected Educational Statistics 2000-2001.

Mortality Rates

Infant Mortality

Infant mortality rate reflects a country's level of socio-economic development and quality of life and is used for monitoring and evaluating population and health programmes and policies.

The main reasons for decrease of sex ratio of the child population in India are:

1. Neglect of the girl child resulting in their higher mortality at younger ages.
2. Sex selective female abortion.
3. Female infanticide, and
4. Change in sex ratio at birth.

There is no doubt that increasing use of pre-natal sex determination tests and female foeticide must have contributed significantly to the significant decline in the sex ratio in the last two decades.

The infant mortality rate (IMR) for the world in 1990 was 73 per thousand live births, only 16 in the more developed nations, and as high as 81 in the developing nations. The IMR in Asia in 1990 was 74 per thousand. As per the report from publication reference bureau, Washington, USA, 2001, the estimated infant mortality rate for the world for the year 2001 was 56 per thousand live births, only 8 in the more developed nations, and as high as 61 per thousand in the developing nations. The estimated IMR in Asia for the year 2001 was 55 per thousand live births.

Once the child is born, the infant mortality rate in the first year of life is often adverse as far as female children are concerned. We have data available through the Sample Registration System (SRS) conducted by the Registrar General of Census from the year 1972 onwards. The total infant mortality

rate in 1972 was 139; it was 132 (for males) and 148 (for females) per thousand live births (Table-5). The adversarial relationship of female IMR with male IMR continued right up to 1987. Since then, after the introduction of the Universal Immunization Programme at the end of 1985, the gap between male and female mortality rates narrowed down and from 1988 onwards, except for 1990, the female IMR has been lower than the male IMR. It may also be noted that females in urban areas have generally had lower IMR than their counterparts in rural areas. Ultimately, the total infant mortality rate in 2001 was 66, for males it was 64 and for females it was 68 per thousand births. The female IMR is higher than the male IMR in total, rural and urban areas also in 2001. Although the significant drop in IMR is largely due to the grand success of the Expanded Programme of Immunization started in 1978 and the universal immunization launched in 1985, which has succeeded in getting more than 85 per cent children, immunized.

Maternal Mortality

World Health Organization (WHO) defines maternal death as the death of a woman while pregnant or within 42 days of the termination of pregnancy, from any cause related to or aggravated by the pregnancy or its management but not from accidental or incidental causes. Every minute of every day, at least one woman dies from causes related to pregnancy, childbirth and abortion. There are about 6,00,000 of these deaths each year and 99 per cent of them occur in developing countries. The maternal mortality ratio is the number of women's deaths from causes related to pregnancy and childbirth per 1,00,000 live births. The level of maternal mortality varies more than any other health indicator that researchers use to compare levels of development. Even the best estimates of maternal mortality do not capture all

Table 5: Infant Mortality Rates By Sex And Residence In India

Year	Rural			Urban			Total		
	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons
1972	141	161	150	85	85	85	132	148	139
1973	141	144	143	88	90	89	132	135	134
1976	133	146	139	78	82	80	124	134	129
1977	136	146	140	80	82	81	126	135	130
1978	132	143	137	74	75	74	123	131	127
1979	129	131	130	73	71	72	119	121	120
1980	123	125	124	65	65	65	113	115	114
1981	119	119	119	63	62	62	110	111	110
1982	114	114	114	70	60	65	106	104	105
1983	113	114	114	69	63	66	105	105	105
1984	113	114	113	68	64	66	104	104	104
1985	106	107	107	56	62	59	96	98	97
1986	104	106	96	64	60	62	96	97	96
1987	103	106	104	63	57	61	95	96	95
1988	103	102	102	65	59	62	96	94	94
1989	100	98	91	100	98	58	92	90	91
1990	54	88	86	50	49	50	78	81	80
1991	87	87	87	53	52	53	81	80	80
1992	84	86	85	54	52	53	79	80	79
1993	81	84	82	47	44	45	73	75	74
1994	NA	NA	80	NA	NA	52	75	73	74
1995	NA	NA	80	NA	NA	NA	49	NA	74
1998	NA	NA	77	NA	NA	45	69.8	73.5	72
2001	70	74	72	41	44	42	64	68	66

Source: Sample Registration System, Registrar general and Commissioner, Census Operations, Government of India, New Delhi for various years.

deaths related to pregnancy. There is strong evidence that official statistics seriously underestimate maternal mortality even in developed countries.

The maternal mortality ranges from less than five in some European countries to over 1000 in some of the world's poorest countries. The maternal mortality ratio in developing countries may be as much as 50

times higher than that found in developed countries.

Maternal Mortality Rates in India

The decadal census data does not give any indication of maternal mortality rates (MMR) but Sample Registration Survey (SRS) rates are available

Table 6: Maternal mortality rates, 1992, 1997

State	Per 100,000 live births	
	MMR 1992	MMR 1997*
India	500	408
Andhra Pradesh	100	154
Assam	1,210	401
Bihar	1,490	451
Gujarat	810	29
Haryana	320	105
Himachal Pradesh	580	--
Karnataka	400	195
Kerala	130	195
Madhya Pradesh	1,370	498
Maharashtra	180	135
Orissa	1,110	361
Punjab	200	196
Rajasthan	640	677
Tamil Nadu	230	76
Uttar Pradesh	1,120	707
West Bengal	780	264

Note: *Annual Report, Ministry of Health and Family Welfare, Government of India, New Delhi, 1999-2000. Sources: Col.1. Occasional paper No.1, 1994, Census of India, Registrar General and Commissioner, Census Operations, Government of India, New Delhi. Col.2 based on Sample Registration System estimates Registrar General and Commissioner, Census Operations, Government of India, New Delhi.

and also some data from the Registrar General of India Census Office indicates maternal mortality rates state-wise (Table 6). The national data seems to reveal a maternal mortality rate of 408 per 1,00,000 births. The state-wise data is available for 1992 and 1997.

There are wide inter-state variations in mortality rates as seen from Table 3. States with low female status in health and education and large percentage of tribal population like Assam, Bihar, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa and Uttar Pradesh have the highest maternal mortality rates. Some states have shown dramatic decreases in these rates, like Bihar, Assam, Madhya Pradesh in the four-year period 1992-97.

Economic Dimensions

Work Force Participation Rate (WFPR) In India

The Work Force Participation Rate (WFPR), also called Labour Force Participation Rate (LFPR) is the percentage of working population to total population of a country. It is an important factor which affects production, saving and capital formation. It helps in analysing the occupational structure of a country and thus its level of employment. WFPR depends up on the age and sex structure of the population, age of marriage, average size of family, education, health, attitude to work, availability of work, etc. The work force participation rates in India for the Census years 1901 to 2001 are shown in Table 7. WFPR in the pre-independence period from 1901-31 was higher than in the post-independence period from 1951-91, except for the Census year 1961. The reason being the use of

different definition of the 'work force' in the censuses. In the pre-independence census, main workers were lumped with unpaid family workers. But in the 1951 Census, unpaid family workers were excluded from the main workers. That is why the WFPR in 1951 was 39.1 per cent as compared to more than 43 per cent in the pre-independence years (1901-1931). Again in 1961, WFPR increased to 43 per cent because persons whose main activity was not economic were included in the main workers. WFPR declined to 34.2 per cent in 1971 because persons engaged in part time activities were excluded from the category of the main workers. But since the Census of 1981, WFPR had risen to 36.7 per cent in 1981 to 37.7 per cent in 1991 and to 39.3 per cent in 2001. This has been due to the adoption of a rigorous of "worker" in terms of main workers and marginal workers.

In the case of WFPR by sex, it had been much higher for males as compared to females. This is because of the social status of women. They are generally not allowed to undertake productive work outside home. But since 1971, their work participation rate has been on the increase. It rose from 14.2 per cent in 1971 to 25.7 per cent in 2001. This is due to increasing literacy and declining birth rate. Now more and more women are entering the industrial and service sectors. With urbanisation and expansion of dairy and poultry farming, fisheries, horticulture, etc., more women are participating in such activities. On the other hand, the work participation rate for men declined from 52.7 per cent in 1971 to 51.9 per cent in 2001. This again shows that more women are taking the place of men in productive activities.

Table 7: Gender-Wise Work Force Participation Rate In India: 1901-2001 (In Percentage)

Year	Females	Males	Persons
1901	31.1	61.1	46.6
1911	33.7	61.9	48.1
1921	32.7	60.5	46.9
1931	27.6	58.3	43.3
1951	23.3	54.0	39.1
1961	28.0	57.1	43.0
1971	14.2	52.7	34.2
1981	19.7	52.6	36.7
1991	22.7	51.6	37.7
2001	25.7	51.9	39.3

Political Dimensions

Participation of women in political arena and in decision-making role is an important tool for empowerment. The extent of this participation is monitoring standards of political performance at all levels. In India the participation of women in politics has been actually nominal since the days of freedom movement while in many other countries women are moving forward. Although their electoral participation has increased over the years, yet voting

is only one aspect of political participation. In fact there is no correlation between their population and voting percentage with their numbers in the legislatures or Government or other political offices. In spite of a congenial political environment in the country, we find psychological obstacles, economic hurdles and socio-cultural barriers restricting women's effective participation.

As politics became more centralized as well as criminalized, thus undermining all other institutions

of civil society, women were pushed out of leadership positions to function on the margins, at best relegated to the domain of social work at the local level. Even that tradition eroded from the 1970s onwards. The setback to women's participation is even more severe at the state level than in Lok Sabha.

Women's Representation in Lok Sabha

The representation of women in Lok Sabha has basically remained stagnant. It reached a 'high' of

8.1 per cent 1984, then it increased to 9.0 per cent in 1999 and declined to 8.2 per cent in 2004 (Table 8). This despite the fact that all major national parties in recent years have declared through their manifestos that they would implement 33 per cent reservation for women in all legislatures. The ugly scenes and stalemate over tabling the Women's Reservation Bill in Parliament seems to be entangled in the web of male-dominated politics. Political parties have no unanimous stand on the bill.

Table 8: Women's representation in lok sabha

Year	Seats	No. of Women	% of Women
1952	499	22	4.4
1957	500	27	5.4
1962	503	34	6.8
1967	523	31	5.9
1971	521	22	4.2
1977	544	19	3.5
1980	544	28	5.1
1984	544	44	8.1
1989	517	27	5.2
1991	544	39	7.2
1996	543	39	7.2
1998	543	43	7.9
1999	543	49	9.0
2004	539	44	8.2

Source: CSDS, Data Unit.

Women's Representation in Rajya Sabha

The presence of women in Rajya Sabha has been only slightly higher, probably due to indirect elections and nomination of some women members. The representation of women in Rajya Sabha has reached a "high" of 11.5 per cent in 1984. It increased to 15.5 per cent in 1991, then it decreased to 6.1 per cent in

1998 and ultimately it reached to 11.4 per cent on 2004 (Table 9). Nonetheless, this representation does not come close to the 33 per cent mark. The number of women contesting elections has always been low. It is interesting to note that the percentage of winners among women has been consistently more than that of men.

Table 9: Women's Representation in Rajya Sabha

Year	Seats	No. of Women	% of Women
1952	219	16	7.3
1957	237	18	7.6
1962	238	18	7.6
1967	240	20	8.3
1971	243	17	7.0
1977	244	25	10.2
1980	244	24	9.8
1984	244	23	11.5
1989	245	24	9.8
1991	245	38	15.5
1996	223	24	9.0
1998	245	15	6.1
1999	245	19	7.8
2004	245	28	11.4

Conclusions

Women community though equal to men in population, it is a subject of concern to note that, in this modern sophisticated world also she is treated as the second rated citizen or subordinate to men in all major fields of life. Though various efforts are being made to improve the status of women, women folk could not take their maximum use and remained still backward. In almost all countries, the Governments are providing special provisions for women's development and efforts are being made to utilize women's talent to the maximum extent. It is well known fact that, in many parts of the world women have started making key contributions in areas of development such as agriculture, health, education, household enterprises, water resources management etc. And by now it is made clear, that without the active involvement of women sustainable development is not possible.

Gender discrimination or inequality from womb to tomb is a patent fact in the traditional cultures of the developing countries. In India too, discrimination on the basis of sex often starts at the earliest stages of life. The development processes of independent India, at a pace never achieved before, have also not succeeded in stopping the decline of sex ratios. A large number of migrant males who come to work in some cities may be responsible for the adverse female sex ratio. The other reasons for decline in sex ratio are differential mortality between males and females, differential undercount of females than males and drop in the female births leading to adverse sex ratio at birth.

There is a sharp decline in the sex ratio of the under 0-6 age population in the last 40 years in India. In most of the States and Union Territories the child sex ratio (0-6 age group) has gone down in 2001 while in 7+ age group there has been an increase in the sex ratio in almost all the states. Maharashtra, the first state which has been passed the PNMT act also registered a decline in the under - 6 sex - ratio, from 946 in 1991 to 917 in 2001 (29 points). There is no doubt that increasing use of pre-natal sex determination tests and female foeticide must have contributed significantly to the significant decline in the sex ratio in the last two decades.

In spite of all the special constitutional provisions and governmental efforts, in the field of education, the disparities between males and females are still large. The total literacy rate in 2001 was 65.38 per cent, for males it was 75.85 per cent and for females it was 54.16 per cent. In literacy rate Kerala retained its

position by being on top with 90.9 per cent literacy rate in 2001 in the country, this rate among males was 94.2 per cent and among females it was 87.9 per cent. Bihar stood at the bottom with a literacy rate of 47.5 per cent (60.30 per cent for males and 33.6 per cent for females).

However, as time passed by, females made rapid progress in all stages of education, the constitutional provisions and special efforts made by the 'state' coming in handy. A process has set in motion where by the gap between males and females in literacy rate is getting reduced, the growth rate of enrollment of females at all stages of education is exceeding that of boys, and more importantly, more and more females are taking to teaching in schools. These are favorable trends and need to be nurtured. Attempts to promote female education should be given greater priority than ever and there can be no better way to raise to self-respect of females than to employ them in schools and make them shape the careers of future citizens of India.

Maternal mortality and infant mortality are directly related to health care facilities available in the nearest place. But this is only the necessary condition. The sufficient condition is that the woman/man must be capable enough by way of education to know the importance of such a health care provision. This is more so with regard to maternal mortality.

In the case of WFPR by sex, it had been much higher for males as compared to females. This is because of the social status of women. They are generally not allowed to undertake productive work outside home. But since 1971, their work participation rate has been on the increase. It rose from 14.2 per cent in 1971 to 25.7 per cent in 2001. This is due to increasing literacy and declining birth rate. Now more and more women are entering the industrial and service sectors. With urbanisation and expansion of dairy and poultry farming, fisheries, horticulture, etc., more women are participating in such activities. On the other hand, the work participation rate for men declined from 52.7 per cent in 1971 to 51.9 per cent in 2001. This again shows that more women are taking the place of men in productive activities.

Still women's representation in Lok Sabha and Rajya Sabha is very low. Special measures are needed to accelerate the process of political participation of women. Various women's organizations should impart political education to the women, to make them aware of their political rights and civic duties, through an organized movement. It is also imperative that national political parties should adopt specific programmes for women, and mobilize them for

electoral purposes and also provide them opportunities in public life. Certain endeavours should be made in this direction to create proper environment to empower women and to enhance their capacity.

References

1. Agnihotri, S.B. "Rising sons and setting daughters provisional results of the 2001 census", in Vina Mazumdar and M. Krishnaji (eds.) *Enduring conundrum: India's Sex Ratio*, Centre for women's Development Studies, Rainbow Publishers, Delhi. 2001.
2. Ashish Bose. : *Population of India, 2001 Census results and Methodology*, B.R. Publishing Corporation, Delhi. 2001.
3. Ashish Bose. "Fighting Female Foeticide: Grouping greed and shrinking child sex ratio", *Economic and Political Weekly*, 2001 Sept. 8; 3427-29.
4. Chandra Sekhar, S. *Infant Mortality in India 1901-1955*, Allen and Unwin, London. 1959.
5. Coale, A. "Excess Female Mortality and the Balance of the sexes: An estimate of the number of Missing Females," *publication and Development Review*. 1991; 17: 517-23.
6. Government of India. *SRS Bulletin*, Registrar General, New Delhi. 2001; 35(1).
7. Harriss, B. "Differential Child Mortality and Health care in South Asia" *Journal of Social Studies*. 1989; 44: 21-23.
8. Karl Marilee. *Women and Empowerment, Participation and Decision Making*, Zed Books Ltd., London. 1995.
9. Mahendra K.Premi. "The Missing Girl Child" *Economic and Political Weekly*, 2001; May 26: 1875-80.
10. Neeta Tapan. *Need for women Empowerment*, Rawat Publications, Jaipur. 2000.
11. Pulla Rao, D. *Economics of Primary Education*, Rawat Publications, Jaipur. 1998.
12. *The Annual Reports of the Department of Women and Child Development*, Ministry of Human Resource Development, Government of India, New Delhi, 1985-86, 1997-98.
13. *The Annual Reports of the Ministry of Health and Family Welfare*, Government of India, New Delhi, 1985-86, 1997-98.
14. Visalia, Pravin. *The Sex Ratio of the Population of India, Census of India, 1961*, Monograph No.10, New Delhi: Registrar General of India. 1961.
15. Vitz, M.D. *Women Entrepreneurs in India*, Mittal Publications, New Delhi. 1987.

Special Note!

Please note that our all Customers, Advertisers, Authors, Editorial Board Members and Editor-in-chief are advised to pay any type of charges against Article Processing, Editorial Board Membership Fees, Postage & Handling Charges of author copy, Purchase of Subscription, Single issue Purchase and Advertisement in any Journal directly to Red Flower Publication Pvt. Ltd. Nobody is authorized to collect the payment on behalf of Red Flower Publication Pvt. Ltd. and company is not responsible of respective services ordered for.