

GLOBALISATION AND EMPOWERMENT OF WOMEN: A SOCIOLOGICAL ANALYSIS

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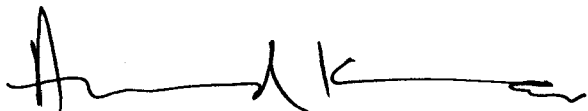
CERTIFICATE

This is to certify that this dissertation entitled **GLOBALISATION AND EMPOWERMENT OF WOMEN: A SOCIOLOGICAL ANALYSIS** submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the award of the Degree of Master of Philosophy has not been previously submitted for any other degree of this university or any other University and is my original work.

Dhirendra Kumar Sethy
DHIRENDRA KUMAR SETHY

We recommend that this dissertation may be placed before examiners for evaluation.


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All errors and shortcomings, if any, are my own.

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*Dedicated to My Beloved
Bapa & Bou*

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INTRODUCTION

Globalisation is not a policy choice, It is Fact

(Bill Clinton)

Globalisation is a process. It is best understood as multifaceted or differentiated social phenomena. It is considered an important element in the reform package. The world is so inter-connected and interdependent due to globalisation. The term globalisation is widely used at present. According to Albrow (1990), globalisation refers “to all those processes by which the peoples of the world are interpreted into a single society, global society”.

The process of globalisation must be evaluated in terms of contributions it makes to human welfare – of all people everywhere in the world (Turien, 1995). Recently, many schools analysed that, the process of globalisation will have dangerous consequences for the society and especially for women. Even though globalisation produces unequal benefits across different sections of society, it also provides opportunities for different people to prosper. The benefits depend upon the government’s active role in creating a favourable atmosphere in which all should get equal opportunities to utilise it to their advantage. The empowerment perspective has been identified with economic reforms, structural adjustment programmes, new world trade order and opening up of the commercial markets and the global communication village. In the

context of women, it helps elevate the socio-economic status of women. In the developed countries it is deemed that women have already achieved a high socio-economic status, but in the developing and least developed countries certain measures and approaches are taken to achieve this stage. Empowerment of women in real sense of quality of life, does not necessarily follow with rising money incomes or longer life spans (Sakuntala, 2000).

↳ where is reference?

The major debate about globalisation is whether this process necessarily lead to women's development? Some theorists continue to articulate that the process of globalisation is another mode of colonialism, a phase of economic imperialism. On the other hand , some theorists also argues that it is a natural process of development after the second world war, when all the countries had decided to stop fighting war by joining together. This mutual process accepts the global political economy. The dimensions of economic development policies was to enhance economic integration at the national level as well as international level. This led to the creation of a global market. The new economic policy adopted by the Indian government in 1991, is essentially a part of the structural adjustment policy package urged by the IMF and the World Bank.

The Indian government under its policy of liberalisation introduced the phase of the globalisation in its economy, which aims at unification/association of the Indian economy with other

economies of the world. To improve the status of women, their need to be placed in the context of the welfare policies of the government. The agenda of 'women and development' was included for the first time in the Sixth Plan Document. The emphasis continued to be on the economic front, through programmes such as the IRDP, Development of Women and Children of Rural Areas (DWCRA), Training of Rural Youth for Self-Employment (TRYSEM) and so on. The department of women and child development in the Ministry of Welfare has been invested with the responsibility of implementing and coordinating programmes of women's welfare and development.

The emergence of grassroots organisations of self-employed women is another facet that has been gaining ground since the seventies. The experience of Self-Employed Women's Association (SEWA), Working Women's Forum (WWF) and Annapurna Mahila Mandal (AMM), which are among the more significant of such organisations, underlines the need for a clear sense of ideology, direction and strategy to achieve gender specific goals. Another noticeable trend in women's employment is the growing presence of women in the organised sector as well as in the unorganised sector.

Feminist lobbies have stressed the urgency of overcoming poverty and addressing women issues like, the needs of rural women, female headed households and women who work in the so-called informal sector. Women around the globe have called for

alternative development models, which emphasise sustainable, equitable and human development. The United Nations accepts it has responsibilities in promoting women's education and reproductive health care in improving their economic position and fully integrating them into the development process. Global process shape and transform economic activity, in that a number of actors, both government and non-government, act as agents of economic, social and political change.

Objective and Scope of the Study

The process of globalisation and its practice has pervade every corner in the world. There is enough evidence to suggest about the benefits of globalisation in terms of economic self-reliance and also about social transformation, especially among women through out the world with the help of advancement of technology and the state's special programmes and polices. There are also other factors for women getting special treatment for empowerment. Basically, this research is to find out the scope and perspective of women empowerment in the process of globalisation. At the international and national level, the issue of women's empowerment is a debatable topic and everyone is taking special interest in women's development. So, firstly, the study tries to emphasise the theoretical perspective of globalisation, and the actors or agents involved to promote globalisation. Secondly, it relates the consequences of globalisation, especially in regard to women's

empowerment. For women's empowerment, various state government programmes emphasised on changing the self-image and societal image of women. The research mainly analyse how the process of globalisation is beneficial for women's economic, political and social empowerment, with a special focus on the nation-state's approach. For understanding the role of the nation-state, the research will also highlight the Indian government's new economy policy in 1991 and its positive and negative impacts on women's empowerment. Various data and policies has been given to supplement my arguments. Not only government but also non-governmental organisations are seriously engaged with various developmental planning and action programmes for women's empowerment. Impact of education and awareness of legal provisions are seen to be some of the vital tools in the process of empowerment. In the coming days, there will be an increase in the allotment of space, place and time for gender issues in both policies as well as practical activities of the government.

For these research work on globalisation and empowerment of women, there is no readily available literature or research material on this two areas. The nature of this study on these two broad themes will provide a new ground for further studies.

Methodology

This study is based on the secondary sources on globalisation and empowerment of women. It will refer to Government of India's

reports on the status of women or status reports, as well as various Policy appraisal published by Government of India and Evaluation Reports of Programmes initiated by various ministries. Articles on women's experiences and of the benefits through governmental and non-governmental actions in different newspapers and magazines is a vital tool for knowing the complex structures and reality of globalisation.

Focus of Chapters

Chapter 1: Theoretical Perspective of Globalisation

The starting point to understand the complex process of globalisation, is based on Lasile Sklair's different theories and their perspective. These theories include imperialist and neo-imperialist, modernization and neo-evolutionist theory, Neo-marxist or dependency world system and modes of production. Apart from this, it also comprehensively analyses the various perspectives of feminist approach and deals on the contemporary debates on globalisation. Roland Robertson's thesis of world compression and intensification of global consciousness, Anthony Gidden's argument on the intensification of worldwide social relations through various perspectives, Arjun Appadurai's five scopes, i.e., ethnoscopes, technoscopes, finanscopes, mediascopes and ideoscopes, Allan Scott's argument on the ideological and operational aspects of globalisation, David Held's spatio-temporal dimensions of globalisation, Andrew Hurrell and Ngairewoods' inter-state capitalism, Vandana Shiva's critical analysis of the different

impact of globalisation, Maitrayee Chaudhuri's argument on the changing images of Indian women are the main arguments covered in this section.

Chapter 2: Process of Globalisation and India

This chapter is divided in two sections. The first part analyses the main agents or actors behind the operations of globalisation. The main actors are Brettonwood institutions, media, market, migration, technology and Nation-state. The second section comprehensively focuses on the Indian government's new liberalisation policy with special emphasis on the positive and negative impacts on women's development. It also covers the think tanker's view point on how to overcome the obstacles in the process of globalisation. This chapter is significant in the sense that it deals on the critical determinants of the globalisation process.

Chapter 3: Globalisation and Empowerment of Women

The terms "Gender Justice", "Women Empowerment", and "Women Welfare" are the key concepts in the social and economic development analysis of both developed and developing nations. The government of India has taken numerous measures which emphasised women's full participation in mainstream development activities. The constitutional obligations as well as different plans, programmes and policies have laid emphasis on women empowerment in order to bring them to the mainstream

developmental process. For supporting this view point, various government data has been given to understand the governmental approach towards women empowerment. The new approach of the states, i.e., participation and empowerment, towards women expanded the meaning of the concept of development. Changes in 'social attitudes' and transformation to realise the objective of empowerment through women's participation in social, economic and political process are the main themes in this chapter.

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Chapter I

THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVE OF GLOBALISATION

Globalisation is a multifaceted and multi-dimensional phenomena.

At the same time, it conveys relatively specific meanings in different regions, societies, disciplines and so on. It is widely asserted that we live in an era in which the greater part of social life is determined by global process. The reflexive theory of globalisation has to incorporate this consideration. In academic writings, the term globalisation has assumed multi-dimensional connotations. Some writers have treated it as a process of the creation of a global economy; others have talked of political and social globalisation, a globalisation of ideas or a process of technological change. There are many classifications of theories of the global system but Sklair's five broad theories are taken as a starting point. The theories are classified as:

- (1) Imperialist and Neo-Imperialist Theory.
- (2) Modernisation and Neo-evolutionist Theory.
- (3) Neo-Marxist Theory.
- (4) World System Theory and
- (5) Modes of Production Theory (Sklair 1997: 27-36).

Apart from that, this chapter also comprehensively analyses the different perspectives of feminist challenges, contemporary

sociological theories and approaches, and the debates on globalisation.

Theoretical Perspective

1. Imperialist and Neo-imperialist

The theory of imperialism (or colonialism) tries to explain the structure of the modern world in terms of the struggles between the major powers to find new markets, sources of raw materials, investment opportunities, and to extend their political and cultural influence. In the social science, attitudes towards imperialism are sharply divided. Most of the followers of imperialist school belong to the Marxian tradition of thought. Although Marx himself did discuss the issue of colonialism (Laws of motion), he did not connect it with capitalism very strongly. It was the twentieth-century Marxists like Lenin, Rosa Luxemburg, Hilferding and Bukharin who laid the foundations for a Marxist theory of imperialism (Sklair, 1991). But Ankie Hoogvelt, a developmental sociologist argues that the imperialist theory's foundation was laid by J.A. Hobson in 1905. Hobson believes that, accumulation of capital is important for the progress of society and it is necessary for capitalist societies' tendencies to save money and to invest these savings as capital in order to produce more goods in the future. Hobson wanted to end imperialism by changing the production relations at home.

Classical Marxist theorists of imperialism, such as Lenin, Hilferding and Bukharin argued a 'necessity of imperialism thesis'. Imperialism is defined by Lenin as the 'monopoly stage of capitalism'. Lenin associated capitalist imperialism with the dominance of finance capital, the export of capital in response to domestic stagnation of the economy, the growth of international trusts and the capitalist division of the globe.

The principal feature of classical Marxist writers is that imperialism is a necessary development of capitalism and the desire to develop their capital at hand and this becomes possible through MNCs and TNCs with total support from international organisations like WTO and IMF. Globalisation is neo-imperialism, in which the domination of nations by foreigners is through economy.

This theory was criticised because of monopolization of the markets and for ignoring the development of certain ex-colonies, particularly by 1900: some 90 per cent of Africa had been subjected to Europe and most part of Asia was ever to be directly colonized.

2. Modernisation and Neo-Evolutionist Theory

Modernisation theory was a dominant analytical paradigm for the explanation of the global process by which traditional societies achieved modernity. This approach that came into widespread use in the early 1960s, as a consequence of the efforts by a group of

development specialists in the United States developed an alternative to the marxist account of social development.

Modernisation theories of the global system are largely based on the distinction between traditional and the modern. The main crux of the argument of modernisation theory is that development revolves around attitudes and values. Their argument is that, traditional beliefs, customs and practices, pre-modern cultural values and activities are the main reasons for undevelopment. According to Levy (1966) in the Third World, social and economic interaction is generally underpinned by traditional values which emphasize the specific known characteristics of interacting individuals, rather than impersonal, formal, rational criteria that allegedly operate in industrialised societies. Modern societies are characterized by a high degree of literacy, urbanism, media participation, rational thought and practical experience, empirical knowledge and objective understanding. This model is totally synonymous with the Western concept of development.

The idea of neo-evolutionism is often coupled with the theory of modernization and it may have been dominant at the end of the 1960s. Talcott parson, Eisenstadt, Levy, Smelser, Rostow, Hoselitz and recently Anthony Giddens, Rolland Robertson and Arjun Appadurai had pioneered in this field. The main theme of neo-evolutionism, provides an historical context for the analysis of traditional and modern societies, in the sense that modern societies

are said to have evolved from traditional ones through the processes of social differentiation. Neo-evolutionism argues that there are many possible paths from the traditional to the modern. Both Smelser and Rostow attempted to provide more general perspectives in the analysis of development. Smelser, a sociologist, considered strong centralised government as a necessity for economic development on social structures. Rostow, an economic historian also interested in social change, emphasised the role of entrepreneurial elite in the period of economic 'take-off' overcoming traditional barriers to economic growth.

Modernisation theory has been criticised on many grounds: Firstly, modernization is based on development in the West and is thus an ethnocentric model of development. Secondly, the ambiguous distinction between traditional and modern societies and their theoretical relevance. Thirdly, the modernization theory tends to ignore the role that class and other interests play in the promotion or inhibition of development. Fourthly, modernisation does not necessarily lead to industrial growth and equal distribution of social benefits, since it is an essentially uneven process resulting in underdevelopment and dependency.

3. Neo Marxist Theory

Popularly, it is termed as dependency theory or meta theory which developed in opposition to the optimistic claims of modernisation theory which saw the ability of the less developed

countries to catch up with the west. The original version of the dependency and underdevelopment theory as outlined first by Paul Baran was developed more popularly and grandly by Andre Gunder Frank, T.Dos Santos and others.

Categorically, Sklair distinguished three theories connected with the Neo-Marxist theories. They are dependent underdevelopment, dependent development and dependency reversal (1991: 31). Dependent underdevelopment theory argues that, TNCs are the main cause for global capital system and appeared actively in underdeveloped countries of the Third World and that no genuine development was possible as long as this system survived. Frank, (1980) unequivocally denied that capitalism could ever develop the Third World. Dependent development theory acknowledges capitalist development in the Third World, particularly in the newly Industrializing countries (NICs), but it was development of a peculiar kind, namely dependent development. Dependency reversal theory suggests that certain Third World countries, or institutional sectors within them, which were once in the thrall of dependency can escape and reverse their previous advantage.

Dependency theory concentrated in locating the cause of backwardness of Third World countries within the dynamic and contradictory growth of the world capitalist system. According to the dependency theory, the economy and society gets distorted

leading to extreme pauperisation of the masses for all time due to the intrusion of colonial capital. Dependency theorists explicitly reject the concept of the United States as an actor and the notion of the global system as a collection of nation-states. Their approach is based on the world system of capitalist relations.

Baran (1973) argues that the economic development of industrial societies in the West rested on the expropriation of economic surplus from overseas societies. Economic conditions of the Third World countries or underdevelopment are a consequence of their precarious reliance on export-oriented primary productions. This theory was further elaborated by A.G. Frank (1980), who analysed underdevelopment in terms of a global network of exploitations between metropolis and satellite societies. Historically speaking, colonialism undermined nascent industrial production in the Third World by ensuring favourable conditions for the export of commodities from capitalist societies. The supply, demand and market mechanism was controlled by the West. Dependency theorists argued that the prevailing international division of labour involved a transfer of value from poor to rich countries because of the unequal terms of exchange of the commodities traded.

This theory, in turn, has been criticised because of focussing too much on the particular kinds of commodities traded. Arghiri Emmanuel argues that, unequal exchange does not occur between commodities traded, but between trading countries.

4. World System Theory

Immanuel Wallerstein is the founder father of this school of thought. The themes and arguments of the World System theorists were articulated regularly in a Journal called "Review". This Journal was published from Braudel Center at the State University of New York at Binghamton.

All World System theorists focus on the historical background of developed and underdeveloped societies. Wallerstein suggests that modern world economic system developed in distinct historical stages. The theory argues that the economic organisation of modern capitalism is on a global, not national basis. For Wallerstein, capitalism as a system existed from the middle of the fifteenth century. The essential features of capitalism, is 'production for sale in a market ... to realize the maximum profit' (Wallerstein, 1979, p.15).

The key characteristics of World System theory are that, as components of the system. Amin (1976) focuses on a world economic system divided into two sectors: "self-centred systems" and "peripheral systems". In self-centred system, production is for mass consumption, and there is a social contract between capital and labour which serves to minimize conflict. This system possesses its own, internal dynamics, unaffected by external relationships. By contrast, the periphery exists to meet the centre's

requirements, which it does mainly through exports and any capital accumulated is transferred to the centre. According to this view, participation in the world system exacts a heavy price, involving as it does to the decline of small agricultural producers and cottage industries, the semi-proletarianization of rural areas, and unemployment and underemployment. Poverty in the periphery thus functions to maintain and increase wealth among the periphery's privileged classes, and at the core or centre.

Amin operates with a view of a two-tiered world system. Wallerstein criticizes him for failing to include an intermediate category. Wallerstein's world economy has three components - core, periphery and semi-periphery. Core regions are economically and politically dominant that can enforce exchange relations favourable to themselves; they appropriate surplus value from the periphery. Peripheries which are economically dependent on the core. The second system component, which is made up of exploited regions characterised by mono-agriculture and a dependence on the export of low-wage products. Core regions are developed as industrial systems of production, whereas the peripheries provide raw materials, being thereby dependent on prices set in the core regions. Thirdly, semi-periphery, an intermediate category which acts as a buffer, separating the core and periphery produces high-wage and low-wage products. It is exploited by the core and in turn exploits the periphery. The semi-periphery is the arena in which

capitalists, especially the transnational companies, confront one another openly and meet socialist alternatives head-on. World economic system comprises of core, periphery and semi-periphery, which is kept going by military force, and by the pervasiveness of an ideological commitment to the system as a whole, especially among those outside the core who nevertheless benefit from the system and its three-layered structure (Wallerstein, 1979, p. 22). In short, the semi-periphery, which disguises and their cores sustain the entire system.

The other characteristics of world systems theory is that it treats the entire 'world' as the basic unit of analysis. World system is due to a single division of labour with different political and cultural systems and multiple mode of surplus appropriation. The world system if governed by a common political system then it is called 'world empire', but if it is not covered by a common political system then it is called world economy. The world system allows both upward and downward mobility.

World system theorists argue that development, regarded as autonomous, self-sustaining industrial growth, is no longer an option for the Third World. The very existence of the world capitalist system means that the development potential of underdeveloped countries is blocked.

World-system theory has been criticised on many grounds.

They are:

- (1) It is not entirely evident that peripheral societies are underdeveloped by core regions, because most trade and investment takes place between societies which are already developed and industrialized;
- (2) It is not clear how socialist societies fit into the world system;
- (3) It is not clear that external forces of the world economy are more significant for social change than internal processes (such as class struggle);
- (4) By emphasizing economic processes, world-system theory has neglected cultural changes, and some theorists, such as Robertson and Lechner (1985), have argued that there is a world-system of global culture which is entirely autonomous from the economic processes of capitalism.

5. Modes of Production Theory

The mode of production concept has been theoretically developed by a group of French structuralists including Taylor. The proponents of this theory brand themselves as Marxists but rejected the whole problematic of dependency in its entirety. According to them, the reasons for underdevelopment in any given Third World country lie mainly within the country itself rather than in the world capitalist system. Some mode of production theorists argues that capitalist industrialization is the only reliable path to development.

Their argument suggest that the lack of development in the Third World is due to obstacles, both internal and externally imposed, to capitalist industrialization.

Marxists criticize neo-marxists for concentrating too much on questions of international exchange and terms of trade and too little on questions of production and ownership.

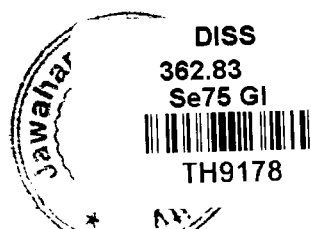
Above all, these theories of development and their implicit and explicit approaches mostly covered the classical and neo-classical schools of thought. The main drawback of Sklair's classification and analysis is ignoring the concern of gender issue and their importance in this process which is the central theme in recent theorists. So it is necessary to describe the feminist perspective and their approaches in the process of globalisation.

Feminist Theory

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A French socialist, Charles Fourier invented the word "feminist", in the early 19th century. It was used for asking Franchise but over the years, feminism has been given a range of shifting meanings and number of movements are associated under its banner. According to Judith Astellara, "Feminism is a proposal for social transformation as well as a movement that strives to end the oppression of movement..... As a movement, feminism has a long history of rebellion, more or less organised but always

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expressing opposition to the social institutions that made possible the inferiority of women".

Initially, there were three types of feminist theories - liberal, social and radical but presently new thoughts like eco-feminism and cyber feminism has been added. There is a major shift in the approach of women's participation in the development process and their rights after many movements and also efforts by the United Nations. So the amount of attention devoted to women and women's issues have increased dramatically in the last few decades throughout the world. Mainly, the feminist theories as well as eco-feminists argue that women's are an integral part of the development processes.

French feminist, Francoise D' Eaubonne, first used the term "Eco-feminism" in 1974. It became popular only in the context of numerous protests and activities against environmental destruction, sparked off initially by recurring ecological disasters in the late 1970s and early 1980s. Particularly Marie Mies and Vandana Shiva, the two significant proponents of this school say that the development of science's whole paradigm is characteristically patriarchal, anti-nature and colonial and aims to dispossess women of their generative capacity as it does to the productive capacities of nature. Shiva argues, global market integration and the creation of the level playing field for transnational capital creates conditions of homelessness in real and

imagining ways. According to Shiva, in the process of global village, there are 2 types of homeless, one group is mobile on a world scale, with no country as home, but the whole world as its property; the other has lost even the mobility within rootedness, and lives in refugee camps, resettlement colonies and reserves. The cumulative displacement caused by colonialism, development and the global market place has made homelessness a cultural characteristic of the late 20th century. She also believes that, GATT is the platform where capitalist patriarchy's notion of freedom as the unrestricted right of men with economic power to own, control and destroy life is articulated as 'free-trade'. Globalism is the perspective of capitalist patriarchy.

Maria Mies highlighted the secret of modern industrial policy and their approach. They are very much aware of the negative impacts such as the disasters of Bhopal and Chernobyl, of the green house effect, the destruction of the ozone layer and so on but they argue that science and technology can provide a solution to these dilemmas. She coined the concept, "catching-up development" in the context of women living in the industrialised countries. Catching-up development meant and continues to mean the hope that the patriarchal men-women relationship will be abolished for a policy of equal rights for women. All these efforts and initiatives at the political level add upto the strategy of women "catching-up with

men. The strategy of catching-up with the men means, that men generally are seen as the model to which women must aspire.

Eco-feminists assert the special strength and integrating every living thing. They believe that the development in biotechnology, genetic engineering and reproductive technology have made women actually conscious of the gender bias of science and technology.

There is also much more debate about the broad aspect of eco-feminism, theoretical arguments and their prejudice of science and technology. We have also witnessed that in every aspect of life, science is very important. Today mortality rate has come down drastically due to the invention and promotion of advanced medical technologies. Technology has emerged as the vehicle of rapid change in the way mankind communicates in this century. Technology helped in making communication a more effective tool for settlement of standards of living. Global village marks the close knit entity and information across the globe to serve as used term or a forum for discussion. It will be easy to understand these consequences with the help of the following debates.

Contemporary Sociological Theories

To understand the deepening phenomena of globalisation, it is necessary to analyse the contemporary sociological theories of globalisation.

Roland Robertson: World compression and Intensification of Global consciousness

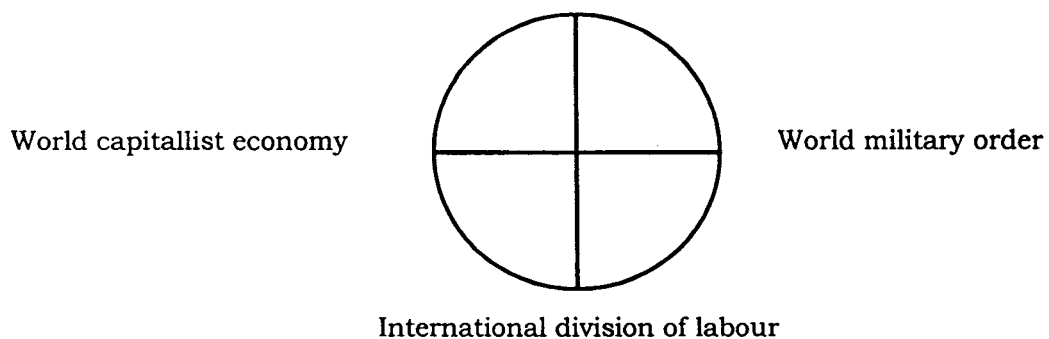
Robertson defined globalisation as the crystallisation of the entire world as a single place and as the emergence of a 'global human condition'. He deals with globalisation as a relatively recent phenomena and intimately related with modernisation and post-modernisation. Robertson's analysis of globalisation is related with economic level, political level and cultural level. In the economic sphere, it predates even the rise of capitalism and the modern world because of the growing networks of international trade and production. It has also been actively fostered at the level of the political subsystem with the international cooperation between states and emergence of international organisations.

Globalisation at the cultural level has begun because of two things: namely 'compression of the world' and 'global consciousness'. Compression of the world is the real experience of the way that interdependence are being created in the economies of the world. Industrial processes of development and growth in one country can have environmental and ecological impacts in neighbouring countries. World compression is not a terribly new idea but it intensifies global consciousness. Global consciousness is manifested in the way of mass communication.

Anthony Giddens: Intensification of Worldwide Social Relations

Modernity is inherently globalising. Giddens defined globalisation as the intensification of worldwide social relations which link distant localities in such a way that local happenings are shaped by events occurring many miles away and vice-versa. Local transformation is as much a part of globalisation as the lateral expansion of social connections across time and space.

Nation – state system



(Dimensions of globalisation)

He said, the main centres of power in the world economy are capitalist states in which capitalist economic enterprise is the chief form of production. Nation-states are the main global political actors in which everybody follow certain process for long participated in this process of globalisation. The third dimension of globalisation is the world military order. Globalising military order is not only concern weaponry and alliances between the armed forces of different states but also concerns war itself. The fourth dimension of globalisation concerns industrial development. The most obvious aspect of this is the expansion of the global division of

labour which includes the differentiations between more and less industrialised areas in the world.

Arjun Appadurai: Five Scopes

Appadurai specifies five factors as he thinks that emerges from the dynamics of contemporary cultural diversity. He calls these dimensions "Scope". Appadurai argues that the 5 scopes assume that cultural homogeneity and domination are not possible. The dimensions of global culture are ethnosscopes, technoscopes, finanscopes, mediascopes and ideoscopes. Each concept refers to a type of movement. Ethnoscope denotes the flow of people from one part of the world to another. This includes tourists, immigrants, refugees, exiles, guest workers and so on. Technoscopes describes the transparency of industrial technology across national borders. For example, India, China, Russia and Japan for instance, have all exported technology to Libya in order to construct a huge steel complex there. Finanscope refers to patterns of global money transfer, for e.g. foreign investments channeled through the World Bank for energy. Mediascope refers to mechanical and electronic mass media hardware and the images they produce. Ideoscope also refers to images, but specifically to the political aspects- the straightforwardly ideological contours of culture.

Allan Scott: Globalisation from Above and Below

Scott argues that the phenomena of globalisation represents mainly material development that reflect the expansion of technological capabilities to a global scale, as well as the de-

territorialisation of these capabilities due to informatics and the internet.

The ideological and operational aspects of globalisation are associated with the way in which transnational market forces dominate the policy science, including the significant co-options of state power. This pattern of development is identified as "globalisation from above".

Globalisation has generated criticism and resistance, both of local, grass-roots variety, based on concreteness of the specifics of time and place. For example- the siting of a dam or nuclear plant or the destruction of a forest. This aggregate phenomena is described as "globalisation - from below".

According to Scott, the main positive aspects of globalisation are the consent of citizenry, rule of law, human rights, participation, accountability, public goods, transparency and non-violence.

David Held: Spatio-Temporal Dimensions of Globalisation

According to Held, a satisfactory definition of globalisation must capture four elements. These are extensity (stretching), intensity, velocity and impact. They refer to these four elements as the spatio-temporal dimensions of globalisation.

According to them, globalisation is "a process (or set of process) which embodies a transformation in the spatial

organisation of social relations and transactions - assessed in terms of their extensity, intensity, velocity and impact - generating transcontinental or interregional flows and networks of activity, interaction and the exercise of power".

Globalisation can be located on a continuum with the local, natural and regional and it refers to those spatio-temporal processes of change which underpin a transformation in the organisation of human affairs by linking together and expanding human activity across regions and continents. The concept of globalisation implies a stretching of social, political and economic activities across frontiers such that events, decisions and activities in one region of the world can come to have significance for individuals and communities in distant regions of the globe. Globalisation also implies that connections across frontiers are not just occasional or random, but rather are regularised such that there is a detectable intensification, or growing magnitude, of interconnectedness, patterns of intersection and flows which transcend the constituent societies and states of the world order. Growing extensity and intensity of global interconnectivity is an important factor for speeding up of global intersections and processes as the development of worldwide systems of transport and communication increases the potential velocity of the global division of ideas, goods, interactions, capital and people. And the growing extensity, intensity and velocity of global interactions may

also be associated with a deepening enmeshment of the local and global such that the impact of distinct events is magnified while even the most local developments may come to have enormous global consequences.

Andrew Hurrell and Ngaire Woods : Inter-State Inequalities

Globalisation has become an important part of the rhetoric of contemporary international relations. They understand the process of globalisation by examining its impact and looking at the inequalities among states at both the international and domestic level. The main characteristics of globalisation are:

1. The observable face of globalisation is an increase in transactions across state boundaries, in part driven by technological change and increasing knowledge, which are mainly developed in large industrialised countries.
2. The impact of these observable changes is conditioned by the different experiences that states have of increase in interconnectedness, depending on variations in their political and economic capacities.
3. The new interconnectedness is regulated by rules and institutions formulated and enforced mainly by the most powerful actors in the international political arena.
4. The benefits of globalisation flow to those states with the greatest capacity to absorb and adapt to the new types of

transactions. This capacity includes the domestic political strength of governments.

5. Increased linkages between societies are affected not just through markets, but also through issues and ideas which give international voice to non-state actors and empower them to be more active in domestic politics. These transnational linkages can erode the domestic political strength of the government.

They mainly explain the process of change, examine of the role of non-state actors and dimensions of international relations (such as the role of institution and values). Especially, powerful states are better able to insulate themselves, by adapting domestic state structures (and opportunities), dominating the regimes by which interdependence is managed, competing more effectivity within global markets, or developing strong enough state structures to control interdependence.

Thus, globalisation is a process, the nature and impact of which are vastly influenced by inequality among states but predicts that, it is also a process which has profound consequences for the equality of states in the future.

Vandana Shiva: Seven Superstitions of Globalisation

Shiva (1998) believes that there are seven superstitions or myths of globalisation which is inevitable and acceptable by every one. The first superstition is that, globalisation is a natural

phenomena not an ideology. She argues that globalisation is not a natural, evolution or inevitable phenomena but is a political process which has been imposed on the weak by the powerful through political institutions. The second superstition is that there is no alternative to globalisation. She says that the alternatives were excluded in order to force this phenomena and participate in the violence of globalisation. The third superstition is that, globalisation is a totally new stage of human development. She argues that, it was earlier simply called colonialism. The fourth superstition is that, globalisation will increase citizen freedom and democracy by reducing the power of the state. But she argues, it is leading to less freedom for people, but more freedom to capital and dismantling of the structures of the state that protect people. Fifth Superstitions is that, globalisation will increase prosperity for all by leading to limitless growth. She believes that, the growth under globalisation is not a growth in goods and services, but a growth in international trade and a growth of the financial economy. Sixth superstition is that, globalisation will protect the environment by leading to economic growth and hence creating more resources for environmental protection and a greater appreciation of environmental values. She argues that, globalisation leads to environmental deregulation and a dismantling of laws and policies for environmental protection. Seventh superstition is that, globalisation leads to peace because borders are removed and everyone becomes a member of the global village. She says that,

globalisation is increasing economic insecurity by ethnicising and ghettoising all terms of dissent, protest, and articulation of alternatives.

Maitrayee Chaudhuri: Old but Open to New

According to Chaudhuri, globalisation is not a new development but one that has meant to be is opening up of the Indian market to new consumer products and strategies. She highlighted the changing images of Indian women in advertisements and the popular media. In the era of globalisation, there is a shift in the portrayal of women in India. She compared Indian women's image from ancient time to modern time. Today, women are the symbolic aspects of consumerism and the image of women is portrayed everywhere by the media in different roles in different circumstances like, housewife, mother, wife and so on. This type of stereotypical image of women is portrayed by the electronic/print media and she pointed that there is dramatic shift from the right of women to work to the right of women to consume, from an understanding of the household as a site of work and production to a place of leisure and consumption.

The above arguments show that, globalisation is a process and it is best understood as multifaceted and differentiated social phenomena. But it is also true that, globalisation is an instrument to attend and deepen the home market in which it facilitated participation of everyone in the process of globalisation. It also

enhances the growth and raising the standards of living by the invention of science and technology. Therefore, it creates a human society, which is based on freedom, justice and global solidarity and cooperation.

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Chapter II

PROCESS OF GLOBALISATION AND INDIA

The world in which we happen to live is not static at all, but is the object of deep transformation.

A retrospective analysis reveals that globalisation has been cyclical in world historical developments. This process originally found by the major expansion and conquest of markets by the multinationals was described as globalisation by business Journals of the late 1960s and early 1970s, searching for an alternative to the existing Marxist vocabulary. The term was taken over by the mainstream academic world and became the acceptable framework for talking about international capitalist expansion without having to deal with its origin, power relations and exploitative outcomes. It was called the third technological revolution.

Globalisation was the watchword of the last decade of the 20th century. It is general agreed that there is not a single but many actors behind the operations of globalisation. The main agents or actors are Brettonwood institutions, media, market, migration, technology and Nation-state.

Brettonwood was a landmark event in post-war history in which the international community responded to the need to fashion a financial and monetary system to avert the kind of

economic disaster that had engulfed the world in the 1930s. Brettonwood created the IMF to preside over a world of relatively stable exchange rates and with the capacity to assist countries who faced temporary difficulties in their balance of payments. It also set up the World Bank which having assisted reconstruction in war-damaged Europe, provided finance for development in newly emergent third world countries.

The creation of Brettonwood institutions represented a bold attempt to promote multilateral in a universal system with clear rules in which nations could expect fair treatment in economic affairs regardless of political affiliations. The institutions made important contributions to post-war reconstruction and to the remarkable period of sustained growth of world production.

In the era of globalisation, media is one of the key player for giving the right direction about the challenges and opportunities of globalisation. It is the real promoter of globalisation which functions freely. It exerts a pressure for greater democratization within any system. Mass media continues to be an essential pillar of the democratic structure. India is experiencing the impact of advancing media technology more intensively and advances in media technology have seen a mixed blessing for India.

The President of India, K.R. Narayanan (1992) said, media has become an integral part of life and their power and influence

have become infinitely greater. Basically, it is a creature and a product of the society and the world as a whole. He also said, the most important part is that, “media not only holds the mirror up to society and interprets the world but is one of the potent instruments for changing the world, for changing society, its values and tastes and influencing the minds of people”. Media not only reflects but also affects the social reality (Jha: 1992; 23). In the era of fast globalisation the rapidly changing field of information, communications and technology which are the most outstanding developments of the past century. It has radically altered the politico-economic scenario. Media gives and is likely to facilitate greater decentralisation and participation on the democratic functioning in India. Prakash (2000, ToI) believes that the contribution of media and communications by itself only ensures basic social development like improved literacy levels, greater spread of information and news, wider preference for sports and entertainment and not the least of a greater familiarization with one’s national or group culture even while interacting with foreign, mainly American or European, media productions and products.

Market is the prime tool in the emergence of globalisation. The structural adjustment programmes of the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund have been powerful forces for creating open market economy. Markets are social constructs that reflect the unique political-cultural construction of their forms and nations.

Economic historian Karl Polanyi (1944) strongly highlighted the energetic work as the main and of growth of national wealth and consequently of an increase in working people's personal incomes, in the magnitude and the proportion of the wealth allocated to support basic Science and Culture, as well as for the upbringing and education for children, the maintenance of the disabled and so on. O'hame (1992) argues that all nations can benefit from the opportunities of global market forces as counter productive state regulations are undermined.

The modern economy brings about a division between economic activity and non-economic activity. The market economy is supposed to be regulated by market forces. Supply of goods and their prices are determined by the demand for those goods. Jha (2000) pointed that, the modern economy and especially the modern market economy also tends to replace all activities of mutual help in communities by mutual bargaining or monetized relationships. For example, earlier, for a marriage function to be organised, most of the work was done in advance with the help of relatives and community. Now all the goods and services required can be brought from the market. On the other hand, all the national and international companies have made concerted efforts in rural marketing to reach their goods to the farthest corners of the country.

Migration is an essential part of globalisation. Stephen Castles (1998) argues that, migration is both a result of global change and a powerful force for further change in migrant-sending and receiving societies. Its immediate impacts are felt on the economic levels, but it also affects social relations, culture, national politics and international relations. Migration inevitably leads to greater ethno-cultural diversity within nation-states, transforming identities and blurring traditional boundaries.

Most migration takes place within transnational social networks, which link families and communities across long distances. Migrations chain may develop in unpredictable ways. The 19th century migrations of Indian workers from specific locations in Bihar, East Uttar Pradesh, Andhra Pradesh and Tamilnadu to work of plantation in the West Indies, Mauritius, Fiji and South Africa was organised through the mechanism of the 'indentured' systems. In America, there is a vast population from other countries of Asia and Africa. Today, labour migration is important for skilled labours. Apart from labour migration, there was/is a massive refugee, war affected people and higher-interest peoples migration. Higher interest people and those who wanted to enjoy the advanced countries climate. These people are well off and wanted to spend their wealth and time in more socially recognised areas. The high-skilled labour also travels the global village. With Internet access in nearly every country, the highly educated are the increasing online

and in touch around the world. In 1998 more than 250,000 African professionals were working in the United States and Europe. An estimated 145 million live outside their countries, up from 104 million in 1985 and 84 million in 1975. These estimates include only legally registered immigrants, so the real number is much higher. The development of new information and communication technologies a role in the corporate agenda of globalisation. Technology helps for motivation, attitude change, reinforcement, community participation and sheer entertainment. Castles has analysed the new character of this old contradiction. He argues that "our societies are increasingly structured around a bipolar opposition between the Net and the self. He emphasises the role of new information technology in creating global networks of wealth, power and images.

The diffusion of technology implies that process of globalisation place a premium on information and knowledge intensive activities. Technological restructuring is now reshaping the competition globally and as a result most technological innovations have crept in and the consumers are enjoying the fruits. The integrated role of technology may reduce the cost and increase the impact of products. Technological advances made possible the fragmentation of the production process, setting the stage for the international strategy for delocalization. Firms found it advantageous to establish parts of one product process in various

locations around the globe. Bhalla and James (1998) argues that the rapid advancing scientific and technological frontiers will inevitably have monumental consequences for the Third World. Technology has emerged as the vehicle of rapid change in the way mankind communicates in this century, and India is no exception to this phenomena.

Technology helped in making communication a more effective tool for the betterment of standards of living. Communication and media too have undergone a sea change because of information technology. A village is a closely knit entity, where information is spread by various means like word of mouth, or other channels like village Sabhas and informal discussion groups within communities. The exchange of information within a village is fast and issues of common interest are discussed with the all the interested parties, there is no vested interest involved. Internet with the above mentioned tools could be an effective disseminator of information across the globe to serve as the medium or a forum for discussion on issues concerning all communities in the globe resulting in a global village (Reddy, Jayashankar, Gupta, 2000).

“The discovery of computers and subsequent developments of Information Technology is one of the most significant achievements of the twentieth century. The role of IT as an instrument our progress and development has been acknowledged widely and is expected to bring in major social and economic benefits for the

mankind and accelerate the process of development.” (Dash, 2000). In this case, the increasing use of information technology is going to have an impact on civil liberties and on corporate structure and management unless proper controls are enforced specifically of a legal nature.

Such technological developments have brought about changes in the organisational structure of Transnational corporations (TNCs) driven by heightened competition and the growing awareness among companies of the necessity to invest abroad in order to serve those domestic markets better. TNCs use information technologies to integrate supplies, coordinate cross-border production processes, and also to monitor production more closely to meet the demand in all countries in which they operate and to co-ordinate research and development and disseminate the results.

This rise of information serves as a tool of language and imagination to understand and change the world. The rise of information as the dominant form of socially meaningful knowledge has touched almost all domains of modern life. Various social institutions are being restructured for better information management. Traditional institutions dealing with the creation and transmission of knowledge – libraries, educational establishment, research institutes, the different media – are all being reshaped for better information flows. These developments follow the advance in

information technologies and a major expansion of the business of information. The idea of information has come to pervade on descriptions and understanding of the world and the knowledge.

It is a fact that nation-states play an important role in globalisation. Globalisation has consolidated the nation-state as a formidable actor in the global arena. The nation-state has developed as an aspect of globalisation, considered as a long term historical process. It is now a familiar argument that nation-state formation is an expression and function of globalisation and not a process contrary to it (Robertson, 1992).

States are relegated to the role of facilitators in the adoptions of the national economy to the new realities of emerging international economic structures, i.e. creating the policy environment, both nationally and internationally, which favours the globalisation of production and service industries. The nation-state has become an unnatural, even dysfunctional unit for organising human activity and managing economic endeavour in a borderless world. (O'hame, 1992). The relation between globalisation and nation-state is that the stronger the nation-state the more securely the capital of its citizens can travel. Ex-China, South Korea and so on.

Ahmed (1996) stated that, "the representation of globalisation, as novelty, inevitability and the common good and the

cognate representation of nation-state as antique furnitures of modernity and outdated industrialism are now punctual features not only of economic neo-liberalism but also of the most avant grade kind of cultural theory and historiography". The nation-state now seems to represent the interests of global finance to the nation. In this scenario, every dependent state produces more and more export markets, competing against every other similar state for share of a very small proportion of the world trade. The role of state seems to have always seen substantial in the self organisation of capital itself.

In fact, 'national competitiveness is an essential slogan of globalisation (Jha, 2000). The idea is that various nations are competing for economic advantage, and the best way to do is by liberalising and getting integrated into the world economy. Ahmed (1996) suggested that, capital need state, and in so far as economies and labour regimes are organised within national confines, it needs the nation-state for the enforcement of contract law, internationalized legal systems and other instruments that are necessary to ensure linkage between the national and transnational market forces, as well as to promote debt management, structural adjustment and financial transactions of myriad kinds.

These players are the primary forces behind the process of globalisation and it reflects rapidly in all aspects of contemporary social life. For widening deepening and speeding of this process, the

Indian government's economic reforms of 1991, embraced globalisation and integration of the Indian economy into the global economy.

Economic Reforms: Path for Globalisation

New economy reforms were introduced by the Indian government in June 1991, calls for an assessment of the role of globalisation, liberalisation and transparency. The main reason of the economic reforms seemed to be the liberalisation of market so that the forces of demand and supply could express themselves freely in a competitive market and the local and regional economy could be integrated into the global economy. It has been rightly observed that, in one hand there are many challenges in process of globalisation and in other hand, it will also provide opportunities for different people to prosper and produce constructive results.

Economic Reforms and Challenges

The economic reforms adopted by India are regarded as another instance of the imperialist design of the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and the World Bank (George 1999; Oommen 1993). Some scholars anticipated about the impact of economic liberalisation in the deepening of social inequalities, deterioration of women's condition, coercive, exploitative, rising ethnic violence, communalism, etc. So the challenges of globalisation are multidimensional.

The main economic challenges of globalisation is contributing to the trend towards concentration of economic wealth in powerful hands, capturing of third world market, destruction of domestic markets of indigenous producers and widening the gap between rich and poor within and outside between the societies. The main purpose of this whole exercise of globalisation is to facilitate the TNCs to capture countries to systematically liquidate small and medium local enterprises through methods like collaborations, mergers and takeovers. Everywhere poor gets marginalised under the impact of globalisation.

The main thrust of globalisation is the globalisation of prices without globalisation of incomes which hits directly the poor everywhere. (Vivekananda, 1999). In this reform, especially small-scale industries are adversely affected because it threatens their protected markets, and the concessional credit and technical assistance they enjoyed. Globalisation has led to an increase on the disparities in world income both within and between the countries in which poor people are suffering. Privatization is another aspect which has been strongly criticised because of the government's policy of privatizing public sector enterprises and not providing financial support to public sector enterprises in which workers are adversely affected at the prospect of losing their jobs.

Economic liberalisation threatens the interest of private entrepreneurs who had thrived under the protective umbrella of

socialist planning and organised industrial labour because in a labour surplus economy such as that of India, liberalisation would allow employers to find hire and fire labourers at will (Panini, 1995). It is widely accepted that, global capitalism and post-modern culture shift the decision making process far away from the person's sovereignty who is directly affected in this process.

Many people are also missing out on employment opportunities. The global labour market is increasingly integrated for the highly skilled-corporate executives, scientists, entertainers and the many others who form the global professional elite – with high mobility and wages. But the market for unskilled labour is highly restricted by national barriers.

Women and Globalisation

The newly popularised ideologies, i.e. environmentalism and feminisms have questioned the culture and the process of globalisation. The environmentalists strongly criticised that the free market leads to the exploitation of natural resources and degradation of the human habitat. The feminists argued that, the market promotes sexist values. The fear express is that, Coca-Cola, Blue Jeans, Blue Film and other American imports will destroy Indian culture. Many people in India really are worried that their society is in danger of being swallowed by multinational corporations and western values. It is generally accepted that,

western values are often cited as an amorphous looming threat to Indian civilisation. An increasing trend towards consumerism, individualism and sexual promiscuity is likely to have dangerous consequences for the society and especially for women (Kaur, 1999). In every day life, we have witnessed the increasing trend towards crime against women, especially sex related crimes which is serious issue.

Malkit Kaur (1999) analysed that, on the employment side, women are marginalised and low wage employment is usually associated with women taking up unpleasant jobs under the compelling circumstances. There are indications that structural adjustment programme (SAP) is likely to shrink women's employment opportunities in the organised sector where already a minor portion (2%) of working women are employed. New opportunities are likely to be in small segment of labour intensive industries which provide low pay, irregular, part time and temporary contract jobs in which women are likely to be employed as they are seen as the docile and cheap labour force.

In India, any work being conducted by women inside the home is considered non-work. Work is considered only when a women goes out to earn money. In the context of market forces, the state's interventionist role is likely to decline because the reduction in subsidies of basic amenities such as in energy sources, sanitation's and water supply, and in basic services such as health,

not only puts a pressure on women for carrying out daily activities of the house holds and for providing these goods and services within the household. Majority of the women are working in the unorganised sector not covered by any protective legislations and hence exposed to all kinds of exploitation. (Kaur, 1999).

Impact on Social Sectors

The availability of education, health care, housing, water, electricity, cooking, fuel, old age support, sanitation and employment are the basic needs for a civilised living. The Eighth Plan 1992-93 marks the noticeable shift in the approach of Indian planning towards human development. The structural adjustment programme (SAP) and the consequent financial strategy threaten to thwart the initiatives undertaken in the plan. The allocation of social services-such as, education, wealth and family welfare, water supply, sanitation, urban development, welfare of SCs/STs and other Backward classes, labour welfare, social welfare and nutrition-in 1992-93 was 15.8% and in 1996-97, it was 13.9. Hence, there has been a decline in the central government expenditure on social services. In this background, the service sectors are likely to get further ignored in the face of adjustment. And women whose access to health, education and nutrition is already low and who suffer the most when basic services like water, sanitation, housing etc. becomes costly or inaccessible to the poor are likely to be the worst victims.

In rural areas, the indigenous resources are exploited at increased rates, leading to serious consequences to the weaker sections. At the same time, the common resources of the community like fuel, food, etc. are adversely affected by western technology in which the poor sector is unable to compete with the modern technologies. And women especially those whose life pattern is integrated with those natural resources will have to struggle for securing these basic necessities for their families.

A general broadside against globalisation is that it has widened the disparities in society because the opportunities that it has opened up have, by and large, benefitted the rich entrepreneurial class and the family of large middle class, leaving the poor to the abject mercies of market forces. In a country of enormous illiteracy more among women than among men, globalisation has increasingly contributed to the marginalisation of the poor and women in particular. P.V.L. Ramana (1999), sighted that majority of the women workers in the slums were illiterates and were occupied in the unorganised sector for paltry remuneration with no security of job and no social security or welfare benefits.

Ingrid Palmer (1991, 92) sees discrimination against women in markets and in government interventions as having social and cultural origins and acting as a restrictive practise which impedes the free flow of resources to their best economic use. Men have

greater power than women over the use of labour, land, fertilisers and cash.

Psychological Problems

Cooper (1990), a stress scientist, isolated the following stress induced behaviours in a globalised economy that perform multiple and conflicting roles. These are: (i) difficulty in thinking rationally (ii) rigidity of views (iii) withdrawal from relationships (iv) out of plan aggression and irritability (v) excessive smoking, drinking or drug abuse and (vi) inability to relax

Sociological problems

Polarization of classes, increasing incidence of poverty, sharpening of gender inequality, growth of religious fanaticism, heightened communal tensions, rise of separatist tendencies and the weakening of the nation-state have been identified as some of the damaging effects of liberalization. Many economists strongly argued that class polarization is a consequence of economic liberalization. They argue that the operation of market forces will polarize classes in both the agricultural and industrial sectors. The growing global demands for vegetables, fruits and flowers as Indian agriculture links up with the international agri-businesses and the consequent shrinkage of the area under food crops is regarded as inimical to the interests of the poor who will be made to pay higher prices for their daily food requirements (Panini, 1995).

Feminists are concerned that gender issues will be pushed to the background as liberalization proceeds. They maintain that privatization of public sector enterprises, reduction of investment in public sector units and lower government expenditure on poverty eradication programmes would hurt the interest of women (Kalpagam, 1994). The Indian experience of industrialization under the regime of socialist controls mainly middle class women have become victims of various forms of violence, including rape and dowry deaths. The structural constraints they face include a social environment dominated by patriarchy, legal frameworks which are not completely gender-neutral and unequal access to education and training. Many women are working in the unorganised sector, which is characterised by low earnings, poor working conditions and lack of social security protection.

Some social scientists have observed that, ethnic violence and communalism have increased rapidly due to economic liberalization. For example, Arjun Appadurai has seen (1998) the links between globalisation and ethnic violence in comparative perspective. Veena Das (1995) has discussed the powerful Sikh militants in India and concern with counterfeit claims to sikh identity. Das has talked about history and memory, speech and violence, gender and the state get crucial concern is with the ways in which militant discourse both represents and induces the possibility of violence through its graphic mobilization of sexual,

personal and political images and narratives and exhortations. Rajagopal (1991) in an elaborate exercise suggests a link between liberalization which according to him was inaugurated in the 1980s and the Ramjanmabhumi movement launched by the BJP and the VHP. He analyses a commercial campaign run by an advertisement firm hired by the BJP for its election campaigns earlier and compares it with the BJP-VHP propaganda campaign for Ramjanmabhumi by tracing methodological similarities. The Ramjanmabhumi campaign used the multiple interpretations of the Ram legend and the mass appeal of the TV serial Ramayana to evolve an unidimensional macho image of Ram to mobilize the masses for the Hindutva cause.

Rajagopal's analysis conflates the effects of media and advertisement techniques with the effects of liberalization and this happened when the Ramjanmabhumi campaign resulted in the demolition of Babri mosque on December 6, 1992. Economic liberalisation may create prosperity but in the process may increase ethnic strife and conflict.

Economic reforms and opportunities

In 1991, India decided to liberalise its economy and integrate into the global economic order. Globalisation has many dimensions which can be understood from the different historical processes and the philosophical angle. Globalisation does not mean simply inviting

a good number of foreign companies or multinational corporations but it suggests that the entire opening up of economy should ultimately be for building up a strength of our own. Liberalisation does mean, the elements of transparency and accountability in the functioning and procedures relating to various sectors of the economy. (Jalan, 2000).

Broadly, Rajendra Prasad (1999) highlighted the value perspective of globalisation which is beneficial for all sections of the society. These are:-

- (1) Free marketization breeds competition and efficiency.
- (2) Competition and efficiency improves quality of goods.
- (3) Liberalization increases the rate of growth of GDP.
- (4) Foreign investment flows into the domestic economy and makes it more robust.
- (5) The inflation gets reduced and the consumer is ultimately benefited by a vast choice of goods – foreign imported goods being available in the local market, decline in prices of finished goods and reduces margin of profits to global levels.
- (6) Co-operation in economy and development is increased at international levels.

- (7) Solidarity between international business/economic partners grows through consensus.
- (8) Structural adjustments and new institution building mechanism favouring liberal and forward looking economy help in productivity.
- (9) Increased productivity thus supports distributive justice and the society marches towards equity.
- (10) More employment, more growth and more development lead to satisfying standards of living and better physical quality of life.
- (11) Ultimately, it leads to more conflicts, more leisure and more affluence in society.

Turien (1999) believes that globalisation as a process must be evaluated in terms of contributions it makes to human welfare– of all people every where in the world. Globalisation is an instrument to expand and deepen the home market and develop the focus of production. Globalisation has given an universal virtuous character in each epoch of outward expansion, either in terms of moral values (extending western civilization) or as an opportunity (to become modern).

Globalisation or integration with the global economy should really provide opportunity to a country to buy and sell goods,

services, capital, labour and technology at best possible terms from the global markets. Alok Ray highlighted the importance of Coke and Pepsi in the context of the setting up of the new bottling plants along with the increase in the total market through vast promotional campaigns. This means more employment for ordinary Indian workers. Globalisation is seen as the gradual elimination of economic borders and exchange and transnational interaction (Dolan, 1993). Arun Kumar Banerji analysed the short term effects in the 1990s reforms, such as: (i) decline in inflation (ii) reduction of budget deficits and (iii) improvements in the balance of payments.

In market economic liberalisation usually means eliminating price controls and regulating trade protection in a few heavily insulated or protected sectors. Liberalisation also means freeing entry into production, services and trade, including the freedom to open a new business, to expand or break up an existing business, and to change product mix suppliers, customers, or geographical base. It decentralizes production and trading decisions to enterprises and households. It also exposes firms to customer demand, the profit motive and competition and so on. The only significant thing is that the process of economic liberalisation has afforded us a significant opportunity to come forward to learn from the experiences of others to interact on a global scale, to build up

our own strength, to secure world players and to excel (Jalan, 2001).

At the technological level, globalisation has been facilitated in the innovation of mass rapid transportation and global communication networks, leading to the automation revolution. The arrival of multinationals has promoted the introduction of sophisticated technology and automation. Globality has figured continually, comprehensively, centrally and intensely in the lives of large proportion of humanity.

Globalisation has helped to increase ecological consciousness and programmes to enhance environmental sustainability. On certain occasions, global communications have encouraged worldwide humanitarian concern, for example, in famine relief, drought relief, cyclone relief and the anti-apartheid movement. Various subordinate groups – including women, the disabled, lesbians and gay men, and indigenous peoples have grasped possibilities of global organisation in expanded campaign to reverse discrimination. Globalisation has fostered greater awareness of and respect for the diversity of human cultures.

In relation to democracy, what is recently witnessed a spread of multiparty elections and active political participation of the people to many more countries and the policy of decentralisation

and transparency are the other developments in the process of globalisation.

In this process of economic reforms, new changes have been noticed in the life style, consumption pattern, production of culture objects and their circulation (marketing) and usages in the ecology and habitat and the religions practices etc. (Singh 2000). He discussed the implications of globalisation of religious and local cultures and its impact upon societies. Its main features are:

- (1) revolution in communication technology rendering global circulation of message and symbols in the shortest possible time and proliferations and diversification of technological means for doing so;
- (2) circulation of financial capital on the global scale searching for markets and economies through international division of labour and structure of wages with introduction of high technology;
- (3) homogenisation of consumer products and market processes both in the realms of commodities and cultures symbols, styles and behavioural patterns.
- (4) Enlargement of the scope of electronic media through telephony, television, e-mail, internet, etc., putting enormous new pressures on traditional notions of sovereignty and

autonomy of states or government impacting deeply on political values, ideologies and movements.

- (5) Very high and intense degree of circulations of man power across countries and cultures creating articulate and culturally sensitive. Diaspora of migrant population contributing to homogenization of cultures on the one hand, and to elevated sense of cultural identity and distinctiveness on the other.

Globalisation For All : Corrective Steps

The consequences of globalisation has both positive and negative aspects. But it has provided new opportunities and different avenues to every body. For equitable benefits, the think tankers has provided certain corrective steps as opinions, which is vital for making the process of globalisation favourable to all.

The Secretary General of the United Nations, Kofi A. Annan (2000) believes that the benefits of globalisation are obvious; faster growth, higher living standards, and new opportunities. Annan comprehensively discussed the key points in which the process of globalisation will give benefits in an equitable manner and must work for all. He said, 'if we are to get the best out of globalisation, we must learn how to govern better at the local and national levels, and to govern better together at the international level. States need to be strengthened and they can draw strength from each other, by

acting together within common institutions based on shared rules and values. Government must work together to make these changes possible. But governments are not going to make them happen. Much of the heavy lifting will be done by private investments and charitable organisations. Probably all the best ideas will come from outside the government– from academic researchers, voluntary organisations, business and the media indeed the arts. They have a vital role to play’.

By making it work for all, he has given the importance of private companies, as well as government, have an obligation to consider the interests of the poor, when making investment choices and when pricing their products.

Former Indian Prime Minister I.K. Gujral (1997) said, Globalisation will succeed only if it is equitable and just. For that, he has given the importance of better terms of trade and market access, and greater resources for their critical developmental needs. He also talked about the benefits of technology and greater democracy and equity in global economic decision making.

The development committee, joint body of the World Bank, and the International Monetary Fund has given the importance to make globalisation work for the benefit of all. The agenda for action to secure greater prosperity and equality in this era of globalisation should focus on seven key challenges each requiring

national and international action (UNPP, 1998). These are: (I) strengthen policies and actions for human development, and adapt them to the new realities of the global economy (ii) reduce the threats of financial volatility of the boom and bust economy-and all their human costs (iii) take stronger global action to tackle global threats to human security (iv) enhance Public action to develop technologies for human development and the eradication of poverty (v) remedy the imbalances in the structures of global governance with new efforts to create a more inclusive system (vi) reverse the marginalisation of poor, small countries and (vii) build a more coherent and more democratic architecture for global governance in the 21st century.

If India is to benefit from the process of globalisation, it is very necessary to build a broad base of human capital by focussing on basic education, health, empowerment of women, protection of the poorer sections of the society and the improvement in the forms of governance at the local and national levels. The approach must be rational, transparency and equitable oriented.

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Chapter III

GLOBALISATION AND EMPOWERMENT OF WOMEN

Empowering women contributes to social development. The emerging liberal democratic and egalitarian consciousness and its emphasis on women's social, economic and political development helped in the creation of new category of women in the modern India. Indian history stands witness to the fact that several women made significant social, cultural and political contributors time to time. There is also general acceptance of the various ways in which women contribute to society and economy. In the modern globalised process, equality, Justice and a participatory democracy is the important issue for women's status. The state welfare policies and programmes helped to remove social and economic inequalities in society. So, the position of women depends more on social development, policies and priorities of the state. Since Independence, both under national and international pressure, Indian's government addressed the issue of women's development through various policies and programmes.

So the amount of the attention devoted to women and women's issue has increased dramatically in the last decades throughout the world. The Beijing platform for actions can be vital tool in this process as it appears an affirmation of women's rights as human right and out lines many of the actions necessary to realised

women's empowerment. In the globalised era, at international and national level opens up different avenues for women to make themselves upwardly particularly in the economic, social and political front.

Economic Empowerment

Economic empowerment is not merely in monetary terms but also in real value terms (Sakuntala, 2000). Economic development is closely related to the advancement of women. Globalisation is process integrating not just the economy but culture, technology and governance. People everywhere are becoming connected-affected by events in far corners of the world. More progress has been made in norms, standards, policies and institutions for open global markets than for people and their rights. Competitive markets may best guarantee of efficiency but not necessarily of equity.

The Changes in the process of globalisation defined the character of global integration, giving rise to new markets, new actors, new rules and new tools. And they created an era of globalisation that is intensifying contacts – not just between countries but between people. Multinational corporations are roaming global markets and integrating production. Many countries generated good employment opportunities by tapping into global markets. Globalisation's shifts in employment patterns have promoted and to some extent enforced the participation of women in wage employment. Globalisation has also been associated with home

work, tele-work and part-time work. In the United Kingdom the share of workers with unconventional work arrangements rose from 17% in 1965 to 40% in 1995. This is a mixed blessing.

Global economic restructuring affected the socio-economic position of women in a number of ways. Cyclical changes in the world and in national markets, increased global economic vulnerability and changes in the patterns and composition of international trade ~~are~~ impacted women's employment, incomes and their role in society. The past few decades have seen steady growth in world output, in international trade, and in flows of foreign direct investment. World output has grown faster than output throughout this period while flows of foreign direct investment have grown massively in recent years.

Privatisation impacts the economic status of women in many complex ~~ways~~. In many developing countries and in the economies in transition the public sector is the major employer of women. Unlike women in the private sector, public sector female employees enjoy fringe benefits and access to social security.

Communications technology opens new opportunities for small players to enter the global market place and political arena. Women have been innovative in using global communications for their needs. Gathering at Internet-linked computers around the country, offer in universities, groups of women sent messages to ~~each~~^{one} another, sharing their concerns and views. Women accounted for 38% of users in the

United States, 25% in Brazil, 17% in Japan and South Africa, 16% in Russia, only 7% in China and a mere 4% in the Arab States. The Internet has rapidly become not only a global communications tool but a great source of economic potential.

National Policies and Programmes to Make Globalisation Work for Women Development

The markets in today's global system are creating wonderful opportunities. For national action is necessary to succeed the obstacles in the process of globalisation and countries have to generate pro-poor growth that reduces inequalities and enhances human capabilities. They also have to create effective alliances of all actors. But without strong national governance, neither the opportunities nor the threats of globalisation can be effectively managed for human development. With appropriate policies, countries can capture global opportunities in trade, finance and employment and translate them into more human development.

National action is essential to capture global opportunities in trade, capital flows and migration-and to protect people against the uncertainties and vulnerabilities of globalisation. But the success of national action hinges on how effectively countries can negotiate the global level. The development and integration of women into the main stream of national life has been pursued as a major national policy objectives since independence. The successive five year plans have implemented programmes for the development of women in the fields of education, wealth, employment and training. For the first

time, in the sixth plan document, the concept of women and development was introduced. The plan declared that “a fair share of employment opportunities would have to be created through poverty alleviation programmes. This objective was reiterated in the seventh five year plans also. The main thrust of both the plans in the field of welfare of women was their economic upliftment through greater opportunities for income, self-employment, and wage employment. The Seventh five year plan mooted the idea of women’s development corporation to help women become economically independent and self reliant.

Women’s Issues in Poverty Alleviations and Income Generation Programmes

Several efforts have been made to improve the economic status of the women by providing them employment opportunities. Women’s development received for the first time during the six plan period. The emphasis continued to be on the economic front through programmes such as IRDP, DWCRA, TRYSEM and others. Thus, women were now seen as economic actors with a particularly important role to play in the efforts to reduce poverty.

The above stated programmes have their genesis in the poverty alleviation strategy adopted by the Indian government in the 1970s. The main aim of the programme to create rural infrastructure, generate employment and over all quality of life and nutritional status in rural areas.

The self-employment programmes were Integrated Rural Development programme (IRDP) and Training of Rural self-employment (TRYSEM). IRDP is basically a self employment programme was initiated in 1978-79 and as a major instrument of government strategy to alleviate rural poverty. The main aim of the scheme was an equipping rural youth including women with necessary skills and technology to enable them to seek self-employment under the scheme. It has emphasised at least 30 percent reservation to women in these programmes and priority should be given to women headed households which qualify for assistance under the scheme.

In the TRYSAM, attempt is made to asses the ability and attitude of women towards self-employment. It helps women to perform multiple task related to home. IRDP and its sub- scheme TRYSEM as income generation programmes were expected to be the major instruments of governments strategy to empower women. Under TRYSEM, one third of the beneficiaries were expected to be women and special attention was to be given to improve existing skills of women and to them new skills under the programmes of farmers training, fooder production and so on. The training of women under TRYSEM had witnessed a major beneficial of women. The data has given in table-I state wise from 1995-96 in which many women trained for self-employment.

Table-1

Physical achievements under the TRYSEM, State wise-1995-96				
State /Union Territory	Number of Trained Youth			
	Target	Total Trained	Women	% of women of total
1	2	3	4	5
States				
Andhra Pradesh	38271	19846	8384	42.25
Arunachal Pradesh	1000	1277	142	11.12
Assam	9000	10317	5244	50.83
Bihar	56370	26287	9764	37.14
Goa	3000	3896	1223	31.39
Gujrat	8976	10958	4655	42.48
Haryana	1010	3582	1812	50.48
Himachal Pradesh	707	894	415	46.42
Jammu and Kashmir	5023	4326	0	0.00
Karnataka	18251	16602	8686	52.31
Kerala	6080	4860	3238	66.63
Madhya Pradesh	68850	60107	15037	25.02
Maharashtra	14290	5764	816	14.16
Manipur	717	117	82	70.60
Meghalaya	791	292	212	72.60
Mizoram	770	692	507	73.27
Nagaland	617	227	82	36.12
Orissa	18840	6388	2050	32.90
Punjab	3210	2670	508	19.03
Rajasthan	10000	9269	5380	58.04
Sikkim	633	408	192	47.06
Tamil Nadu	0	11561	5577	48.24
Tripura	2500	3838	1495	38.95
West Bengal	23704	22557	10152	45.01
Uttar Pradesh	60400	63721	38142	59.86
Union Territories				
Andaman and Nicobar Islands	420	279	287	102.87
Chandigarh	-	-	-	-
Damon and Diu	12	0	-	-
Dador and Nagar				
Haveli	3	0	-	-
Delhi	-	-	-	-
Lakshadweep	3	50	0	0.00
Pondichery	3	500	353	0.00

Source: Department of Rural Employment and Poverty Alleviation, Ministry of Rural Areas and Employment, New Delhi 1996.

The above data indicates, household approach and promotion of self-employment with a view to enable women to combine both household and income generation tasks means that poor women might get some short-term economic relief from these programmes. Every state government viewing it as a scheme for awareness generation and skills formation.

Most of the developmental programmes for rural human mainly focus on subsidiary occupations which generate regular income through gainful employment one such programme is Development of women and children in Rural Areas (DWCRA). The objectives of DWCRA scheme to economic wealth, education and social Status of rural women's by providing them assistance and generating employment opportunities to earn their livelihood. One of the purpose of DWRCA was to strengths women by weaking those structures, which bring powerlessness and dependence. The overall objective is to seek larger involvement of poor women's through group formations. The group approach would contribute to higher rate of viability of self-employment schemes. The number of group formed and benefitted under the scheme of DWRCA, state wise - 1992-97 is seen from the table 2.

Table 2
Number of groups formed and Women Benefited under the Scheme of DWCRA,
State-wise-1992-97"

	States/Union Territory	1992-93			1993-94			1994-95		
		Group		No. of Women Benefitted	Group		No. of Women Benefitted	Group		No. of Women Benefitted
		Target	Achievements (Groups formed)		Target	Achievements (Groups formed)		Target	Achievements (Groups formed)	
1		2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
STATES										
1.	Andhra Pradesh	450	433	6399	540	4016	61517	734	25071	378460
2.	Arunachal Pradesh	270	200	2186	344	280	2849	143	100	1171
3.	Assam,	390	446	6773	508	518	8334	908	934	12815
4.	Bihar	780	628	8851	768	839	10906	1051	900	13386
5.	Goa	30	30	450	16	40	600	26	26	390
6.	Gujarat	390	427	5991	808	768	11405	247	315	4309
7.	Haryana	330	393	3882	376	534	6444	469	412	4998
8.	Himachal Pradesh	270	265	3061	344	270	3052	243	362	5011
9.	Jammu & Kashmir	210	155	2163	212	246	3156	704	1036	8671
10.	Karnataka	420	581	7206	524	590	7465	521	696	7555
11.	Kerala	240	319	3640	728	551	6034	182	753	8411
12.	Madhya Pradesh	810	529	6519	832	901	12464	1303	1442	14958
13.	Maharashtra	570	615	7662	704	674	7977	899	1254	1036
14.	Manipur	210	440	9330	212	451	6480	104	104	1511
15.	Meghalaya	90	86	1290	148	84	1152	352	206	2527
16.	Mizoram	90	114	114	48	120	1532	39	110	1350
17.	Nagaland	150	170	2250	280	200	3000	91	300	4356
18.	Orissa	240	208	2994	328	330	4604	430	736	10471
19.	Punjab	210	336	6526	412	545	6850	530	502	6757
20.	Rajasthan	510	251	2594	472	625	7736	847	175	2049
21.	Sikkim	60	30	420	132	29	986	139	65	901
22.	Tamil Nadu	390	522	8426	608	806	11043	721	144	4572
23.	Tripura	60	41	479	48	199	1652	39	145	1730
24.	Uttar Pradesh	1140	1281	19621	1184	1441	76232	1509	1709	79864
25.	West Bengal	300	345	4754	360	290	3409	756	371	5061
Union Territories										
1.	A&N Islands	30	40	1550	16	24	389	13	15	169
2.	Daman and Diu	0	0	0	0	0	0	11	3	8
3.	D and N Haveli	30	80	2452	16	80	1226	13	55	0
4.	Lakshadweep	30	34	1	16	2	1	13	10	0
5.	Pondicherry	30	30	450	16	30	30	13	13	183
	Total	7500	9029	128744	11000	15483	268525	13400	37964	592026

Contd./-

Table 2 Contd.

	States/Union Territory	1995-96			1996-97		
		Group		No. of Women Benefitted	Group		No. of Women Benefitted
		Target	Achievements (Groups formed)		Target	Achievements (Groups formed)	
		11	12	13	14	15	16
STATES							
1.	Andhra Pradesh	2875	17164	246923	2875	4476	62638
2.	Arunachal Pradesh	179	174	1760	179	20	184
3.	Assam	1135	856	12842	1135	16	30
4.	Bihar	3042	2697	37570	3042	357	5138
5.	Goa	36	36	540	36	11	165
6.	Gujarat	1033	1092	14152	1033	184	2178
7.	Haryana	586	571	8562	586	85	1023
8.	Himachal Pradesh	304	265	3214	304	75	827
9.	Jammu & Kashmir	880	642	8011	880	72	682
10.	KARNATAKA	1548	755	8342	1548	271	5506
11.	Kerala	720	797	8378	720	173	1745
12.	Madhya Pradesh	2795	1592	15505	2795	406	6861
13.	Maharashtra	2288	2175	27333	2288	266	3290
14.	Manipur	245	259	3952	245	0	0
15.	Meghalaya	440	182	2077	440	226	2680
16.	Mizoram	68	46	509	68	0	0
17.	Nagaland	122	106	1302	122	0	0
18.	Orissa	1623	1730	23989	1623	659	9350
19.	Punjab	663	625	7734	663	44	541
20.	Rajasthan	1238	962	13060	1238	0	0
21.	Sikkim	174	135	1644	174	46	505
22.	Tamil Nadu	1951	1363	19312	1951	178	3083
23.	Tripura	90	143	1651	90	11	127
24.	Uttar Pradesh	4068	2252	217029	4068	3162	251388
25.	West Bengal	1806	888	11092	1806	271	3338
Union Territories							
1.	Andman & Nicobar Islands	29	26	304	29	8	89
2.	Daman and Diu	16	20	110	16	8	0
3.	Dadra and Nagar Haveli	16	16	225	16	3	45
4.	Lakshadweep	14	7	7	14	2	0
5.	Pondicherry	16	-	9	16	-	0
Total		3000	37576	697088	30000	11030	361433

Up to October: 1996.

Source: Department of Rural Employment and Poverty Alleviation, Ministry of Rural Areas and Employment, New Delhi.

These programmes are over emphasising need for women to their own development as well as to their integration in the development process. Rural women are mainly benefited in these programmes and building awareness and skill formations.

Women and Employment

Article 16 (1) guarantees that “there shall be equality of opportunity for all citizens in matters relating to employment or appointment to any office under the state.” At the global level ‘employment’ issues has seen placed at the centre of international agenda. One of the common feature of globalization of policies is the increased supply of labour as a result of the increased participation of women in the labour force. It is generally noticed that large number of women are finding jobs in the unorganised manufacturing and services sectors. Women contribute to national product and welfare and generate income for household. In recent years, International and national bodies including government have focussed attentions on the developments of human resources and the greater need for investments in human capital development.

Women constitute a significant part of the work force in India. The participation and employment of status of women improved both in rural and urban areas. It is seen from the data given in Table 3 and in table 4, shows the State wise female worker participation rate.

Table :3**Work participation Rate in India (1971-1991)**

Year	Total	Persons	Males	Females
	Rural Urban			
1	2	3	4	5
1971	Total	34.17	52.75	14.22
	Rural	35.33	53.78	15.92
	Urban	29.61	48.88	7.18
1981	Total	36.70	52.62	19.17
	Rural	38.79	53.77	23.06
	Urban	29.99	49.06	8.31
1991	Total	37.68	51.56	22.73
	Rural	40.24	52.50	27.20
	Urban	30.44	48.95	9.74

Notes: 1. Excludes Assam where 1981 census could not be held and Jammu and Kashmir where the 1991 census has not been held.

2. The 1971 census figure include workers and non-workers with secondary work. The 1981 and 1991 census figures include main workers and marginal works.

Source: Annual Report, Ministry of Labour, Government of India, New Delhi.

Table 4**State - wise female worker participation Rate**

Rank in 1991	Indian/ state or Union territory	1991	1981	Rank in 1981
1	2	3	4	5
	INDIA	22.73	19.63	
1.	Sikkim	52.74	37.61	6
2.	Dadra and Nagar Haveli	48.88	41.33	3
3.	Mizoram	43.94	37.72	5
4.	Arunachal Pradesh	39.61	45.67	1
5.	Nagaland	39.25	43.20	2
6	Manipur	37.50	39.48	4
7.	Maghalya	36.69	37.49	7
8.	Andhra Pradesh	34.81	33.54	8
9	Himachal Pradesh	34.79	31.86	9
10.	Maharashtra	33.02	30.63	11
11.	Madhya Pradesh	32.53	30.64	10

Contd./-

Table 4 contd.

12.	Tamil Nadu	30.88	26.52	12
13.	Karnataka	29.27	25.33	13
14.	Gujaratr	27.08	20.66	17
15.	Rajasthan	27.01	21.06	16
16.	Daman and Diu	23.06	22.62	14
17.	Orissa	20.85	19.81	18
18.	Goa	20.48	21.88	15
19.	Kerala	16.90	16.61	19
20.	Bihar	15.69	13.50	20
21.	Pandichery	15.48	13.48	21
22.	Tripura	14.31	12.78	22
23.	Uttar Pradesh	12.87	8.07	27
24.	Andaman and Nicobar Island	12.86	10.78	23
25.	West Bengal	11.67	8.07	28
26.	Haryana	11.29	10.78	29
27.	Chandigarh	10.52	9.10	26
28.	Delhi	7.67	6.84	29
29.	Lakshadweep	7.98	9.16	25
30.	Punjab	6.78	6.16	30

Excludes Assam and Jammu and Kashmir.

Source: Women in India, Statistical Profile – 1997, Department of Women and Child Development, Ministry of Human Resources Development, G.O.I., New Delhi.

The table shows that work participation rate continues to be substantially is a rising graph of women during the census years of 1971, 1981, and 1991. The growth of population and growth of , economic during the last two decades seem to have contributed to rise of work participation during the decades (1981-91) from 19.67 percent to 22.23 percent. The percentage in state-wise female worker participation rate has increased substantially because of state's initiative policies and programmes and also special privilege for women.

Women's employment in organised Sector

The employment of women in the organised sector (both Public and Private Sector (both Public and Private) constitutes an important element in the country. Rapid changes in technology automation and the curtailment of employment have drastically impacted their opportunities for work in the organised sector. With the organised sector, public sector accounts for more employment of women than the private sector.

Table 5

Employment in public and Private Sectors as 31st March, 1995 and 1996			
Sectors	Employment (in lakh)		Percentage Charge
	As on 31st March		
	1995	1996	1996/1995
1	2	3	4
Public	196.89	192.08	-2.4
Private	82.92	85.72	+3.3
Total	279.87	277.80	-0.7

Source: Women in India, Statistical Profile – 1997, Department of Women and Child Development, Ministry of Human Resources Development, G.O.I., New Delhi

It is revealed that employment in the public sector recorded a decrease of 2.4% in 1996 over the year 1995. However, private sector employment has shown an increase of 3.3% during the period because of the global economy.

The first four –five year plans as well as the industrial policy resolution (1956) of the govt. emphasised the need to accelerate the rate of economic growth by speeding up industrialisation. It was

affected that the expansion of the industrialisation would provide direct as well as indirect employment opportunities through expansions of all sectors of economy. The growth of new industries such as petrochemicals, fertilisers and engineering offer wide scope for women. The introduction of micro electronic and information technologies would make their position even more better. It may be observed from table that women's employment in the organised sector went up from 33.40 lakh in 1986-87 to 45.7 lakh in 1995-96.

Table 6
Employment of women in the Organised Sector

Year ended 31 st March	Women Employment (in lakh)	Percentage change over previous year	Total Employment (in lakh)	Percentage of women in total employment.
1	2	3	4	5
1987	33.40	+2.2	253.88	13.2
1988	39.36	+2.9	258.97	13.7
1989	35.45	+3.2	258.97	13.7
1990	36.46	+2.8	263.53	13.8
1991	37.81	+3.7	267.33	14.1
1992	39.08	+3.4	270.56	14.4
1993	40.26	+3.0	271.77	14.8
1994	41.54	+3.2	373.75	15.2
1995	43.04	+3.6	279.87	15.4
1996	45.27	+5.2	277.80	16.3

Source: Women in India, Statistical Profile – 1997, Department of Women and Child Development, Ministry of Human Resources Development, G.O.I., New Delhi.

Above, data shows, the increase of women employment during the year 1995-96 was of the order of 5.2% as compared year 1994-95. It also shows that, the share of women's employment in the organised sector has risen steadily from 13.2% in 1986-87 to 16.3% in 1995-96. It may be observed table 7 that women's employment had

increased in all zones because of population growth and increase of industries.

Table-7
Employment of women in Different zones of the Country (organised sector)
Employment as on 31st March 1996

Sl. No.	States /V.T.	Public Sector	Private Sector	Total (3+4) In thousands
1	2	3	4	5
I.	North Zone	423.6	126.7	550.1
	1. Haryana	63.0	22.4	85.3
	2. Punjab	88.4	26.1	114.5
	3. Himachal Pradesh	33.0	5.0	38.0
	4. Chandigarh	10.7	2.9	13.6
	5. Delhi	90.1	28.3	118.4
	6. Rajasthan	117.3	40.0	157.3
	7. Jammu and Kashmir	21.1	2.0	23.0
II.	Central zone	325.7	77.1	402.8
	8. Madhya Pradesh	156.3	26.1	183.0
	9. Uttar Pradesh	169.4	50.4	219.8
III.	North-Eastern Zone	135.2	290.4	425.4
	10. Assam	72.7	277.8	350.3
	11. Manipur	15.2	0.6	15.8
	12. Meghalaya	12.3	3.1	15.4
	13. Mizoram	9.3	0.6	9.9
	14. Nagaland	10.8	1.0	11.8
	15. Tripura	14.9	7.3	22.2
IV	Easten Zone	278	136.3	414.3
	16. Bihar	104.0	23.2	127.2
	17. Orissa	54.5	10.6	65.1
	18. West Bengal	116.2	102.4	218.6
	19. Andman and Nicobar Islands	3.3	0.1	3.4
V.	Western zone	504.1	219.2	795.
	20. Gujarat	147.2	75.9	223.1
	21. Maharastra	342.2	207.8	550.1
	22. Goa	14.6	7.0	21.6
	23. Daman and Diu.	0.1	0.5	0.6
VI	South Zone	944	855.5	1799.6
	24. Andhra Pradesh	180.0	82.0	262.2
	25. Karnataka	198.3	274.8	473.1
	26. Kerala	159.9	255.2	415.1
	27. Tamil Nadu	397.8	241.4	639.2
	28. Pondichery	7.8	1.6	9.5
	Total	2610.6	1777.2	4387.8

Source: Women in India, Statistical Profile-1997, Department of Women and Child Development, Ministry of Human Resources Development, G.O.I., New Delhi.

The data indicates, the highest increase of employment was recorded in north eastern zone and southern zone. The employment over all the states showed an upward trend. There was a significant and substantial growth of woman employment in Karnataka (41.5%) a state in southern zone. The employment of organised sector traced is positive because of liberalisation policy of Indian government in which market and production facilities developed and the demand also increased.

The international labour organisation also taken a interest in the welfare of India women. This orgnaisation came into being in 1919 and immediately after its foundation a number of laws were passed to protect labour women have a special place in the history of labour legislation in India. In the 1950's and early 1960s an increase in the number of women workers was noticed in the rice mills, cashawnut factories, industries and so on. The percentage of women to total employees in industries is a noticeable trend because of planned economic development. The women's employment in industries is presented in the table 8 and 9.

Table 8

Employment of women in organised Sector by industry, 1991.		
Industry division	in thousands All India	
1.	Agricultural, Hunting foresting and Fishing	497.60
2.	Mining and Quarrying	78.65
3.	Manufacturing	596.66
4.	Electricity Gas and Water	31.24
5.	Construction	61.32
6.	Wholesale and Retail trade and Resturants and Hotels	34.29
7.	Transport, storage and communication services	139.13
8.	Financial, Insurance Real Estate and Business Services.	174.13
9.	Community, Social and Personal Services	179.13

Source: Quarterly Employment Review, March 1991, Direct General Employment and Training, Ministry of Labour, New Delhi.

Table 9

Women's Employment in Industries, 1995-96			
Industry	Women employment (in thousand) As on 31 st March.		Percentage change 1996/1995
1	2	3	4
1. Agriculture, Hunting foresting and fishing	489.2	544.7	+11.3
2. mining and Quarrying	78.6	75.5	-3.9
3. Manufacturing	760.2	877.6	+15.5
4. Electricity, Gas and water	39.0	39.8	+2.0
5. Construction	65.2	67.3	+3.2
6. Whole sale and Retail Trade and Restaurants Hotels.	39.7	41.9	+5.7
7. Transport, storage and communication	161.5	170.5	+5.6
8. Financing, Insurance, Real Estate and Business Services.	224.1	215.7	-3.7
9. Community, Social and personal services.	2446.8	2493.5	+1.9
Total	4304.1	4526.7	+5.2

Source: Quarterly Employment Review, March 1996 and 1995, Director General Employment and Training, Ministry of Labour, GOI, New Delhi.

The data marked that there was increase in women's employment in all industry but it is significant that the majority of women are employed in community social and personal services followed by manufacturing and agriculture and its allied services (Table-1). But the trend in 1995-1996, reveals that the maximum increase in women's employment was recorded in manufacturing (15.5%), followed by agriculture, hunting and foresting and fishing (11.3%). Women who constituted about a quarter of the work force in coal mines around independence but now distribute to all sectors due to rapid changes of technology and education. The fact that modern technology has brought many job facilities for women's.

Another noticeable trend in women's employment is the growing presence of women in the service sector, especially in transport, communication and financial services. Overall, the opportunities are better in banks, public financial institutions, insurance, posts and telegraphs, and the travel and tourism industry. The service sector is open only to women with education. It is to middle class women with a background of education that the service sector has become accessible. In the service sector women are concentrated in information handling, secretarial jobs, such as typing and stenography and clerical jobs, such as accounts. Recently, women's are best and more employment in All India Central Services. The women employees in central government data presented below in table 10.

Table 10
Total and women Employees in Central Government-1971 to 1991

	No. of Employees		Percentage of women to total employees
	Total (in lakhs)	Women	
1971	26.99	67369	2.51
1972	27.51	70874	2.58
1973	28.58	72879	2.55
1974	29.12	80371	2.76
1975	29.70	84051	2.83
1976	30.45	99272	3.26
1978	31.01	102321	3.30
1979	31.71	107172	3.38
1980	33.21	117139	3.53
1981	34.07	124032	3.64
1982	34.78	132010	3.80
1983	35.42	136598	3.86
1984	36.14	142011	3.93
1988	36.99	238984	6.46
1989	37.48	247158	6.60
1990	87.74	283380	7.52
1991	38.13	288999	7.58

Source: Census of central Govt. Employees, Directorate General of Employment and training, Ministry of labour, N. Delhi.

Women and Unorganised Sector

The National commission on self-employed women estimates that 94% of the total female work force is to be found in this sector (G01, 1988). Women have a noticeable presence in several segments of the unorganised sector. They participate extensively in agriculture, animal husbandry, dairying, social and agro-forestry, fisheries, handicrafts, khadi and village industries, handlooms weaving and sericulture. In agriculture their participation is substantial. Recent studies highlight that women in India are major producer of food in terms of value, volume and number of hours worked (Dash, 2000). Nearly 65 percent of all economically active men are engaged in agriculture as compared to 78 percent of women. The percentage of female main workers and female marginal workers is 16.8 % and 6.26 % respectively of the female workers, 43.56 percent are agriculture labourers, and 4.65 percent are engaged in livestock, forestry and fisheries. Thus in India women forces are overwhelmingly engaged in agriculture both as main and marginal workers and played a vital role from ancient times. In agro-forestry they are engaged in the collections of minor produce and medical herbs, as well as in agro-forestation programmes. They have also largely involved in handloom weaving and handicrafts and in a variety of khadi's and village industries. In sericulture, women's have increased their participation's in manure and fertilizer application, planting and wedding on with male members in the family.

Women play a major role in the livestock dairy sector. In most rural households, it is women who care for and milk the cattle and also sell the milk. Today, based on self-employed women's Association's (SEWA) experience, women have proved that, they are not only participants or mere sections of the dairy movement but join hands with organisations in mainstreaming women in the dairy sector. Women are an integral part of the rural economy in India through the employment opportunities in the un-organised sector.

Women: Self Help and NGOs

Self-help group model of self-employment generation seems to be a workable model. The self-help group disburses micro-credit to the rural women for the purpose of making them enterprising women and encouraging them to enter into entrepreneurship. Credit needs of the rural women are fulfilled totally through the self-help groups. Self-help groups enhance quality of status of women as participants, decision makers and beneficiaries in the democratic, economic, social and cultural spheres of life. Self-help groups encourage women to take active part in socio-economic progress of our nation. The SHGs empower women and train them to take active part in the socio-economic progress of the nation and make them sensitised, self-made and self-disciplined. The micro-credit funding sources are NABARD, SIDBI, Rasthriya Mahila Kosh, HUDCO, Commercial Banks and others have established for the purpose of lending and getting repayment in time.

Self-help groups undertake entrepreneurial activities at a smaller level with minimum capital requirements. Self-help groups

have proved that they could indeed bring about a change in the mindset of the very conservative and traditional bound illiterate women in rural areas. Self help groups have made the rural women to contribute for the socio-economic progress for the country.

The emergence of grassroots organisations self-employed women is another facet that has gaining ground since the seventies. The experience of self Employed women's Association (SEWA), working women's Forum (WWF) Annapurna Mahila Mandala and others underline the need for a clear sense of ideology direction and strategy to achieve gender-specific goals. There are numerous women's groups, such as Mahila Mandals, Mahila Samities, Stree Sanghtans and women's cooperatives proliferating in the country side. Besides these exclusively women's group, several voluntary organisation have taken up separate programmes for women.

NGOs have emerged as major actors-both in size and in impact. NGOs have been effective advocates for human development, maintaining pressure on national governments, international agencies and corporations to live up to commitments and to protect human rights and environmental standards. NGOs also create opportunities for people and protect them against the new vulnerabilities of globalisation. An they have become important pressure groups, protecting peoples rights and watching over other actors. In 1998 a group of NGOs lobbied the World Bank and other international donors to fund detailed research on the women impact of structural adjustment policies. NGOs are a strong force-both as advocates and as providers of services.

Women and Political Empowerment

Over the past decade dramatic events have changed the global political order, brought technological progress and shifted economic policies –events defining the character of globalisation and greatly accelerating it. The end of the cold war unleashed a wave of global political integration. Information and Communications technology has launched million of global conversations. Ideas and information began to flow freely as countries lifted censorship, travel restrictions and prohibitions on political parties and civil society organisations.

People's expanding awareness of their connections with the wider world is part of globalisation. Security political support for more humane global governance will depend on increasing that awareness even more – and on making people consciousness of their being citizens of the world, not just their countries. The awareness is growing of the violations of human rights and the possibilities for democratic governance. The international legal framework for human right is a great achievement, starting with the universal Declaration of Human Rights in 1948. And since the 1980s the system has been gaining ground. Most states are now independent, and more than 70% of the world's people live under fairly pluralist democratic regimes.

[The international conference of women held in Beijing in 1995 has raised the issue of status of women at global level.] Different nation adopted different strategies for the emancipation of women. In India, political rights of women and their participations in decision – making for the nation at all levels, without any discriminations have

been granted as a fundamental right by the constitution. Since it is believed that involvement and exposure of women's in active politics would increase their skills and efficiency of decision making power among various measures for the empowerment of women's status, reservations of one third seats in parliament and assemblies like in Panchayati Raj Institutions (PRI's) was considered most appropriate by various political parties as well as by women's organisations.

The realisation for increasing women's representation is not a signal of change in the attitude of the male segment of our society, but it is more due to global upsurge in women's movement in the fast few decades. In India, the most significant fact is that there is an increasing trend in the numbers of women's voters. From 1952 to 1984 percentage of women voters increased from 58.3 to 78.8%. It shows increasing political awareness among female. According to facts and figures, women's representation in politics is increasing in every elections. The data on representation of women MP's in Lok Sabha 1952-1991 is given in the table-II

Table :11

Women Members of Parliament (Lok Sabha) - 1952-1991			
Election year	Percentage of women voters	Total member of parliament	No. of women in parliament
1	2	3	4
1952	38.15	489	22
1957	38.73	494	27
1962	46.63	494	35
1967	55.14	520	31
1971	49.12	518	21
1977	54.91	542	19
1980	51.22	542	28
1984	58.60	528	42
1989	47.00	521	37
1991	47.47	529	27
1996	49.22	543	40

Source: Women in India: Statistical profile 1997: Department of Women and Child Development, Ministry of Human Resource Development, GOI, New Delhi.

[The table shows that the number of elected women MPs in all general elections is increasing and there was a remarkable representatives in 8th Lok Sabha elections (1984), because of women voters has been increasing day to day. It has been generally been found that there is a close relationship between literacy and political awareness. Levels of political awareness vary from region to region, from class to class and from community to community and are conditioned greatly by the political culture of the area, the approach of the political parties to the women and the quality of local leadership.]

It is generally accepted that the unity between political, economic and social issue that characterise the freedom movement was one of the causes for women's high degree of participations. Empowering women through not only through political participation and reserving seats for them in the parliament and assemblies but also requires cooperation and coordination as well as help of all like minded people

Women and Social Empowerment

Women are the vital human infrastructure and their empowerment –economic, educational, and political would hasten the pace of social development (Pattanaik, 2000). It is since 1980s, change came in the state's approach towards women. On the other hand, the State is trying to project itself as a protector and promoter of women's interest through its various programmes and policies.

Women could be empowered through education, legal reforms, health facilities, informations sharing and so on. This new approach is empowering the women to realise their collective strength.

The UN International conference on Population on Development (ICDD) 1994, in its guiding principle state that “the human rights of women and girl child an inalienable, integral and indivisible part of universal human rights. The full and equal participation of women in civil, cultural, economic, political and international levels and the eradication’s of all forms of discriminations on grounds of sex are priority objectives of the international community”.

The government of India has taken numerous measures and making honest endeavours to hoist the status of women and gender equality. From the Eight Five year plan included a Separate chapter on “Empowerment of women” in which the importance has given health, education, training and employment. The Ninth five year intends to empowering women as the agents of social change and development with special emphasis on gender equdity in all aspects, i.e., social, economic and political of life.

Education

Education and training interventions were considered to be one of the most appropriate and potentially effective tools for the empowerment of rural women over the last five decades the country

has taken long strides in the development and spread of educational facilities especially during the plan periods. As a result during 1961 only 13 percent of our people could read and wrote with understanding. During 1991 it rose to 52 percent.]

The recognition of female education as a social issue and is the expansion of female literacy in the twentieth century is a positive development. The expansion of female literacy in the twentieth century is a positive development. The participation of girls at all stages has been increasing steadily overtime as seen from the table 12.

Table 12
Percentage of Girls in School Enrolment by Stages, India - 1950-51 to 1995-96

Year	Primary	Middle	Sec/Hr. Sec.	Hr. Education
I-V	VI-VIII	10+2/Inter	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	36.4	26.7	22.0	20.4
1970-71	37.4	29.3	25.0	20.0
1975-76	38.1	32.9	29.6	26.7
1980-81	38.6	32.9	29.6	26.7
1985-86	40.3	35.6	30.3	33.0
1990-91	41.5	36.7	32.9	33.3
1991-92*	42.6	38.8	33.9	33.2
1993-94*	42.7	39.1	34.3	33.5
1994-95*	42.8	38.1	34.4	34.0
1995-96*	43.2	39.0	35.3	35.8

* Provisional

Source: Selected Educational Statistics 1995-96, Department Of Education, Ministry of Resource Development, New Delhi.

The data shows in every stages of education there has been increasing the enrolment of girls in school because of every corner of world, the girls education has given the prime aim for development and every state has formulated special policies and programmes to achieve this goal. Education is helpful for women's access to employment and skill.) The ministry of Human Resource Development has brought under several programmes for providing special access to education at all levels for women. Education for women's equality (EME) or Mahila Samakhya (ms) programme was formulated in pursuance of the objectives of women's empowerment and equality as enunciated by the National Policy of Education, 1986. The National Literacy Mission through the total Literacy Campaigns (TLCs) has played a key role in raising awareness on issues of gender equality as have the women's development programme, "Mahila Samakhya" and several other programmes. Recently, India government has formulated special programmes for women.

Since independence, there is rising literacy because of commitment to mainstreaming women's concerns through education in which Indian state's has formulated special programmes and polices. The census 2001, shows that the rapidly increase the female literacy rate in every state comparatively to 1991 state wise literacy role. This shows in table 13.

Table: 13

Female Literacy Rate State wise : 1991 and 2001				
State / Union Territory	Total Literacy Rate (F.M)		1991 Literacy rate	2001 Literacy Rate
	1991	2001		
Andhra Pradesh	44.09	61.11	32.72	51.17
Arunachal Pradesh	41.59	54.74	29.69	44.24
Assam	52.89	64.28	43.03	56.03
Bihar	38.48	47.53	22.89	33.57
Goa	75.51	82.32	67.09	75.51
Gujarat	61.29	69.97	48.64	58.60
Haryana	55.89	68.59	40.47	56.31
Himachal Pradesh	63.86	77.13	52.13	68.08
Karnataka	56.04	67.04	44.34	57.45
Kerala	89.81	90.92	86.17	87.86
Madhya Pradesh	44.29	64.11	28.85	50.28
Maharashtra	64.87	77.27	52.32	67.51
Manipur	59.89	68.87	47.60	59.70
Meghalya	49.10	63.31	44.85	60.41
Mizoram	82.27	88.49	78.60	86.13
Nagaland	61.65	67.11	54.75	61.92
Orissa	49.09	63.61	34.68	50.97
Punjab	58.51	69.95	50.41	63.55
Rajasthan	38.55	61.03	20.44	44.34
Sikkim	56.94	69.98	46.76	61.46
Tamil Nadu	62.66	73.47	51.33	64.55
Tripura	60.44	73.66	49.65	65.41
Uttar Pradesh	41.60	57.36	25.31	42.98
West Bengal	57.70	69.22	46.36	60.22
* Uttaranchal	--	72.28	--	60.26
* Jharakhanda	--	54.13	--	39.38
* Chattisgarh	--	65.18	--	52.40
Union Territories	--	--	--	--
Andman and Nicobar	73.02	81.18	65.46	75.29
Chandigarh	77.81	81.76	72.34	76.65
D & N Haveli	40.71	60.03	26.98	42.99
Delhi	75.29	81.82	66.99	75.00
Lakshadweep	81.77	87.52	72.89	81.56
Pondichary	74.74	81.49	65.63	74.13

* New State

Sources: (1) Census of India 1991

(2) Provisional Estimates, Census of India 2001.

The census report comparatively revealed that although the conditions of women's education improved. Especially, in Utrtaranchal, Arunachal Pradesh, Goa, Haryana, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa and Rajasthan the literacy rate increase doubled comparatively to 1991 census. Kerala in top position. Over all the situation has changed because of state government's intensively approach to upliftment the status of women.

Education helps women overcome social prejudice, take control of their lives and assume a status and identity beyond child bearing, there by allowing them to participate more fully in public life of their community. It opens up wider horizons, creates new opportunities and most importantly empowers women with choice. Educating people and moving their skills up the ladder are essential for raising productivity – and for attracting foreign direct investment. The quality of labour and its skill level are an important element in capturing global opportunities. Education and training are essential to build the necessary human capital.

Women and Health

The WHO is the principal symbol of health in world with unique access to various public and private institutions of the member states. The WHO defines health “ as a state of complete physical mental and social well being which is essential for leading a productive life and it is not merely the absence of disease or infirmity”. The female health improved substantially as a result of

sharp declines in the incidence of infectious and parasitic diseases, improved access to safe water, sanitation and primary health care, and better nutrition. The WHO campaign recognised women as the foremost providers of primary health care. In the developing world, women provide three quarters of all health care by the family, and especially women teach their families about hygiene and cleanliness and help introduce new health related technologies to their communities.

To argument these gains, in 1978 the World health Organisation (WHO) launched a global campaign: "Health for All by the year 2000" Its objective was the provision of global primary health care, which could solve three quarters of the world's health problems. The campaign identified improved water and sanitation, basic nutrition, immunization, and training of primary health care workers as top priorities.

In order to provide further betterment, a safe Motherhood initiative was formulated in the mid-1980s by the World Health Organisation, the World Bank and United Nations population fund, to halve maternal mortality and morbidity by the year 2000 through relatively low-cost strategies.

Global travel spreads more than ideas. The latest estimates by UNAIDS and the World health Organisation show that more than 33 million people were living with HIV/AIDS at the end of 1998. AIDS will kill about 2 million women, the majority in Sub-Saharan Africa,

while in Asia, over the last three years alone, up to 2,000,000 women may have been infected. Despite negative trends, the common Wealth Expert Group on Women and Structural Adjustment puts the adverse effects of austerity policies into sharp focus, particularly as they affected health and education. There is also guarantee access to protective measures against contraction of AIDS and other sexually transmitted diseases; provide counseling and support services for AIDS victims and their families. Putting them on the global agenda since the first world conference on women, held in Mexico city in 1975, women's health issues have started receiving global attention. The forward-looking strategies for the advancement of women to the year 2000, adopted at the Nairobi conference as a framework for action for improving women's states, urged actions to identify and reduce risks to women's health and called for promoting "the positive health of women at all stages of life". Health Net is a network information service supporting health care workers in more than 30 developing countries, including 22 in Africa. The network provides summaries of the latest medical research email connectivity and access to medical libraries.

In India, women are increasing beginning to get a better deal. In successive five year Plans, several measures have been taken to provide health facilities to people. In this context, special emphasis was placed on providing minimum health facilities integrated with family welfare and nutrition of women and children. On the positive front, there has been a steady decline the incidents of females

mortality and morbidity over the years. The female mortality rate fall from 9.6 in 1990 to 9.1 in 1993. The infant rate among females also declined from 135 in 1973 to 75 in 1993 for 1000 live births.

Table 14

Infant Mortality Rates (IMR) (per thousand live births)

Years	Females	Males	Persons
1973	135	132	134
1978	131	123	127
1983	105	105	105
1988	93	96	94
1993	75	73	74

Source: Sample Registration System
Registrar General, India

Government figures shows that the integrated Child Development Programme (ICDS) has brought down female infant mortality rate from 131 in 1978 to 75 in 1993. The time series shows a decline of 60 points in total IMR during the two decades (1973 to 1993). Variations in female and male infant mortality was almost the same i.e. 60 and 59 points respectively. The life expectancy has risen sharply according to the report and life expectancy at birth for females increased from 49 in 1975 to 61.7 years for the period of 1991 – 96. The data on life expectancy at birth has given in table – 15.

Table 15

Life expectancy at Birth (in years)			
S. No.	Year / Period	Male	Female
1	2	3	4
1.	1951	32.5	31.7
2.	1961	41.9	40.6
3.	1971	46.4	44.7
4.	1970-75	50.5	49.0
5.	1976-80	52.5	52.1
6.	1981-85	55.4	55.7
7.	1986-90	57.7	58.1
8.	1991-96	60.6	61.7

Source: Sample Registration System
Registrar General, India

The above figure indicate that life expectancy at birth has been constantly rising in the case of both females and males. For the quinquenium 1991-96, the female's life expectancy at birth is 61.7 year as against 60.6 years for males indicating there by that females for now expect for line longer than males.

Life expectancy and infant survival conditions are better. Early marriages have shown short decline. Government is certainly a pre-eminent actor in healthcare and development. And relatively speaking, health condition in India are more favourable than in some of the neighbouring South Asian countries.

Globalisation and Cultural Impacts

The contacts between people and their cultures-their ideas, their values, their way of life-have been growing and deepening in unprecedented ways. Television now reaches families everywhere. For many, the exposure to new cultures is exciting, even empowering. Culture has become important economically. People are connected about the spread of "global consumer culture an cultural homogenisation". Global producers market global products brands like Nike and Sony that symbolise the life styles that peopl aspire to.

The process of globalisation also accelerates the rapid change of consumption pattern life style and so on.] The expansion of roa instances and means of communication has brought chang

especially in rural area. It is possible to have individual to individual, group to individual and group to group communication contacts globally (Singh 2000). Rao estimates that in the rural area there is now a prosperous middle class of more than 4 million households who constitute a vast market for industrial products (Rao, 1994 : 8) Rao's analysis of consumption expenditure reveals a growing rural market for bicycles, portable radios, table fans, swimming machines, black and white television sets, pressure cookers, mixers/grinders and the like, even during the recessionary year of 1992-93. Rao demonstrates that the consumption of even the rural poor is increasing on items such as nail polish, lipstick, face cream, shampoo, toothpastes and like (Ibid:22). The middle classes are increasingly taking to user of designer dresses marketed by the multinationals. The use of cosmetics, soaps and detergents have reached all sectors of people in India (Singh, 2000:53).

The most important social aspect of the empowering process was seen as mobilising women in groups and collections thereby, strengthening them to share and question their life situations. And while some argue that globalisation is an ideological process imposing a global culture, others argue that while cultural products flow around the world, people receive and use them differently.

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CONCLUSION

Empowerment is a multidimensional and dynamic process. The objective of empowerment is promote self confidence and consciousness and they need to empowered in all walks of life. The process of globalisation has fostered greater awareness and comparing for gender equality. Both the western liberal systems and state socialist system have shared an emphasis on women's equality – an equality which treats women like men. Global markets, global technology, global ideas and global solidarity can enrich the lives of people everywhere, greatly expanding their choices. The growing interdependence of people's lives calls for shared values and a shared commitment to the human development of all people. This era of globalisation is opening many opportunities for millions of people around the world. Increased trade, new technologies, foreign investments, expanding media and internet connections are fuelling economic growth and human advance. Both national and international policy documents now acknowledge that gender discrimination is one of the most pervading forms of institutionalized deprivation and for that they rectify various programmes and policies are aimed to integrate women and make them economically independent and self-reliant. Since last decades, the country is undergoing a process of

structural adjustment and economic policies and structural adjustment programme is an privatization to make industry more efficient and profitable. This policy is helpful for promotion of an economy and protect the workers. Government is concerned with the women development since the beginning of the planned development. At present a number of schemes and institutions are available and are making special effort for women's development. Some of the relevant schemes are (a) Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP) with 40 percentage allocation of women, (b) Training of Rural Self Employment (TRYSEM) with 40 percentage allocation of women, (c) Jawahar Rozgar Yojana (JRY) with 30 percentage reservation for women and (d) Development of women and children in Rural Areas (DWCRA) is a programme which has quarter promise for women and is jointly sponsored by the central government, state government and the UNICEF, the focus of progrmmes and activities that were designed for women was basically to provide welfare services and opportunities such as education, health, maternity, and child welfare nutrition and training.

Experience with poverty alleviation, wage and income generation programmes revealed that the status of women, their fertility, nutrition, health and the other developmental indications are integrally linked with literacy and educational opportunity. Education

is not only builds up knowledge and information but also helps the understand the complexities process of globalisation.

Trade liberalising process of India have integrated women in global economy. Globalisation would helpful women in various ways. It will increase employment opportunity due to the introduction of special facilities in both the private and Public sectors. The proportion of women worker in public and private employment has been changing over the years. The long-term trend in economic participation of women indicates overall increase in both in percentage of worker to total female. population and in their percentage to the total labour force. The sector wise examination of women's rights and opportunities for economic participation, indicates that the major forces affecting within the economy-in agriculture, industry and the economy as a whole. The expanding role of the private sector, the structural adjustment programme and economic reform – the act effect of all this is to provide benefits in women's employment.

The government of India also taken certain schemes and intervention to protect and improve the status of women. In the industrial sector, the government itself has anticipated that adjustment to economic reform will treat significant jobs losses and has made a 'safety net' provision in the form of the VRS. The implementation of the VRS seems to have softened the adjust problems of workers.

Development opened some new avenues to women. Modernisation, social change and education have enabled women to enter new profession or occupations which were totally closed to them earlier. For example, the presence of women in the public services, and other Jobs in the tertiary sector is now an accepted fact. Economic development of the last five decades has created sufficient employment.

Participation and empowerment approach placed importance on creating women's organisations with a view to challenging their subordination at various levels. Education and awareness helps for greater participation and integration for women in the administrative, political and economic decision-making institutions of the state. The Indian state has attempted to increase the participation in political process by the method of reservation at the local level bodies of self-governance through constitutions (seventy-third Amendment Act, 1992) and (through the Eighty-first Amendment Bill on Reservation of Women in parliament and legislation). The governments programme for empowerment of women have talked of decentralisation, initiative and flexibility. The programme of economic reform contributes to the delegation of powers to different authorities and to decentralisation of power. There has been more positive action on the part of the government to integrate women in the decision making process. It

appears that, women's real actual political participation will necessitate take changes both in value and in the social structure.

[Thus, the post-independence period has witnessed a number of shifts in the perception of the nature of women's problems as well as solutions in the state policies with regard to women's role in development.] Create awareness among women on various activities of different poverty alleviation programmes of central and state governments mass campaign highlighting the anticipated benefits to women through their participation, for the development of self, group society, rural development etc. though the government claimed that the programme intended to provide support services with a view to help women reduce drudgery of household and child-care tasks by making child development facilities through programmes.

[Globalisation for an Indian women would have been interpreted as amelioration of women's status, an active participation in economic and political process, decline the incidents of female mortality, growing the literary rate, her empowerment so that she could overcome her predicaments, and her active participation in all democratic institutions of society to ensure equality and justice. Women are not holding positions of power and prestige, they are also becoming aware of their rights and issue of gender equality.]

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