

STATE OF WOMEN IN URBAN LOCAL GOVERNMENT INDIA

DESCRIPTION OF THE COUNTRY

1.1 Socio-economic profile

India, with a population of around one billion persons is the second most populous country in the world after China. Located in South Asia, the country is spread over an area of 3.2 million square km, which makes it the seventh largest country in terms of area. The country was under British Rule for about one hundred and fifty years before 1947, when it became independent. In the year 1950, it declared itself a republic.

India is a federal system of government with 25 states and 7 union territories. It has a population of about 1 billion out of which 26 percent live in urban areas. The per capita GDP of India is about US\$ 370. Agriculture accounts for 31.1 percent of the economy, while industry and services account for 23 percent and 45.9 percent respectively, of the economy. The sex ratio of the population is 48.1 percent and is rather skewed in favour of males. The most favourable sex ratio in the country is in the state of Kerala at 50.9 percent, while the Union Territory of Lakshadweep has the worst sex ratio at 40 percent. Life expectancy at birth for women is 58.7 years and for men it is 57.7 percent. The overall literacy rate is 52.2 percent. Literacy among men is 64.1 percent and among women it is 39.3 percent. Women make up about 28 percent of the labour force.

These overall figures show considerable disparities between men and women, which arise from traditional views of men being superior to women. Tables 1 and 2 provide overall demographic and socio-economic data for India. However, India is a diverse country and these figures vary from state to state. Breakdown of vital socio-economic and demographic data by states is annexed to this report.

Table 1: Key Census Statistics (1971–91)

		1991	1981	1971
Population	(Mn.)	846	683	548
Density	(PER KM ²)	273*	230*	177
Persons per household	(NO.)	5.52*	5.55*	5.46
Districts	(NO.)	466	412	360
AUs & Towns	(NO.)	3768	3378	2590
Villages (inhabited)	('000s)	627	579	576
Rural population	(MN.)	629	524	439
Urban population	(MN.)	218	159	109
Urban as % of total	(%)	25.7	23.3	19.9
Male population	(MN.)	439	353	284
Female population	(MN.)	407	330	264
Females per 1000 males	(NO.)	927	934	930
Workers*	(MN.)	306	242	181
Male	(MN.)	219	179	145
Female	(MN.)	87	63	36
Birth rate	(PER 1000)	32.5	37.2	41.2
Death rate	(PER 1000)	11.4	15.0	19.0

Expectation of life at birth	(YEARS)	58.2	50.5	45.6
Male	(YEARS)	57.7	50.9	46.4
Female	(YEARS)	58.7	50.0	44.7
Literacy rate	(%)	52.2#	43.6†	34.5
Male	(%)	64.1#	56.4†	46.0
Female	(%)	39.3#	29.8†	22.0

Note : Birth rate and death rate under 1991, 1981 & 1971 relate to 1981-90, 1971-80 and 1961-70 respectively; expectation of life at birth to 1991-92, 1971-80 and 1961-70. Workers are total of main and marginal.
* Excluding Assam and J&K; † Excluding Assam; # Excluding J&K.

Source : Statistical Outline Of India, 1999– 2000.

Table 2: GNP per capita

GNP (US\$ BILLIONS) 1997	GNP ANNUAL GROWTH RATE 1975-95	GNP PER CAPITA (US\$) 1997	GNP PER CAPITA ANNUAL GROWTH RATE (%) 1975-95	AVERAGE ANNUAL RATE OF INFLATION (%)		GDP (US\$ BILLION) 1997
				1985-96	1996	
357.4	5.0	370	2.8	9.0	6.3	381.6

Source: Human Development Report 1999, UNDP.

There still exists a significant gap in the education levels of men and women. The literacy level is a lowly 39.3% for women. Regional disparities are also quite significant, with Kerala having achieved cent percent literacy and Rajasthan having a dismal 20.4 percent literate women population.

Table 3: Levels of education

FEMALE ADULT LITERACY		
Rate %	Index (1985-100)	As % of male rate
1997	1997	1997
39.4	134	59
FEMALE PRIMARY NET ENROLMENT		
Ratio (as % of relevant age group)	Index (1985-100)	As % of male rate
1997	1997	1997
71.0	111	86
FEMALE SECONDARY NET ENROLMENT		
Ratio (as % of relevant age group)	Index (1985-100)	As % of male rate
1997	1997	1997
48.0	133	68
FEMALE TERTIARY STUDENTS		
Per 100,000 Women	Index (1985-100)	As % of male ratio
1996	1996	1996
481	134	61

Source : Human Development Report 1999. UNDP, Oxford University Press.

Urban population increased 3.5 times from 62.4 million in 1951 to 217.6 million in 1991 with an average annual growth rate at 3.2 per cent. In 1951 the urban population accounted for a mere 17.3 percent of the total Indian Population. In the next four decades this figure has gone up to 25.7 percent. This figure is expected to touch 33.16 percent by the year 2016. Similar to other statistics the rate of urbanization varies considerably from state to state. For example in the period 1981-

1991 the State of Kerala saw a growth of 61 percent, while the neighbouring state of Tamil Nadu grew the least at a mere 19.6 percent.

India has 23 cities with populations over 1 million. However, only about 33 percent of the urban population lives in these cities, including about 19 percent who live the top 5 urban centers.

Table 4: Urban agglomerations/cities with more than 1 million populations

Rank in 1991	City	1981		1991	
		Population	Percentage to total urban population	Population	Percentage to total urban population
1	Greater Mumbai	8,243,405	5.17	12,596,243	5.79
2	Calcutta	9,194,018	5.77	11,021,918	5.06
3	Delhi	5,729,283	3.59	8,419,084	3.87
4	Chennai (Madras)	4,289,347	2.69	5,421,985	2.49
5	Hyderabad	2,545,836	1.60	4,344,437	2.00
6	Bangalore	2,921,751	1.83	4,130,288	1.90
7	Ahmedabad	2,548,057	1.60	3,312,216	1.52
8	Pune	1,686,109	1.06	2,493,987	1.15
9	Kanpur	1,639,064	1.03	2,029,889	0.93
10	Nagpur	1,302,066	0.82	1,664,006	0.76
11	Lucknow	1,007,604	0.63	1,669,204	0.77
12	Surat	913,806	0.57	1,518,950	0.70
13	Jaipur	1,015,160	0.64	1,518,235	0.70
14	Kochi	685,836	0.43	1,140,605	0.52
15	Coimbatore	920,355	0.58	1,100,746	0.51
16	Vadodara	744,881	0.47	1,126,824	0.52
17	Indore	829,327	0.52	1,109,056	0.51
18	Patna	918,903	0.58	1,099,647	0.51
19	Madurai	907,732	0.57	1,085,914	0.50
20	Bhopal	671,018	0.42	1,062,771	0.49
21	Visakhapatnam	603,630	0.38	1,057,118	0.49
22	Varanasi	797,162	0.50	1,030,863	0.47
23	Ludhiana	607,052	0.38	1,042,740	0.48
	Total	50,721,402	31.81	70,996,726	32.63
	Total Urban Population	159,462,547		217,611,012	

Note: Population for the year 1971 and 1981 is for the jurisdiction which prevailed in 1981 and has not been adjusted for the 1991 set up. In other words, 1991 population includes components attributable to inclusion of new areas in the urban agglomeration or expansion of jurisdiction of the 1991 census.

Source: Census of India, Paper – I, Vol. I and II, Final Population Total 1991.

1.2. Politics and Governance

The political and administrative structure of the country is largely inherited from the British. The British introduced local democracy in India by constituting municipal councils and the municipal corporations in the last quarter of the nineteenth century. They also provided a federal structure to the country with the Government of India Act, 1935.

The country today has a quasi-federal structure. Apart from the Government of India in New Delhi, there are twenty-five States with their own state governments. The Seventh Schedule to the Constitution of India divides the subjects of State

activity between the Union and state governments. The Union (Centre) as well as State governments in India both have a parliamentary form of government based on the Westminster pattern. The executive powers of the central government are vested in the Council of Ministers with the Prime Minister at its head. Similarly, the executive powers in the State governments are vested in its Council of Ministers with the Chief Minister at its head. However, following the Westminster pattern, the Head of the State is not the Prime Minister but an indirectly elected President, who broadly performs the role as the Head of State. India has a bicameral parliament, with the Lower House directly elected by the people on the lines of the House of Commons in the U.K. or the House of Representatives in the U.S.A. The Upper House is more like the U.S. Senate. It is a permanent house with one-third members retiring every two years. Like in the U.S.A. the Vice President of the country presides on the Upper House.

Although local government in India is a subject of the State governments, the seventy-third and the seventy-fourth amendments to the Constitution of India now make it obligatory for the State governments to organize local bodies, to hold regular elections to them and to give them appropriate finances.

The urban local bodies are of three grades; municipal corporations for cities with a population of more than (0.3 million), municipal councils for towns smaller than this population limit and nagar panchayats for villages in transition to becoming towns. These bodies are elected on a universal suffrage basis, with all citizens above the age of eighteen years of age having a right to vote.

The rural local bodies are organized in three tiers, the village panchayat at the village level, the block panchayat samiti for about 100 villages and a district council for a district comprising about 1000 villages. The rural local bodies do not have many resources of their own. They actually spend the state government funds as implementing agencies.

The civil service in India is a closed system, with a very limited scope for lateral entry at senior level. Most permanent officials join the service as a lifetime career through an entrance examination/ interview conducted by the Public Service Commission. The age of entry is usually 21 to 30 years and the age of retirement either 58 or 60 years of age.

The subject matter of the Government of India is divided between the Union Government and the State Governments. The respective governments recruit most of their employees independently. However, a unique feature of the Indian system is the existence of three All India Services, the Indian Administrative Service, the Indian Police Service and the Indian Forest Service. The Government of India recruits the members of these services although they work with the States where they are allotted (their cadres) for most of their career. However, the Government of India obtains the services of these officers at higher and middle management levels through deputation for a period of about five years. This enables a regular exchange of officers between the field and the central levels. Senior Indian Administrative Service Officers who have had their initial grounding in different States of India thus man the top secretariat posts in most ministries of the Government of India.

India is a democratic republic and full freedom of speech and religion is allowed to all its citizens. The Constitution of India guarantees the following Fundamental Rights to the citizens of India.

Right to Equality: This includes equality before law (Article 14), prohibition of discrimination on grounds of religion, race, caste, sex or place of birth (Article 15) and equality of opportunity in matters of employment (Article 16).

Right to Freedom: This includes protection of certain rights regarding freedom of speech etc. (Article 19), protection of life and personal liberty (Article 21) and protection against arrest and detention in certain cases (Article 22).

Right against Exploitation: This includes prohibition of traffic in human beings and forced labour (Article 23) and prohibition of employment of children in factories etc.

Right to Freedom of Religion: This includes freedom of conscience and free profession, practice and propagation of religion (Article 25), freedom to manage religious affairs (Article 26), freedom as to payment of taxes for promotion of any particular religion (Article 27) and freedom as to attendance at religious instruction or religious worship in certain educational institutions (Article 28).

Cultural and Educational Rights: These include protection of interests of minorities (Article 29) and the right of minorities to establish and administer educational institutions (Article 30).

The Constitution of India further guarantees the right to move to the Supreme Court for enforcement of the above rights.

India has a multitude of political parties; some organized on economic ideology, some on religious ideology while some on local and linguistic aspirations. However, only three or four parties really have a presence at the National level; the Congress Party that was the ruling party for more than forty years, the Bharatiya Janata Party (the present ruling party with its allies), the Janata Dal and the Communists. There are many religion-based parties like the Akali Dal (Sikhs in Punjab), the Muslim League etc. The regional parties like the DMK and AIADMK (Tamil Nadu), Shiv Sena (Maharashtra), Telugu Desam (Andhra Pradesh) and some parties in the smaller North-Eastern States have been contenders of powers in the State governments of their respective states. However, at the National level, only three parties have been able to provide the Prime Minister i.e. the Congress, the BJP and the Janata Party/Janata Dal in alliance with smaller parties.

An independent body called the Election Commission of India conducts elections to the parliament and the state legislatures in India. The elections are based on a universal adult suffrage with voting rights to all citizens above eighteen years of age. The lower houses of the national and the state legislatures have a five-year term although elections are regularly held before this term expires.

The elections to the local bodies have been brought under the purview of a similarly constituted body called the State Election Commission. These bodies also usually have a five-year term. It is statutorily not possible to supersede the local bodies for long periods or to keep them under Government-appointed Administrators.

An age of more than twenty-one years is usually an eligibility condition for getting elected to an elective post in a local body. The eligibility for being a member of the Lower House of the National or state legislatures similarly prescribes the minimum age of twenty-five years. A minimum age-limit of thirty years is similarly a qualification for membership of the Upper Houses of the National and State

legislatures. A minimum age-limit of thirty-five years is prescribed as a qualification for holding the post of the President or Vice-President of the Indian Republic.

The elections to both the urban and rural local bodies in India are ward based. The local area is divided into wards of more or less equal population. Each ward sends one representative to the concerned local body. After the Seventy-third and Seventy-fourth Amendments to the Constitution of India, one-third of the wards are reserved for women candidates and only women candidates can contest elections from these wards. Apart from the reservation for women candidates, some other wards are reserved for candidates from socially underprivileged sections.

Political parties are allowed to take part in elections to all local bodies except the village panchayats in India. It is, however, not uncommon for locally influential politicians to form local fronts to contest and win elections to municipal councils and the smaller municipal corporations in the country.

India became independent in the year 1947. In all the elections held since independence, women had the voting rights. The pattern of participation by women in the national elections is provided in Table 5.

Table 5: Participation of women in national elections

Election Year	Voting % of men	Voting % of women	Total Seats Contested by women	Seats won by women	% seats won of contested seats	Total Seats	% of women members
1952	53.00	37.10	51	23	45.09	499	4.40
1957	56.00	38.77	70	27	38.57	500	5.40
1962	62.10	46.63	68	35	51.47	503	6.70
1967	66.70	55.48	66	31	48.43	523	5.90
1971	69.70	49.15	86	22	27.50	521	4.20
1977	65.62	54.96	70	19	25.70	544	3.40
1980	57.69	51.22	142	28	19.70	544	5.14
1984	63.61	68.17	421	159	28.30	544	7.90
1989	70.90	43.90	189	28	14.80	525	5.30
1991	52.56	47.42	307	33	10.75	503	6.60

Source: PIB, Government of India, 1998.

The percentage of seats won against the seats contested is showing a declining trend only because the number of women contesting elections has increased sharply. However, it may be seen that voting for women in all tiers of Government has always been a feature of the Indian polity since 1947.

1.3. Participation and representation of women in politics and administration

Political participation

Women play a dual role in politics – as voters and political representatives. On the voting front, though adult franchise was granted in 1937, it was the progressive spirit that pervaded the making of the constitution that made it a reality. The Constitution of India guarantees equal rights to men and women as voters and citizens.

Generally, in India, registration and participation of women as contestants is less than that of men (see Table No.5). In recent past, records show that there has been an increase in the percentage of women who vote. Such participation is also

contingent on the mobilisation efforts made by political parties, NGOs, Action Groups and the general awareness among the community of the importance of women exercising their franchise. Again, a note of caution is required, lest it be assumed that political participation always indicates political awareness on the part of the woman voter. Usually, however, countries that do hold regular elections show an improved recognition of women as a political constituency and parties and candidates tend to adopt pro-women stances and appeal specifically to women's votes, especially at the time of elections. This becomes very evident when we look at consecutive elections in the Indian context, wherein there is a growing consciousness of the need to woo the woman voter and the need to pay attention to the needs and issues of women, in the election manifestos of political parties.

Since Independence, due to exercise of their franchise, Indian women have been exposed to the political processes and are showing increasing awareness about not only lack of rights but also their utility. A majority of illiterate rural women are also politically sensitive and aware of the various issues confronting them. Women get easily mobilised in the political processes by the political parties who approach women very often for party issues and for short-term goals by winning elections, but not for long-term goals of bringing about social changes and gender equality in political power-sharing.

In all the elections held since independence, women had the voting rights. The percentage of seats won against the seats contested is showing a declining trend only because the number of women contesting elections has increased sharply. However, it may be seen that voting by women in all tiers of Government has always been a feature of the Indian Polity since 1947. Due to the paternalistic family and male dominated political structures which do not provide space for women in decision-making bodies, women constituted 3.1% of the total contestants in 1996 election and did not occupy more than 6.10% of the total seats in the state legislative assemblies and Parliament.

The number of women contestants in Parliamentary elections has not increased significantly over the years. Political parties are still reluctant to field women candidates at national level.

In the early days of the Indian republic, the number of women representatives was a mere 22, which was a lowly 4.4% of the total seats in the Lok Sabha. The sixth Loksabha in the year 1977 saw an all time low of just 19 woman representatives. The twelfth Lok Sabha had 44 women i.e. 8.8% of the total.

Table 6: Increase in the share of women members of Parliament

	1996	1998
Total Constituencies	543	543
Total No. of women candidates	491	271
Total No. of women winners	40	43
Women voters	15,10,28,30	16,68,21679
Increase in women voters against 1996		5%

Source : Election Commission Of India, 1998.

As analysed by the Prasad Leela Devi (1992) – Even as early as the 19th century Indian women had begun to appear on the national scene in public and political activity. Women were not only being accepted in public activity but were organising themselves to fight for their rights in different walks of life.

Though women constitute nearly half of the population of the country, it was only after Independence that efforts were made to promote women's participation in public life. Though the Constitution of India provides for the Government to make special provisions to safeguard the interests of women as detailed in Article 15 (3) and Article 39, it has not made any provision for reservation for women in respect of jobs and political offices. However the 73rd and 74th Constitutional Amendment Act mandated reservation of one-third seats in the village, block, districts, municipal elected bodies in India. As a consequence, women had not advanced much politically and economically. From the records available of the past 50 years, since the independence, it is seen that the strength of women in the political field as reflected in State legislatures remained at an average of 3 % to 5% of those elected. At the level of Parliament, the position of women members has varied between 5 to 7%.

Table 7: State-wise number of women candidates fielded in elections in 1998

State / Union Territory	No. of Women candidates	No. of Women who won
Uttar Pradesh	56	9
Madhya Pradesh	28	4
West Bengal	21	5
Bihar	21	4
Rajasthan	20	3
Maharashtra	20	2
Andhra Pradesh	18	2
Tamil Nadu	13	1
Delhi	10	2
Orissa	10	2
Kerala	10	1
Karnataka	10	0
Punjab	9	1
Gujarat	7	4
Haryana	6	1
Assam	3	1
Meghalaya	2	0
Chandigarh	2	0
Tripura	1	0
Goa	1	0
Jammu & Kashmir	1	0
Manipur	1	1
Daman & Diu	1	0
Arunachal Pradesh	0	0
Mizoram	0	0
Nagaland	0	0
Sikkim	0	0
Andaman & Nicobar Islands	0	0
Dadra and Nagar Haveli	0	0
Lakshadweep	0	0
Pondicherry	0	0
Himachal Pradesh	0	0

Source : Election Commission Of India, 1998.

Table 8: Women in Government

At all levels (%)	At Ministerial levels (%)	At Sub – Ministerial levels (%)
5.8	3.2	6.2

Source : Election Commission Of India, 1998.

It is seen that women in large numbers have come out against atrocities on women, in defence of their traditional control over crucial resources, water, forests, and land, mass literacy drives and other issues. They are also coming out in large numbers over ecological degradation, price rise or protests against police repression, etc. While there is the increased participation in grass root political movements, it is not getting translated into a growing share of women in the formal political structure of the country.

Amongst the several reasons for such a situation is the growing money power and muscle power required to contest even the smallest of elections in India, the intimidation, violence and slander that a woman candidate has to face combined with the traditional male domination that seeks to keep her indoors. Narrow electoral arithmetic and the necessity of fielding a winning candidate makes most political parties shy away from fielding more than a token number of women candidates. And if they are fielded at all, kinship and affinity factors play a major role. It is very common to observe that the relatives of politicians are promoted and supported to emerge as politicians (FES, 1992).

Increasingly, women have stood for elections and got elected as members of State Legislative Assemblies and the Parliament. However, at the national level there is only one woman Cabinet Minister and 8 Ministers of State in a Cabinet of 70. There is only one woman Governor and one woman Chief Minister.

Table 9: Women representation in the Rajya Sabha (Upper House)

Year	Total	No. of Women	Percentage
1952	219	16	7.3
1957	237	18	7.6
1962	238	18	7.6
1967	240	20	8.3
1971	243	17	7.0
1977	244	25	10.2
1980	244	24	9.8
1985	244	28	11.4
1990	245	24	9.7
1991	245	38	15.5
1992	245	17	6.9
1994	245	20	8.1
1996	245	18	7.3
1997	245	18	7.3
1998	245	18	7.3

Source : Statistical Abstracts, 1998.

Some studies of Parliamentary participation indicate that women members participate more actively in 'women's issues' – health, welfare, atrocities against women, crimes like dowry and violations of human rights. This participation is confined to the more articulate women. In issues such as defence, finance, politics, etc. their participation is relatively limited.

Table 10 shows women's representation in selected State Legislatures. The situation it appears has not improved much since the 1950s.

Table 10: Women's representation in selected state legislatures

State	Year	Total	Women
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Assam	1996	122	6
Haryana	1999	90	4
J & K	1996	87	2
Himachal Pradesh	1998	68	6
Gujarat	1998	182	4
Kerala	1996	140	13
Meghalaya	1998	60	3
Punjab	1997	117	7
Pondicherry	1996	30	1
NCT Delhi	1998	70	9
Nagaland	1998	60	0
Madhya Pradesh	1998	320	26
Tamil Nadu	1996	234	9
Tripura	1998	60	2
Uttar Pradesh	1996	424	20
West Bengal	1996	294	20
Bihar	1999	324	19
Maharashtra	1995	288	11
Arunachal Pradesh	1995	60	1
Manipur	1999	60	1
Orissa	1999	147	13
Rajasthan	1998	200	14

Source : Election Commission of India.

Analysis of trends of womens' participation to contest elections to the State Legislatures indicate that there is a gender discrimination which is responsible for poor representation of women in India.

Women's role in decision making is one of the most important questions for consideration in the movement for their empowerment. The 73rd and 74th Amendments(1992) to the Indian Constitution have served as a major break through towards ensuring women's equal access and increased participation in political power structures. This Amendment provided for reservation of one third of seats for women at level of local governance in urban areas. There is also a one-third reservation for women for posts of chairpersons of these local bodies. This amendment has initiated a powerful strategy of affirmative action for providing the structural framework for women's participation in political decision-making and provided an opportunity to bring women to be forefront and centre of city development and develop new grass-root level leadership. There are about 1 million elected women representatives in Panchayats and Municipal Bodies in India. The following Table 11 indicates women in local governments in India.

Table 11: Number of urban local bodies and local elected representatives

State/Union Territory	Municipal Corporation	Municipal Council	Nagar Panchayat	Total
Andhra Pradesh	07 (395)	94 (2853)	15 (314)	116 (3542)
Assam	01	25 (353)	42 (204)	68 (557)
Bihar	06	70	93	169
Goa	-	13 (155)	-	13 (155)
Gujarat	06 (468)	86 (2745)	60 (1260)	152 (4473)
Haryana	01	20	32	53 (1359)
Himachal Pradesh	01 (25)	19 (183)	29 (221)	49 (429)
Karnataka	06 (410)	122 (3196)	89 (1355)	214 (4961)
Kerala	05 (298)	53 (1597)	-	58 (1895)
Madhya Pradesh	02 (1067)	106 (2527)	283 (4537)	409 (8131)
Maharashtra	15 (1417)	228 (4901)	-	243 (6318)

Manipur	-	07	20	27
Orissa	02 (70)	29 (560)	72 (1056)	103 (1686)
Punjab	03	97	34	134 (1699)
Rajasthan	03	11	169	183 (4412)
Tamil Nadu	06 (480)	102 (3494)	611 (9794)	719 (13768)
Tripura	-	01	12	13
Uttar Pradesh	11 (841)	226 (5970)	444 (5518)	681 (12329)
West Bengal	06	112	4	122 (2706)
A & N Islands	-	01	-	01
Chandigarh	01	-	-	01
Delhi	01	01	-	02 (134)
Pondicherry	-	05	-	05
Daman & Diu	-	02	-	02
Total	101	1430	2009	3540 (68554)

Notes:

(i) Figures in brackets indicate number of elected representatives.

(ii) 1/3rd are women elected representatives in India.

After 1993, women's participation in local governments increased quite radically, with the enactment of the legislation providing 33 percent reservation of seats for women in local bodies. The legislation and its implementation has added another level in political participation. The previous table indicates the total number of urban local bodies as well as elected representatives in India.

In Governments too, there has been limited representatives of women. A few eminent women have no doubt, occupied important administrative positions, such as Secretaries of Departments in the National Government as well as in State Governments. It is only 5.71% of the total number of persons in administrative services are women. It is noteworthy that within the premier civil services of India, the representation of women is not that encouraging.

Table 12: Women Selected in All India Services

Sr.No.	Services	Year	Total	No. of Personnel in Position		
				Males	Females	% of Female
1	Indian Administrative Service	1995	4284	3973	311	7.3
		1992	4928	4498	430	8.7
		1996	5047	4546	501	9.9
		1997	4991	4479	512	10.3
2	Indian Police Service	1985	2343	2325	18	0.8
		1992	2825	2773	52	1.8
		1996	2947	2883	64	2.2
		1997	2964	2868	96	3.3
		1998	2985	2885	100	3.4
3	Indian Foreign Service	1999	3115	3007	108	3.5
		1985	535	485	50	9.3
		1992	721	658	83	8.7
		1995	547	481	66	12.1
		1996	567	501	66	11.6
		1997	586	519	67	11.4
1998	587	520	67	11.4		

Notes:

1. As on 1.11.98 (includes 1998 Batch)

2. As on 1.1.97 (includes 1996 Batch)

3. As on 31.10.97 (includes 1997 Batch)

Sources:

- i. Women in India– A Statistical Profile, 1997, DWCD, New Delhi.
- ii. Department of Personnel, GOI, New Delhi.
- iii. Ministry of Home Affairs, GOI, New Delhi.
- iv. Ministry of External Affairs, GOI, New Delhi.

Since relatively few women enter the civil services, several efforts have been made to improve the situation. The Department of Personnel and Administrative Reforms of the Government of India has also provided, wherever possible, women officers on the selection boards for posts and services.

2. WOMEN'S PARTICIPATION IN URBAN LOCAL GOVERNANCE

2.1 Women's participation in local government

Laws/legislation promoting the participation of women in local government

The 74th Amendment to the Indian Constitution, 1992 has served as a major breakthrough towards ensuring women's equal access and increased participation in local government. The Constitution (74th Amendment) Act, 1992 aims at Constitutional guarantees to safeguard the interests of urban local self government to enable them to function as effective democratic and self governing institutions at the grass root level. This Amendment provides for reservation of 33 1/3 percent of elected seats for women at local government level in urban and rural areas. There is also a one-third reservation for women of posts of chairpersons of these local bodies. A very active role for women in local governance is envisaged as compared to governance at the state and national levels in India. These provisions have provided great opportunities and challenges to women in India, particularly in the local government field. This is of great significance, since this grass-root level participation has considerably broadened the base of women's participation in politics at city level.

Limits and constraints that prevent women from participating equally with men in formal and informal forums

Involvement of women in the political arena and in decision-making roles is an important tool for empowerment as well as monitoring standards of political performance at local level. However, in the present political process of entry into decision making political institutions, there is growing influence of money and muscle power, backroom dealings, communalisation and criminalisation. In many respects women and men elected representatives face similar problems on election to office. Above all there is a need to understand just how to be a good local politician. The role of political representatives at local level is demanding and all new 'recruits' need time to gain experience and to understand the rules, regulations and procedures governing the administrative bureaucracy with which they now have to work – often quite closely in the urban service delivery system.

Some of the major constraints that prevent women from effective participation at local level are as follows:

1. Lack of orientation / training in urban development issues and municipal administration.

2. No proper knowledge / orientation about municipal acts and rules and regulations.
3. No prior experience about dealing with multidimensional urban development issues / civic issues and its complexities.
4. Lack of knowledge about technical in-puts related to urban service delivery system.
5. Lack of support from senior male / female colleagues in the party / municipal body.
6. Less co-operation from municipal officials understanding about various facets of the budget, such as allocation of budget at ward level (at central / ward level).
7. Lack of party support and poor organisational structure.
8. Lack of money and resources to sustain the electoral campaigns (inspite of code of conduct by election commission).
9. Discrimination in decision making at party level.
10. Specific notions towards politics and political atmosphere.
11. Fear and insecurity.
12. Lack of confidence in public speaking.
13. Criminalisation of politics and use of money power.
14. Family responsibilities.

Civil Society initiatives aimed at increasing women's participation in local government

Political system in India works through political parties who contend for power by invoking popular support. Therefore it is necessary that if women want to share power they have to make a place for themselves within the political parties through which the Indian democratic system operates. The experience of the last 52 years show an inability to create 'this space' and recent studies show that there has been no significant change in either the nature of women's functioning or in the political parties' approach to women and women's issues. If we examine women's participation (prior to 1993) it is seen that the political parties have given less importance to women's issues in terms of ideology, either in priority in their party manifesto or in terms of the number and importance of the position that women occupied in individual political parties. Women are not seen as a vote bank to be approached, and once the men are mobilised, women will merely endorse their choice of party and candidate. Male candidates rarely have access to the female electorate and there are not enough women involved in political campaigns to be able to reach out to a large section of women even in big cities. As a result, the exposure of women to political debates and issues has always remained indirect. According to women from all parties the political environment was not conducive to women's participation in politics. The analysis made by Kumari and Kidwai (1996) stated that political parties have dominated the conservative 'cultural' perspective and no conscious attempt has been made to increase active participation of women.

Women in India today are agitating at the doors of Parliament, demanding reservation for 33 per cent of the seats. The issue at stake here is more complex

than it may seem. It is not only a question of a few more or a few less women in the corridors of Parliament and legislatures but also a response to the fact that a large section of society has historically been denied its legitimate share in the exercise of political power, power that ultimately determines its destiny. In this demand for reservation, women are also raising their voice against a system, which has consistently denied them space by harnessing the forces of tradition in order to marginalise and trivialize their role. Reservation of seats for women in Panchayats/Municipal bodies have shown that it has tremendous implications, not merely in terms of the number of women entering the public arena and holding public office, but also in terms of the social, economic and political impact that these reservations have had for the total system.

It is for these reasons that women are increasingly demanding political roles for themselves. They recognise that constitutional guarantees do not ensure effective participation and that these cannot ensure political equality. Hence the need to gain entry into political institutions and in the functioning of the state, and to share control over the power the state exercises. This alone would lead to a situation where women are able to reverse the existing situation, which has consistently been against their interests, and bring about the necessary changes in policy and the social structure so as to ensure a more equitable and humane order.

The role of women's participation in elected bodies should not be undervalued. Elections are after all a forum for self government and democracy, they are significant in drawing the attention of the nation to the problems and needs of disadvantaged sections; the manifestos, campaigns, promises made by individual candidates, track record and future course of action of political parties are indicative of national concerns as well as mandates for action. Proper selection of candidates in an election is vital if this representative democracy is to function in the interests of a majority of the population that is depressed and disadvantaged. Hence, opportunities for participation at this level are significant for the adoption of politics and measures for women's development.

Strong and dynamic women who would not dream of appropriating privilege are today talking of reservation because they have come to recognize that they will not give "easy entry" in the corridors of power without reservation. This hierarchy is so rigid that the natural processes of democracy and constitutional guarantees have not been able to make a dent in these fortresses of power. The demand for reservation should not therefore be seen as either a gift or a privilege that women are seeking. For most women it is the last straw and a desperate measure to ensure their coming into the political mainstream. Their participation becomes vital in the context of the adoption of development strategies that are negative and harmful to women. Today most of the political parties in India have initiated some initiatives to activate political participation of women and develop their capacities. However, most of the political parties have not yet developed any special programmes to meet the special requirements of women in urban or rural areas, despite the fact that most of the women activists felt that if planned efforts were made, they could be easily mobilised. Different debates concerning struggles of women as well as various actions by women's groups and NGOs on local as well as national problems have forced the mainstream political parties to accept women's concerns in their political programmes. The political parties started changing their attitude towards women which is reflected in their election manifestos, their attitudes towards women candidates, speeches and slogans.

Statistics on women's participation in the electoral process are not very encouraging. It is important not only to pressurise the political parties but also to make the leaders understand the significance of organising systematic training of women possessing leadership qualities, of carefully selecting women candidates and ensuring financial, technical and human resources for affirmative action (Patel, Vibhuti, 1992).

The need to strengthen women's participation and leadership is constantly emphasised by various institutions viz, All India Institute of Local Self Government, NIUA, HSMI, Rambhau Mhalaji Prabhodini, etc and several NGOs and Women's groups like SEWA, Working Womens' Forum, YUVA, Disha, Prayas, Astha, Winavani, SNDT University, Aalochana, Agni, FASDSP (Forum Against Sex-determination and Sex Preselection), Stree Mukti Sanghathana, etc.

Many NGOs / CBOs, Womens' groups have provided some training, however systematic training of women possessing leadership qualities is not enough and more concentrated efforts are required to facilitate the process of women's ascent to key positions in political field. It is essential that the women's groups and movement recognise the importance of women as a constituency and ensure their participation and representation in policy formulation. The movement must provide a support system for women who enter political processes to win elections. As stated by Nath Kamale (1997) 'The women's movement has been a powerful agent of empowerment and has provided an alternative perspective for fundamental structural changes. The movement has created organisational strength of women, has focussed on women's issues and mobilised them around these issues. The women in the movement, however, have shied away from active participation in politics.

The women's groups and women activists thus aim to bring about a change in the women's perceptions, but not necessarily in the structures which subordinate women. If we want to bring about change in the lives of women and transform mainstream politics, there is no other way than to get involved in politics and transform it.

The women's movement and groups have to recognise the importance of women as a constituency and ensure their participation and representation in policy formulation. This can be achieved through reorienting existing structures for entry into decision-making including the political party system and introduce quotas or reservation as a temporary means of women's representation. The movement should also provide a support system (women's groups) for women who enter political processes to win elections.

The women's groups working at the grassroots level are small and scattered and have diverse ways of empowering women. There are no infrastructural facilities of networking available that could bring them together and strengthen them while allowing autonomy in their functioning. It is important to create unity in diversity between women's groups, organisations and individuals involved with women's empowerment. They need to adopt a common strategy, informed by a common vision, to be able to bring about changes in the policies and structures that perpetuate their subordinate status.

Local government initiatives to encourage women to participate in local governance

Reservation for women in local government is not just a question of getting a certain number 'in'; it also develops their capacities to play their rightful roles in the development process and makes an important difference as the local governments deals mostly with the quality of life for citizens. Municipal responsibilities relate both to women's practical needs and their strategic needs. The better we meet women's strategic needs, the better they are able to contribute to good city governance. Good Local Governance, in turn, enables a better response to women's practical needs.

Most local governments have initiated orientation / training programmes to encourage women to participate in local governance by organising city-specific induction or theme-based training programmes, wherein intensive training is given in various subject areas, such as, municipal acts and its implementation, laws of meetings, municipal budgeting, budgeting at ward level, municipal taxation, mobilisation of resources, urban service delivery systems (solid waste management, water supply, sewerage, health care services, traffic and transportation), poverty alleviation schemes, community management, environment management, shelter programmes, new reforms in municipal administration, functioning of ward committees, motivation techniques, communication skills, women and development, handling the media etc.

The Ministry of Urban Development, Government of India and Urban Development Department of State Governments organise a number of training programmes, workshops, seminars for women elected representatives at local level through various training institutions. Many municipal bodies have initiated a series of in-house training in municipal administration and urban development, in collaboration with premier training institutions in India. State governments through their State Training Centres organise capacity building programmes for women elected members from municipal bodies in their States. Special training / orientation programmes are organised by Ministry of Urban Development and Poverty Alleviation, Government of India under the UNICEF assistance and government's funds in the area of poverty alleviation schemes and its implementation in urban areas (e.g. SJSRY, NSDP, etc.)

2.2 Gender Sensitizing of local Government

Using sex-disaggregated data for policy and programme formulation

Local governments are using sex-disaggregated data for policy and programme formulation. It is an obligatory duty of municipal governments in India to collect, compile and maintain vital statistics in their city limits. Sex-disaggregated data is in use in many cities of the States in India for policy programme formulation and implementation of some special programmes and projects at local city level.

The Government of India regularly collects, analyses and disseminates quantitative and qualitative data on the number of women and men employed at various levels in government on an annual basis and many mechanisms have been set up within governmental structures for monitoring progress in this field.

The Department of Women and Child Development, Government of India is collecting and using gender-disaggregated data to evaluate development from a

gender perspective. The Department is also developing a Gender Development Index (GDI) for the construction of EDI and Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM).

Bringing women to positions of political power in local government is just the first step in social transformation. Gender sensitization of those in power, be they men or women, is of critical importance. Influencing the choices of those at decision – making levels and bringing gender issues to the political agenda are important factors. Over the years, this perspective has gained acceptance within organisations, action groups and political parties.

Government departments, other institutions, non-governmental organisations, and women’s organisations have undertaken several programmes to sensitise local governments about the issues and needs of women in their cities.

It is recognised that law enforcement is a critical factor for bringing about enduring changes in gender perceptions. Several initiatives have been taken by the Government of India and the voluntary sector to sensitise law enforcement personnel and policy makers. Gender sensitisation of police personnel and urban administrators in the National and State level training centres is now a regular programme. A National Centre for Gender Training and Research has set up in the National Academy of Administration in Mussourie with the objective of sensitising young administrators and policy makers on gender issues.

The Election Commission of India maintains updated information on women representatives in each Parliament, including categorised information on the number of scheduled castes women representatives. With the recent revolution in information technology, the entire information is available not only in print but also on the Internet in the Parliament and Election Commission websites. This increases out-reach and access of this information to the general public.

The Ministry of Rural Development, Government of India maintains updated information on the representation of women in local self-government or Panchayati Raj. The Department of Women and Child Development, Government of India also has come out with publications like ‘Women in India – A Statistical Profile’ in 1997, which compiled information on all aspects related to women in India. The Planning Commission, which is mooting the process of collection of gender desegregated data by all concerned departments in various Ministers, has included information on women’s representation in power and decision-making in its Ninth Five Year Plan Document.

Besides these, several independent organisations are carrying out their own research and surveys that provide updated information on the same. These are also widely used and are quoted in different public documents. Sensitising the leadership of people’s movements in the country to gender issues need to be prioritised.

3. WOMEN’S REPRESENTATION IN LOCAL GOVERNMENT

3.1. Legal and political initiatives

The number of women in politics at the local level had been very small, and their influence negligible. As stated by Kumari and Kidwai (1996), “Prior to 1990, the women in local politics were generally either politicians who had lost membership of higher institutions, and those who were given such an opportunity to serve the purpose of publicity. In many cases, the motive was partially also to satisfy the aspirations of these few women, since they could be kept under virtual control and

denied higher aspirations. The insignificant presence of women at these levels was an important indicator of two basic facts: one that women who are planted at the top often lacked the kind of training required for effective participation, secondly, the society was unable to accept women in politics, particularly at the grass-root level.

If we examine the reasons for low participation, as stated by Nath, Kamle (1997), `down the ages women have always been treated as subordinate to men in every aspect of life. Their place of work was confined to the domain of the household with household chores and rearing of children. Her identity was attached to that of her father, husband or son, i.e. she was given a status in accordance with that of her male partner. It is not that women in the past have not contributed substantially in politics, but because of their secondary status and low esteem, most of them were denied entry in political decision-making.

The 74th Amendment of the Indian Constitution in 1992 ushered in a new era in the democratic process of the country as it not only provided constitutional status to the municipal bodies but also provided an enabling environment for women to a direct part in the local self government and brought women to the forefront and centre of local development. Sharing power and responsibilities with immense control over resources for development and social change will be an empowering instrument for women.

Article 243 T (I) of Constitution Amendment (1992) states as follows:
"Reservation of Seats:

243 T (1) Seats shall be reserved for the Scheduled Castes and the Scheduled Tribes in every Municipality and the number of seats so reserved shall bear, as nearly as may be, the same proportion to the total number of seats to be filled by direct election in that Municipality as the population of the Scheduled Castes in the Municipal area or of the Scheduled Tribes in the Municipal area bears to the total population of that area and such seats may be allotted by rotation to different constitutions in a Municipality.

2. Not less than one-third of the total number of seats reserved under clause (1) shall be reserved for women belonging to the Scheduled Castes or, as the case may be, the Scheduled Tribes.

3. Not less than one-third (including the number of seats reserved for women belonging to the Scheduled Castes and the Scheduled Tribes) of the total number of seats to be filled by direct election in every Municipality shall be reserved for women and such seats may be allotted by rotation to different constituencies in a Municipality.

4. The office of Chairpersons in the Municipalities shall be reserved for the Scheduled Castes, the Scheduled Tribes and common in such manner as the Legislature of a State may by law, provide.

5. The reservation of seats under clauses (1) and (2) and the reservation of office of Chairpersons (other than the reservation for women) under clause (4) shall cease to have effect on the expiration of the period specified in article 334.

6. Nothing in this Part shall prevent the Legislature of a State from making any provision for reservation of seats in any Municipality or office of Chairpersons in the Municipalities in favour of backward class of citizens."

Different political parties in India have shown great reluctance to field women candidates. Reservation of seats at Municipal level has put pressure on political parties to identify and field more women candidates.

3.2. Training and support mechanisms for women in local government

Attention is being given to the training and capacity developing skills and capacities of all elected representatives in local government, including women. They are trained to acquire skills, knowledge and orientation needed to carry out the onerous responsibilities given to them. A time bound, systematic and comprehensive training programme has been drawn up which will be funded by the Central Government. The Indira Gandhi National Open University has been associated with the preparation of a syllabus on women and development. The Government of India is also committed to capacity building efforts by organising and funding training programmes for women elected to municipal bodies in India. A large number of such kind of training programmes for elected members are handled by All India Institute of Local Self Government which is a premier training institution in local government field (established in 1926) in India. Ministry of Urban Development (MUD) supports several such kind of training programmes through Regional Centre for Urban and Environmental Studies (RCUES) which are functioning in all the regions of India.

Apart from this, some of the theme-based training programmes are organised by State Training Institutions in several States for women elected members in municipal bodies.

Human Settlements Management Institute (HSMI) of HUDCO organises some specialised training for women elected representatives in India.

Some of the major training institutions in India offering orientation training to elected women representatives are:

1. State Womens' Commissions in all States in India (to deal with women and development issues)
2. All India Institute of Local Self Government branch offices at Mumbai, Ahmedabad, Vadodara, Bhubaneshwar, Bhopal, New Delhi, Panaji, Bangladesh.
3. Regional Centre for Urban and Environmental Studies (RCUES) of AILSG, Mumbai.
4. Regional Centre for Urban and Environmental Studies (RCUES), Hyderabad.
5. Regional Centre for Urban and Environmental Studies (RCUES), Lucknow.
6. Indian Institute of Public Administration.
7. National Institute of Urban Affairs (NIUA), New Delhi.
8. Uttar Pradesh Academy of Administration (UPAA), Nainital / Lucknow.
9. Rajasthan State Institute of Public Administration (RIPA), Jaipur.
10. Kerala Institute of Local Administration (KILA), Trichur.
11. Administrative Training Institute (ATI), Guwahati.
12. Institute of Local Government and Urban Studies (ILGUS), Calcutta.
13. Centre for Urban and Environmental Studies, Trivandrum.

14. National Institute for Habitat Management (NIHM), Bhubaneswar.
15. Tamil Nadu Institute of Urban Studies, Coimbatore.
16. Professional Development Centre (PDC), Maharashtra.
17. Housing and Area Development Authority (MHADA), Pune.
18. National Institute of Human Settlements, Bhopal.
19. Environmental Training Institute (ETI), Madras.
20. Training Institute of Housing Development Finance Corporation (HDFC), Lonavala, Maharashtra.
21. Indian Institute of Education, Pune.
22. Yashvantrao Chavan, Pratishthan, Mumbai.
23. Rambhau Mhalaji, Pratishthan, Mumbai.
24. P. V. Mandlik Trust, Maharashtra.
25. SNDT University, Mumbai.
26. Agni, Mumbai.
27. Society for Promotion of Area Resource Centres (SPARC).
28. YUVA, Mumbai.
29. Chitanya.
30. Law College Society, Pune.
31. Stree Aadhar Kendra, Pune.
32. Self Employed Women's Association, Ahemdabad.
33. Annapurna (Mumbai).
34. Working Women's Forum (Tamil Nadu).
35. Decan Development Society – an NGO in Andhra Pradesh.
36. Women's Feature Service, New Delhi.
37. Kriti, New Delhi.
38. Feminist Association for Social Action, Chennai,
39. Shramik Bharati, Kanpur,
40. Vasavvya Mahila Mandali – Andhra Pradesh.
41. Disha, Sharanpur,
42. Centre for Women's Development Studies, New Delhi.
43. MARG, New Delhi,
44. Women's Studies Development Centre, New Delhi,
45. Centre for Social Research, New Delhi.
46. Joint Women's Programme, New Delhi.
47. Indian Institute for Development Studies and Research, Allahabad.

48. Nirantar, New Delhi.
49. Working Women's Forum, Tamil Nadu,
50. Mahila Shikshan Kendra – Baroda, Uttar Pradesh
51. Aditi, Bihar
52. Hind Mazdoor Sabha
53. Sanchetna, Gujarat,
54. Chattisgarh Women's Organisation, Madhya Pradesh.
55. Sanlaap, West Bengal.
56. Ahmedabad Women's Action Group (AWAG),
57. Jyoti Sangh, Ahmedabad.
58. Centre for Advocacy and Research Delhi, Lucknow, Ahmedabad, Maharashtra.

Support groups and forums of elected women in local government

The examination indicates that women elected to local governments have not formed any formal associations, groups and forums. However, all women mayors meet during meetings organised by All India Council of Mayors (AICM), which is an association of mayors representing all cities in India. These meetings give women mayors an opportunity to interact with each other and with other male Mayors and exchange ideas, information about effective urban service delivery, good governance and also provide issue based support. Similarly, various seminars, workshops, training programmes organised by Government of India, State Governments and National and Regional institutions provide wide opportunities for women elected members to meet and interact with elected women members from different municipal bodies in India. Similarly, events organised by political parties, women's groups, non-governmental organisations also provide an opportunity for women elected members for experience sharing, networking and sometimes lobbying for some specific purpose in urban development and good governance.

It is also observed that in many cities women elected members have close links with local NGOs, CBOs or Residents' Associations or action groups and through such networking women members support each other and initiate networking among themselves about governance at local level or any issues related to women and development.

Training of women appointed in local government and civil service

The following institutions undertake training of appointed officials:

1. Urban Development Department, Government of India and Urban Development Departments of various State Governments in India have initiated several capacity building or training initiatives to train women working at various levels of municipal administration.
2. National Academy of Administration in Mussourie is actively involved in training senior government officers from Indian Administrative Services in India. The Academy has set up a National Centre for Gender Training and Research to further issues related to women and development. Apart from this, several State

Training Centres in various states organise training-cum-orientation and workshops for women appointed in local government.

Associations of women in local government and civil service

It is observed that women officers from the Indian Administrative Service (IAS), Police (IPS), and Foreign Services (IFS) have their associations in all the States of India. These associations organise periodic meetings and 'get together' which provide an opportunity for the women officials to interact with each other. The City Managers' Association of Gujarat State also provides opportunities for women officials in local government in Gujarat State. 'Metro Forum' an association of Municipal Commissioners of Metro Cities will also provide an opportunity for women municipal commissioners to meet and interact on issues related to civic governance and any other issues related to women and development. Similar efforts are underway to establish an association of women officials in all municipal bodies in India.

All India Institute of Local Self Government, through its various Centres in India imparts training in the field of municipal administration. Besides short-term specialized programmes, it also organises full time diploma courses on various aspects of municipal administration for junior and middle level municipal personnel. These courses are attended by large number of women employed at junior and middle and senior levels in municipal bodies in India. The following main institutions also offer several need-based or tailor-made specialised programmes for women working at different levels of municipal administration in India.

These Institutions are:

1. All India Institute of Local Self Government branch offices at Mumbai, Ahmedabad, Vadodara, Bhubaneshwar, Bhopal, New Delhi, Panaji, Bangladesh.
2. Regional Centre for Urban and Environmental Studies (RCUES) of All India Institute of Local Self Government, Mumbai.
3. Regional Centre for Urban and Environmental Studies (RCUES), Hyderabad.
4. Regional Centre for Urban and Environmental Studies (RCUES), Lucknow.
5. National Institute of Urban Affairs (NIUA), New Delhi.
6. Indian Institute of Public Administration.
7. Uttar Pradesh Academy of Administration (UPAA), Nainital / Lucknow.
8. Rajasthan State Institute of Public Administration (RIPA), Jaipur.
9. Kerala Institute of Local Administration (KILA), Trichur.
10. Administrative Training Institute (ATI), Guwahati.
11. Institute of Local Government and Urban Studies (ILGUS), Calcutta.
12. Centre for Urban and Environmental Studies, Trivandrum.
13. National Institute for Habitat Management (NIHM), Bhubaneshwar.
14. Tamil Nadu Institute of Urban Studies, Coimbatore.
15. Professional Development Centre (PDC), Maharashtra.
16. Housing and Area Development Authority (MHADA), Pune.

17. National Institute of Human Settlements, Bhopal.
18. Environmental Training Institute (ETI), Madras.
19. Training Institute of Housing Development Finance Corporation (HDFC), Lonavala, Maharashtra.
20. Indian Institute of Education, Pune.
21. Yashvantrao Chavan, Pratishthan, Mumbai.
22. Rambhau Mhalagi, Prabhodini Mumbai.
23. Institute of Social Sciences, New Delhi.
24. SNDT University, Mumbai.
25. State Training Institutes of various states Governments in India.

The main purpose of urban management training is to develop capacities of officials to deal with the complex urban problems in a holistic manner to achieve efficiently the aim of municipal bodies and of the urban sector as a whole.

These institutions cover the main areas for orientation / training or capacity building in urban development and municipal administration field.

1. Urban Development Management.
2. Municipal Administration.
3. 74th Amendment to Constitution (1992) & its implementation.
4. Information Technology and Application of Computers in Municipal Administration.
5. Project Planning and Management.
6. Urban Infrastructure Planning & Development.
7. Municipal Finance and Resource Mobilisation.
8. Urban Environment Management.
9. Housing and Slum Programmes.
10. Urban Poverty, Poverty Alleviation Programmes & Convergence
11. Traffic and Transportation,
12. Solid Waste Management,
13. Water and Waste Water Management,
14. Shelter Upgradation Programmes,
15. Women and Development
16. Municipal Legislative Framework.
17. Laws of Meetings.
18. Motivation Techniques and Communication skills,
19. Disaster Management,
20. Public Health and Management of Healthcare programmes in cities.
21. Management Information System in Municipal Administration.

22. Personnel Management,
23. GIS in Urban Development.
24. Human Resources Development.

Special measures to recruit women in the civil service and increasing the number of women in decision-making positions

One of the variables that go into the Gender Empowerment Measure, as depicted in the Human Development Report, is the proportion of men and women at senior levels of government. In this context the study initiated in 1996 by the Department of Personnel and Training (DoPT), as part of a project 'Capacity Building for Civil Services', was a significant step. In order to crystallize the problems faced by women in Civil Services as well as to isolate areas which needed to be addressed through policy guidelines, a survey was carried out across a cross section of the services, among men and women officers, to ascertain the issues on which guidelines would have to focus. The survey questionnaire was formulated keeping in mind different areas of concern for women officers like Gender Image in workplace and in the family to stress factors.

Various government studies have been undertaken in the past on problems and issues related to the various individual services that constitute the Indian Administration. But this survey broke new ground in terms of coverage of services and levels of both women and men, as well as the range of related issues. Many issues, such as stress and motivation and sexual harassment, that persist across the services were touched upon for the first time. A national level Project Steering Committee was set up for carrying out the Capacity Building project, and a Focal Point was identified in the DoPT for examining the sphere of "Women's Issues in the Civil Service".

The Lal Bahadur Shastri National Academy of Administration (LBSNAA) was appointed as consultant for developing a curriculum for Gender Sensitization Programmes and ten Regional Seminars were conducted at nine State Administrative Training Institutes.

The Focal Point identified in the DoPT will begin work towards framing guidelines on women's issues by reviewing existing rules / regulations of various services. The task that has emerged for the Focal Point is as follows :

Review of existing rules and regulations for possible gender bias and discrimination against women and suggest corrective action.

Co-ordinate output flowing from various activities of the project related to the issues requiring policy formulation.

Table 13 Women at decision-making positions in the administrative service

STATE/UNION TERRITORY	DECISION – MAKING POSITIONS			
	I.A.S. (As on 1 May 2000)		I.P.S. (As on 1 April 2000)	
	Women	Men	Women	Men
INDIA	535	4624	110	3191
	(10.4%)		(3.3%)	
STATES				
Andhra Pradesh	33	281	11	179

Arunachal Pradesh	38	194	9	147
Assam	10	216	2	134
Bihar	33	360	14	233
Goa	X	X	X	X
Gujarat	23	225	3	133
Haryana	32	180	4	100
Himachal Pradesh	17	109	1	73
Jammu & Kashmir	3	109	1	80
Karnataka	35	213	4	167
Kerala	21	157	2	114
Madhya Pradesh	54	342	9	273
Maharashtra	40	311	6	201
Manipur	5	193	3	98
Meghalaya	xx	xx	xx	xx
Mizoram	x	x	x	x
Nagaland	1	63	1	39
Orissa	17	185	7	129
Punjab	28	165	6	144
Rajasthan	29	231	6	141
Sikkim	5	45	Nil	24
Tamil Nadu	37	288	7	176
Tripura	xxx	xxx	xxx	xxx
Uttar Pradesh	51	484	10	381
West Bengal	23	273	4	255
Union Territories :				
Andaman & Nicobar Islands	x	x	x	x
Chandigarh	x	x	x	x
Dadra & Nagar Haveli	x	x	x	x
Daman & Diu	x	x	x	x
Delhi	x	x	x	x
Lakshadweep	x	x	x	x
Pondicheery	x	x	x	x

In the Civil Services, the overall percentage of women in 1997 was 7.5%, the highest being 12.3% in the Indian Foreign Service. Women are increasing their presence in other sectors such as the Revenue Services, the Railway Management Cadres, Telecommunication etc. On the whole, women in 1997 represented 13.8% of the employee strength in the public sector, as against only 8.6% in 1971.

Women's Organisation or other civil society organisation have taken some initiatives in some states of India to encourage women to stand in local government elections, however, these groups or organisations are small and scattered and have diverse ways of empowering women. There are no infrastructural facilities of networking that could bring them together and strengthen them while allowing autonomy in their functioning. It is important to create unity in diversity between women's groups and civil society organisations involved with women's empowerment.

Political participation would make a significant difference if it came from those who are at the helm of affairs of political parties, and if women are there wielding power, the situation can improve to a great extent and political participation would give every woman a sense of dignity as a individual.

Nath (1998) analysed that the women's movement and groups have to recognise the importance of women as a constituency and ensure their participation and representation in policy formulation. This can be achieved through reorienting existing structures for entry into decision-making including the political party system and introduce quotas or reservation as a temporary means of women's representation. The movement should also provide a support system (women's groups) for women who enter political processes to win elections.

The women's groups working at the grassroots level are small and scattered and have diverse ways of empowering women. There are no infrastructural facilities of networking available that could bring them together and strengthen them while allowing autonomy in their functioning. It is important to create unity in diversity between women's groups, organisations and individuals involved with women's empowerment. They need to adopt a common strategy, informed by a common vision, to be able to bring about changes in the policies and structures that perpetuate their subordinate status.

Non-partisan women's groups should provide necessary moral and advisory support to women candidates to increase their chances of being elected to political offices. They should work towards enhancing the capacity of women candidates to win the elections by providing them with a forum whereby they could exchange ideas and experiences and learn from experts on electoral laws and politics and evolve issues and strategies to win elections.

Special civil society initiatives to encourage women to stand for local elections

The 33 percent for women in municipal bodies has brought into focus the fact that there is a need to bring more and more women into the party. But the problem is that many women are often not equipped to become members of the political parties, as the party expects a certain level of consciousness for membership – not everybody can become a member. Also, women have difficulty in attending party meetings, study circles or demonstrations because of their timings and the pressure of housework. Most of the parties have not yet developed any special tailor-made programme to meet the special requirements of women in urban areas, despite the fact that most women activists felt that if such an effort was made, they could easily be mobilised.

As analysed by Kumari and Kidwai (1996) at one level, the party's ideology itself may be discriminatory, on the other hand its ambiguity in a traditional society may leave adequate space for discrimination. Party workers at times exhibit a sense of lack of gender equality because they carry with them their traditional value systems which are often feudal and patriarchal, into the party. Much of the discrimination against women in the party is because of the attitudes of these individuals. But at the same time women assert that the party does not try to change the attitude of both men and women who come to the party or make them more gender sensitive.

The nature of electoral politics in India also marginalises women and women's issues from the political agenda. Many women feel that electoral politics, at times limits the kind of support women politicians would like to extend to members of their own sex, since they realise that they cannot win elections on women's issues alone. Most of them are still hesitant to identify themselves with women's issues, claiming that women form only one section of their constituency and till recently not the determining section. Also, elections are largely conducted by men and with men's

support. Electoral expediency requires women participants to compromise to survive in the man's world of politics.

All parties recognise the need to win women's votes, but often seem unsure of the best way to gain support among women.

The type of leadership required is of transformational type. Women's entry into processes of governance should create change in the very institutions of governance. In order to effect such change, leaders have to emerge which can occur only through participatory processes. The participation allows empowerment, which then generates leadership. It is only through their leadership, and their implied changes in the hierarchy of party and power that they may provide that they can justifiably participate in governance as representing something 'different'. This leadership can emerge only through active participation. Therein lies the role of the political parties in creating an enabling environment for active leadership generating participation. Prior to 1992, political parties have not been initiating any special initiatives or programmes to encourage women to stand in local government elections. The number of women in politics at the local level has been very small, and their influence negligible. After 1993, women's participation in local governments increased quite radically with the enactment of the legislation providing one-third reservation of seats for women in local bodies. The effective implementation of this legislation has added another level in political participation. According to women from all parties the one third reservation for women in local governments has brought into focus the fact that there is a need to bring more and more women into the local government field and develop their capacities.

This particular 74th Amendment of the Indian Constitution ushered in a new era in the democratic process in India as it not only provided constitutional status to the municipal bodies but also provided an enabling environment for women to take direct part in the process of local self government and brought women to the forefront of city development.

The 74th Amendment mandated reservation of one – third seats in municipal bodies for women. There is also one third reservations for women in position of chairpersons of these local bodies in India.

A very active role for women in local governance is envisaged as compared to governance at the state and national levels in India. These provisions have provided great opportunities and challenges to women in India.

The challenge now is to transfer this large presence of women at local government level supported by the real delegation of power and responsibilities.

Women's role in decision making is one of the most important questions for consideration in the movement for their empowerment. Reservation of seats for women in local bodies has shown that it has tremendous implications, not merely in terms of the number of women entering the public arena and holding public office, but also in terms of the social, economic and political impact that these reservations have had for the total system.

Recognising various constraints such as present day politics, elements of criminalisation, corruption, muscle power, violence, lack of awareness of political participation, preparation to fulfill the role and responsibilities as elected representative, etc, the Government, NGOs, Womens Groups and activist's have been actively involved in providing necessary in-puts to women. Women have been

mobilised to participate in elections as candidates and voters, and to be vigilant citizens where elections are held. Communities have received gender sensitization to facilitate acceptance of the new roles assigned to women. Leadership and organisational training of women has been conducted to enable them to be dynamic change agents. Networks have been interacting, to influence mass based political structures to provide more space to women. (Singh, K, 2000).

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