

Gender Inequality in the Light of Child Sex Ratio in India and Haryana

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Abstract:- The gender balance in the entire population, as well as in various age groups, has significant impact on the socio-economic condition including both present and in the future. The child sex ratio is an important social indicator that measures the respective status of males and females in a community on how they are treated in terms of equal status and greatly defines the future population composition. Changes in the sex ratio reflect the underlying socio-economic and cultural tendencies in a community. It has an impact on not only the demographic process but also the socioeconomic relationships within the community. The aim of this research is to better understand the spatio-temporal variance in total child sex ratio in India and Haryana. Census of India and Haryana Statistical Abstract data were used to analyze challenges, causes, trends and declining child sex ratios. Haryana has one of the lowest total sex ratios and child sex ratios in the country, and has seen a steady decline from 1991 to 2001, with some signs of improvement in 2011. Haryana's child sex ratio is much lower than the national average, and not a single district in the state has a child sex ratio that is higher than the national average which is a matter of serious concern.

Keywords:- Gender Inequality, Sex Ratio, Child Sex Ratio, Haryana and India.

I. INTRODUCTION

Gender is defined by a set of characteristics that distinguish between masculinity and femininity. The distinguishing characteristics not only include the biological sex classification, but are also determined by the social structures. 'Gender' as a grammatical term has been in use since the origin of grammar, but the socio-cultural and economic construct of 'Gender' is a more recent invention. The social distinguishing characteristic for a gender creates social expectations that need to be fulfilled so as to be accepted as a 'male' or 'female' in a society, and this determines the access to rights, resources and position available to respective genders in a society (Esteve-Volart, 2004). The very specific nature of these distinguishing characteristics, and social structure and expectation vary greatly from culture to culture, and from society to society, but in most cases they tend to favor men leading to an imbalance within gender in most societies termed as "Gender Inequality" Sen, A. (2001). Gender inequality has a

great impact on lives, resulting in unequal opportunities especially for the women.

Gender equality dignifies the equal importance of men and women's roles in society, is critical for a country's progress and development (Hussain & Kirmani, 2010); yet, women fall substantially behind men in most human development metrics. It is almost naive to believe that a country can properly flourish if nearly half of its population is impoverished (Madhok, 2014). This is especially true for India's women, who make up 48.2 per cent of the India's 1.22 billion people (Census of India, 2011).

The role and impact of women in development process can be gauged through reduced maternal mortality and improved maternal care, better education and nutrition for children, reduced fertility, and an increase in the average age at first marriage (Shen & Williamson, 1999). Furthermore, the greater position of women in general, and the better education of mothers in particular, have an impact on overall attitudes, including women's preferences for female children. Often, it is discrimination against girls from the minute they are born, or even before they are born, that leads to women's low status and a slew of other negative economic and societal repercussions.

Gender inequality in India still continues to be an issue of great concern. The Constitution of India guarantees gender equality and no discrimination against anyone in any form whatsoever. In spite of all the policy support and legal frameworks laid down by the government, and the rapid socio-economic transformations, the traditional patriarchal norms and customs continue to relegate women to a secondary status. Gender disparity in India extends beyond the issues of equal economic growth and access to educational resources. Gender disparity exists in India's socio-cultural setup, which has deep cultural and historical origins, in the form of socially built and established gender roles. All domains, including the organizational workforce, as well as social and political environments, are affected by socio-cultural factors (Comyn, Kemmis, & Smith, 2014). Within the societal and familial periphery, this indisputable influence is nevertheless recognized as the norm.

In India, gender disparity begins in the home, with the concept of labour deeply embedded in the Indian mindset. Work done by Indian women such as caring for their families and doing home duties, does not receive good attention both inside the family and within the country

(Bhattacharya, 2013). India's past patriarchal traditions support women's current standing in society, where equality is not a top priority (Mohan, 1973). India is a collectivist society in which individual needs are sacrificed for the collective good (Razvi & Roth, 2004), and Indian women make this sacrifice primarily for their families. Although a woman is seen as a member of the family or a group in traditional Indian patriarchal culture, she is not considered as an individual with her own identity (Alavi, 2013). Patriarchy is one such standard in India, which affects women in particular because their lives are governed and regulated by male family members from birth to death (Chada & Sinha, 2013). A woman cannot have her own possessions or offend her husband since she would be in breach of her wifely obligations. She must manage and be accountable for the household and children, do religious chores, cook food, provide male children and be loyal and faithful to her responsibilities towards her home and in-laws, all while sacrificing her personal needs, thoughts and behaviors (Razvi & Roth, 2004).

Gender inequality manifests itself in India in a variety of ways, stemming from a variety of social practices that are considered acceptable from a religious or cultural standpoint due to deep historical origins and traditions, resulting in women being disproportionately underrepresented in the economic mainstream. These societal practices have far-reaching economic effects because they prevent society from capitalizing on women's inherent abilities (Sivakumar, 2008). Because of their perceived inferior status, women in India have lived in largely patriarchal surroundings, enduring discrimination in terms of social, political, educational and economic opportunities, resulting in the patriarchal practices having continued dominance in Indian culture.

In India, there is gender imbalance in terms of health, education, and employment. Gender inequality in India, according to Menon-Sen and Shiva Kumar (2001), is rooted in the cultural framework. Female children receive less caring, and parental attention than male children, rendering them significantly more vulnerable to illnesses and infections than boys, resulting in poor health and a shorter lifespan (Chand & Mehrotra, 2012). In India, men outnumber women. For example, in 1991, there were 927 women for every 1,000 men, and according to the 2011 Census, the number has slightly grown, with 940 women for every 1,000 males among Indian adults (Census of India, 2011). In India, preferential treatment for males pervades all social classes setting the foundation for gender inequity for females throughout their lives.

According to Roy and Vecchio (1998), education in India is also gender discriminatory, with males having more access to school than females, as seen by their literacy rates of 82.14 percent and 62.46 percent, respectively (Census of India, 2011). Parents choose to spend in a boy's education because girls in India are largely groomed for marriage (Roy & Vecchio, 1998). Girls are thought to belong to their inlaws after they marry (Chada & Sinha, 2013), hence the return on investment for schooling is probably too low.

Education for girls becomes unattainable for low-income families with tight funds. Because patriarchal ideas predominate in Indian households, girls are frequently denied educational chances, and the education they do obtain is often functional and rudimentary, such as reading, writing, personal hygiene, and effective home chore performance. Education is not considered vital because the ideal is to keep a woman confined to her house and alone (Roy & Vecchio, 1998).

Gender discrimination in the workplace, according to Esteve-Volart (2004), reduces the availability of talent in an economy, resulting in severe economic effects. In India, a variety of social behaviours that are viewed as traditional from a religious or cultural perspective force women out of the economic mainstream, preventing the nation's economic progress from taking advantage of the innate aptitude women possess. According to the World Economic Forum, for the same position and quantity of work, women in India are paid 62 percent less than their male colleagues (Madhok, 2014). Klugman et al. (2014) discovered that women's engagement in the workforce in India has steadily declined from 33.7 percent in 1991 to 27 percent in 2012 for the 15 to 64 age group. Furthermore, occupational segregation in India contributes to limited female involvement in the workforce (Madhok, 2014). Specific industries and activities, such as agriculture, handcraft production, and being a domestic helper, are open to women workers in India, according to Madhav and Sankaran (2011). Lack of education forces a large number of socially and economically disadvantaged women (mainly in rural India) to seek work in the informal sector, where earnings are pitiful, barely assisting these ignorant rural women who work for survival (Husmanns, 2004).

The situation for urban Indian women is similar to that of rural Indian women (Das, Jain- Chandra, Kochhar, & Kumar, 2015). Women in urban India are significantly more educated than their rural counterparts, and they have the advantage of living in a location with a high concentration of white-collar jobs; nonetheless, even educated women in urban India are choosing not to work full-time. Notably, just 22 per cent of educated females join the workforce (Madhok, 2014). If household incomes were very low, urban Indian women with a lower level of education (having completed 10th or 12th grade) appeared to be working out of necessity, according to a review of some of the causes for low women employment participation. Women with bachelor's and master's degrees, on the other hand, tended to be less bound by familial and economic circumstances in their decisions to enter the workforce (Klasen & Pieters, 2013).

The sex ratio is a key demographic and cultural metric that assesses the degree of gender equality in a culture at a specific point in time. In different ways, changes in the sex ratio reflect the underlying socio-economic and cultural tendencies of a community. Changes in the sex ratio are influenced by a variety of factors, including sex disparities in mortality, sex selective migration, and sex ratio at birth, and sex disparities in population enumeration. It has been

suggested that high rates of female infanticide, sex selective abortion, and other forced tactics are key contributors to the large gender imbalance (Oldenburg, 1992). The child sex ratio is a useful metric for analysing female children's social responses. Future critical events such as marriage rate, labour force, age structure, birth and deaths, migration and replacement are all determined by the current sex makeup of the kid population. A shortage of girls leads to a catastrophic demographic imbalance and negative societal effects. In recent decades, the child sex ratio has decreased dramatically across India, which is a serious matter that must be addressed. As a result, efforts must be made to resolve the issue, resulting in equal regard and affection for the girl kid; otherwise, the child population would become unbalanced, resulting in a slew of societal issues (Ramaiah et al., 2011).

Objectives

The main objective of this research work to identify the spatial pattern of gender inequality in the reference of sex ratio at Haryana and India level.

Database and Research Methodology

The current research is primarily based on secondary data obtained primarily from the Census of India publications and the Haryana Statistical Abstract. Certain data and information have also been referred from government publications. An attempt has been made in this study to examine into the rising difficulties facing India's child sex ratio of population, notably in the state of Haryana. The data was evaluated at the state and district levels to discover spatio-temporal changes over time and to investigate the rural-urban child sex ratio pattern. For mapping and analysis of geographic and non-spatial data, Arc GIS desktop 9.3 software was utilized.

II. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

Trends and Patterns of Overall Sex Ratio and CSR in India

The increase in the child sex ratio in the most recent census numbers reveals 914 females per thousand males, the lowest since independence, down from 927 in 2001. Punjab, Haryana, Himachal Pradesh, Gujarat, Tamil Nadu, Mizoram and the Andaman & Nicobar Islands have all seen an increase in their child sex ratios, while the remaining 27 states and union territories have witnessed a decrease. Mizoram had the highest CSR (971), followed by Meghalaya (970) and Haryana and Punjab had the lowest scores of 800 and 846, respectively. At the district level, the child sex ratio in Lahul and Spiti, Himachal Pradesh, was 1,013, while it was 1,005 in Twang, Arunachal Pradesh. At 774 and 778, respectively, it was unacceptably low in Haryana's Jhajjar and Mahendragarh districts. The sex ratio is an important metric for assessing gender disparity in any area at any given moment. On a large scale, a declining sex ratio reflects a society's social and cultural disparity. Changes in the sex ratio are influenced by sex disparities in mortality, sex selective migration, the sex ratio at birth, and, in some cases, sex disparities in coverage in population enumerations as well.

The first asynchronous census of India was held in 1872, followed by the first synchronous census in 1881. India's population has been marked by an unfavorable sex ratio since census enumeration began in the country. Not only that, but the sex ratio has been discovered to have decreased in recent years. Only twice in the recent century has the sex ratio increased by a few points, once in the 1951 census (1 point increase) and once in 1981 (4 point increase). A small increase of 1 point at the time of the 1951 census was attributed to sex differentials in net gain due to transfer of population after the country's split in 1947, against a backdrop of continual loss. In comparison, many people were relieved to see a 4 point improvement during the 1981 census. Experts, on the other hand, refer to it as a "statistical phenomena" (Raju and Premi, 1992:911). In reality, the post-enumeration check (PEC) of the 1971 census had previously revealed a significantly larger under-enumeration of females, indicating that the sex ratio improvement in favor of females at the time of the 1981 census was not genuine.

Since 1881, census is being conducted every 10 years simultaneously throughout the country. At the turn of the last century, i.e. in the year 1901, sex ratio in the country was 972 which almost monotonically declined to 927 in 1991 (Table 1 and Fig.1). Thereafter a reversal in the trend has indeed brought about a much awaited relief to researchers, planners and policy makers. Between 1991 and 2011 i.e. over a period of two decades, sex ratio in the country has recorded an improvement by as much as 13 points. Despite this improvement, if a comparison is made between the figures of 1901 and 2011, the number of females per 1000 males in the population is still lower by a margin of as much as 32 points.

Improvement in overall sex ratio in the country is largely because of decline in sex differentials in mortality. Further, this is largely confined to the adult population. Remarkably, sex ratio in some of the early age brackets is found to be more adverse and alarming. Despite an improvement in overall sex ratio during the recent past child sex ratio (CSR) in the age group of 0-6 years continues to decline at an alarming pace.

This will have serious repercussions for all age sex ratio in times to come. Some of the major states have experienced drop of 50 points in sex ratio among children during the last one decade only. It may be noted that sex ratio among children is not affected by migration. The most important determinant of sex ratio in this age group is sex ratio at birth (SRB) which has become increasingly masculine during the recent past in the wake of widespread practice of female feticide. The data published reveals that child sex ratio in states like Haryana, Punjab, Delhi and Rajasthan reveal an alarming levels of gender based inequality.

Spatial patterns in sex composition reveals a huge gap in numerical strengths of male and female in the population in the north western states of India namely; Haryana, Punjab and the Union Territory of Delhi and Chandigarh. The 1991

census of India recorded some improvement in the overall sex ratio at the national level, but the north western states continue to show decline. The child sex ratio (0-6 age groups) during 1991 to 2001 has substantially declined in these north-western states. The largest decline was recorded in Punjab (82 points) while Haryana recorded a decline of 60 points. This decline will have serious implications for future adult sex ratio. This is a matter of serious concern and requires intensive attention (Premi, 2001: 1876).

Table 1: Trends of Sex Ratio in India, 1901-2011

Year of Census	Sex Ratio		
	Total	Urban	Rural
1901	972	910	979
1911	964	872	975
1921	955	846	970
1931	950	838	966
1941	945	831	965
1951	946	860	965
1961	941	845	963
1971	930	858	949
1981	934	880	952
1991	927	893	939
2001	933	901	946
2011	940	927	947

Source: Census of India, 1901-2011

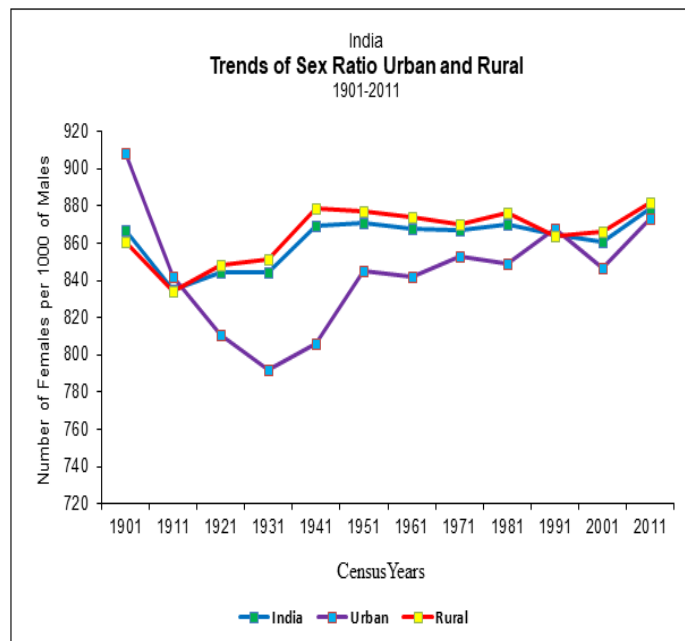


Fig. 1 Source: Based on table 1

Table 2: Overall Sex Ratio and Child Sex Ratio in States of India, 2001-11

Country, States and UTs	Overall Sex Ratio		Child Sex Ratio	
	2001	2011	2001	2011
Kerala	1058	1084	960	960
Puducherry	1001	1037	967	967
Tamil Nadu	987	996	942	946
Andhra Pradesh	978	993	961	943
Chhattisgarh	989	991	975	964
Meghalaya	972	989	973	970
Manipur	974	985	957	934
Telangana	---	985	---	---
Orissa	972	979	953	934
Mizoram	945	976	964	972
Goa	961	973	938	920
Karnataka	965	973	946	943
Himachal Pradesh	968	972	896	906
Uttarakhand	962	963	908	886
Tripura	948	960	966	953
Assom	935	958	965	957
West Bengal	934	950	960	950
Jharkhand	941	948	965	943
Lakshadweep	948	946	959	911
Arunachal Pradesh	993	938	964	960
Nagaland	900	931	964	944
Madhya Pradesh	919	931	932	912
Maharashtra	922	929	913	883
Rajasthan	921	928	909	883
Gujarat	920	919	883	886
Bihar	919	918	942	933
Uttar Pradesh	898	912	916	899
Punjab	876	895	798	846
Sikkim	875	890	963	944
Jammu and Kashmir	892	889	941	859
Haryana	861	879	819	830
Andaman Nicobar Islands	846	876	957	968
Delhi	821	868	868	867
Chandigarh	777	818	845	880
Dadra Nagar Haveli	912	774	979	926
Daman and Diu	710	618	926	904
India	933	943	927	914

Source: Census of India, 2001, 2011

At the aggregate level overall sex ratio is found to have gone up from 933 in 2001 to 943 in 2011 while during the same time sex ratio among children recorded a decline from 927 to 914 (Table 2). A marked regional variation in both all-age sex ratio as well as child sex ratio can be seen across the states and union territories. The southern and eastern and north-eastern states appear better off as compared to the north-western parts of India. The northern and north-western states report a marked deficit of females in population. The sex ratio in Uttar Pradesh, Punjab, Sikkim, Jammu and Kashmir, Haryana, Andaman & Nicobar Islands, Delhi and Daman & Diu is lower than 900 with Chandigarh and Daman & Diu having sex ratios lower than 800; having considerably lower sex ratios than the national average. However, during 2001 and 2011, all the states and union territories of India with the exception of Lakshadweep, Arunachal Pradesh, Gujarat, Bihar, Jammu and Kashmir, Dadra & Nagar Haveli and Daman & Diu have recorded improvement in all-age sex ratios. Delhi has recorded improvement in sex ratio by the largest margin between 2001 and 2011 whereas Uttarakhand reported an improvement of only one point. The union territories of Dadra & Nagar Haveli and Daman & Diu experienced a decline by 138 and 92 points in all age sex ratio respectively. Among the major states, Gujarat and Bihar recorded a decline by one point during the same time period.

As already noted child sex ratio has undergone a decline by 13 points from 927 in 2001 to 914 in 2011. This decline was experienced in almost all the states and union territories barring only Andhra Pradesh, Mizoram, Gujarat, Punjab and Haryana and in the union territory of Chandigarh and Andaman and Nicobar Islands. Punjab has recorded the largest improvement in child sex ratio between 2001 and 2011 followed by Chandigarh.

Child sex ratio is also a crucial social indicator of a developed society. Child sex ratio not only represents the number of females as compared to males which denotes the gender status, but it also enables to predict the future profile of a society like marriage rates, age composition and migration. A low and declining child sex ratio can be attributed to the practices of female feticide, female infanticide and growing survival disadvantages of female children vis-à-vis male children as child sex ratio is not affected by factors like migration. All these, in turn, can be attributed to persisting gender inequality. Of these three factors, female feticide i.e. elimination of female fetuses in the mother's womb through abortion is the most determinant (Chakraborty, Lekha S and Sinha, Darshy, 2006). During the recent past sex ratio at birth (SRB) has undergone a marked deterioration. In an ideal situation, SRB should be in the range of 103 to 107 (the average is taken as 105) male babies per 100 female babies.

Any imbalance in the child sex ratio can have adverse impact on the society. India is one of those few nations where the child sex ratio is alarmingly low. This will have serious impact on all age-sex ratio in coming decades (Ramaiah, G & Chandrasekarayya, T & Vinayaga Murthy, Parasuraman, 2010). Remarkably, in some states, the difference between

the overall sex ratio and the child sex ratio has been more than 150 points which is very alarming. The situation is gravely critical in the states of Haryana, Punjab, Rajasthan and Union Territory of Delhi. Most of these states rank very high in terms of per capita income and overall levels of development.

The Government of India along with the state governments framed policies and launched programmes and schemes to close the gender gap and promote equality among genders, and also laid down strict regulations against pregnancy termination and prenatal sex determination but the child sex ratio continues to ring the alarm. Gender inequality in India and the existing social gender bias towards males has been a matter of concern for many decades among scholars, planners and policy makers.

The child sex ratio is not influenced by sex selective migration because migration in this age group normally occurs with the family. Sex ratio among children is therefore considered a better indicator of gender relations and the status of girl child in a population. When child sex ratio in a population continues to deteriorate despite improvement in the overall sex ratio, it indicates persisting gender inequality. This can invariably be due to the sinister practices like female foeticide and female infanticide. The main factors that determine the child sex ratio are sex ratio at the birth and sex differential of mortality rate among children.

The prime reasons for the declining child sex ratio in India and particularly in states like Haryana, Punjab and Delhi are widespread practice of sex selective abortion and sex differentials in mortality among children in the wake of strong son preference. Migration doesn't play any role here, so can this decline be related to change in sex ratio at birth. Differential under count may also sometimes result in spurious imbalance in sex ratio. However, the same has undergone decrease over time, and can't explain their decline in child sex ratio by such a margin (Premi, 2001: 1876).

Table 3: India: Range of Child Sex Ratio (2001-2011)

Value	Number of States/Union Territories	
	2001	2011
Below-900	6	11
900-950	11	14
Above 950	18	10
Total	35	35

Source:-Census of India, General Population Tables of 2001, 2011

The decline in child sex ratio has been significant in the recent years across many states and union territories of India as can be inferred from table 3. Nearly half the states and union territories had child sex ratio above 950 in 2001 but in 2011 there were only 10 states and union territories with child sex ratio above 950. Consequently, the number of states and union territories where child sex ratio is below 900 has increased from 6 in 2001 to 11 in 2011. At the same time the states and union territories with child sex ratio in

the range 900-950 increased from 11 in 2001 to 14 in 2011. This was a time period when the Government of India and the respective state governments launched various schemes and programmes to boost women empowerment and reduce gender inequality, but on the contrary the gender gap has actually widened.

Trends and Patterns of Sex Ratio and CSR in Haryana

Haryana is one of India's more developed states, with a booming economy. However, according to the 2011 census, the state has the lowest sex ratio in India. Throughout the history of census enumeration, the state's sex ratio has consistently been below 900. The state's sex ratio is poor due to existing social conventions and practices such as son preference, dowry system, female foeticide and infanticide. It should be highlighted that in the state, there is a significant rate of misuse of advanced technology such as amniocentesis for prenatal sex determination (Hassan, M.I, 2000).The Union and the Haryana state government have undertaken policy changes and launched initiatives to protect and empower the female child in order to balance the sex ratio. The Prime Minister of India launched "BetiBachao, BetiPadhao" movement in Panipat, a city of Haryana in January of 2015. There are numerous other schemes for the female child in Haryana like 'Devi RupakYojna' that focus in improving the plight of girl child in the state. In spite of the policy support and initiatives the status of women has not shown much improvement in the state. Although, there has been an increase of 18 points in overall sex ratio in the state during 2001-11 a continuous decline in child sex ratio is a subject of grave concern.

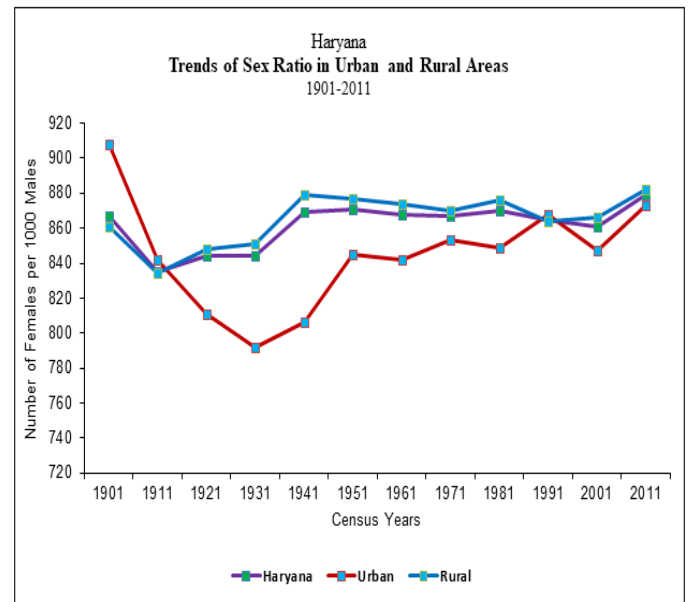


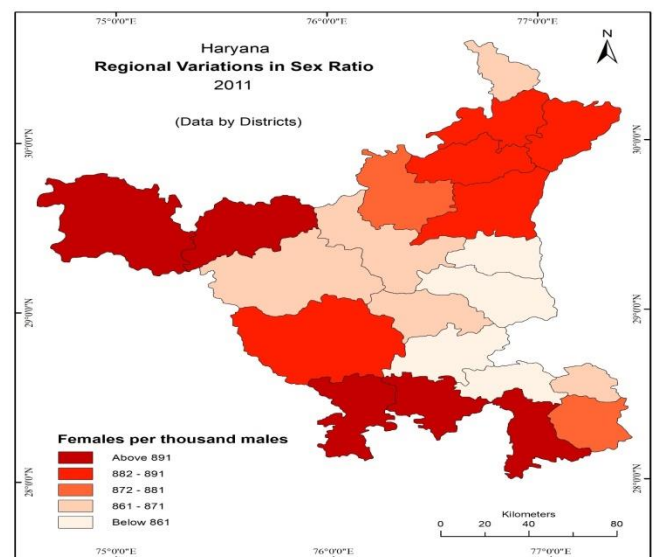
Fig. 2 Source: Based on table 4

According to census figures from 1901 to 2011, the total sex ratio changed by 12 points (867 in 1901 and 879 in 2011). (Table 4). During this 110-year period, the sex ratio in Haryana reached various highs and lows, as seen in the graph. Between 1901 and 2011, there was a 21-point rise in the state's urban regions. However, in rural areas of the state, there has been a 35-point drop in the same time period. During the same time span, both the national and state sex ratios fell at alarming rates. In 1901, India had 872 females per thousand males, whilst Haryana had 867. However, after India gained independence from British rule, the sex ratio improved only twice (1981 by 3 points and 2011 by 18 points); otherwise, the sex ratio has been steadily declining for the past 60 years. The slight increase in the sex ratio observed over the last decade was owing to central and state government awareness campaigns, as well as strict prenatal sex determination and pregnancy termination regulations enacted by the authorities.

Table 4: Haryana: Trends of Sex Ratio (1901-2011)

Census Year	Sex Ratio		
	Total	Rural	Urban
1901	867	908	861
1911	835	842	834
1921	844	811	848
1931	844	792	851
1941	869	806	879
1951	871	845	877
1961	868	842	874
1971	867	853	870
1981	870	849	876
1991	865	868	864
2001	861	847	866
2011	879	873	882

Source: Census of India, 1901-11.



Map No. 1

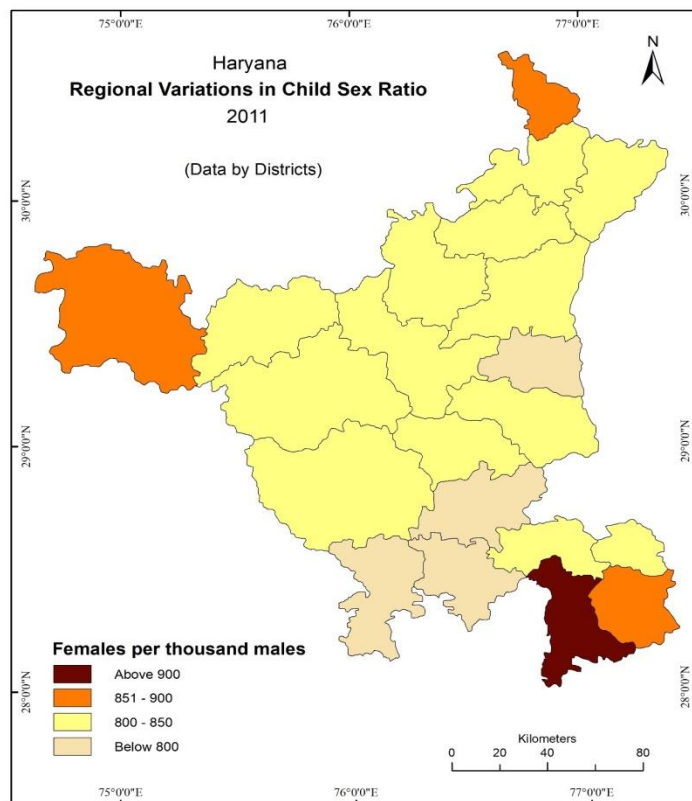
Table 5: Haryana: Districts wise variation in Sex Ratio, Child Sex Ratio (2001-11)

State/ District	Sex Ratio		Per cent (0-6 Population)		Sex Ratio (0-6 Population)	
	2001	2011	2001	2011	2001	2011
Panchkula	823	870	14.10	11.70	829	850
Ambala	868	882	13.20	10.90	782	807
Kurukshetra	866	889	14.20	12.00	771	817
Yamunanagar	862	877	14.40	11.80	806	825
Kaithal	853	880	15.40	12.60	791	821
Karnal	865	886	15.10	12.90	809	820
Panipat	829	861	16.40	13.70	809	833
Sonepat	839	853	15.40	12.70	788	790
Jind	852	870	15.80	12.40	818	835
Fatehabad	884	903	16.10	12.60	828	845
Sirsa	882	896	15.00	11.90	817	852
Hisar	851	871	15.50	12.10	832	849
Bhiwani	879	884	15.70	12.60	841	831
Rohtak	847	868	14.50	11.90	799	807
Jhajjar	847	861	15.00	12.10	801	774
Mahendergarh	918	894	15.80	11.90	818	778
Rewari	899	898	15.20	12.50	811	784
Gurgaon	850	853	15.50	13.10	807	842
Faridabad	826	871	15.80	13.20	847	842
Mewat	899	906	25.10	22.30	894	906
Palwal	862	879	20.00	16.50	854	862
Haryana	861	877	15.80	13.00	819	830

Source: Census of India, 2001-2011

In 2011 census, the child sex ratio and overall sex ratio have increased by 11 and 16 points in Haryana (Table 5). But when each district is analyzed specifically, it is noticed that districts like Mewat, Palwal, Ambala and Panchkula have made improvements in the overall sex ratio and child sex ratio by some point, whereas districts like Jhajjar, Sonapat, Gurugram and Bhiwani have negative trends. the spatial pattern of child sex ratio in Haryana. There are only 4 districts that have child sex ratio more than 850, namely; Mewat (906), Palwal (862), Sirsa (852), Panchkula (850). There are total 12 districts which have moderate child sex ratio between 800-850; these are in descending order, Hisar (849), Fatehabad (845), Gurugram (842), Faridabad (842), Jind (835), Panipat (833), Bhiwani (831), Yamunanagar (825), Kaithal (821), Karnal (820), Kurukshetra (817) and Ambala (807). There are only 4 districts having low child sex ratio below 800, Sonipat (790), Rewari (784), Mahendergrah (778) and Jhajjar (774). By analysing the above table and categorization of child sex ratio in Haryana we can aptly say that only Mewat has child sex ratio above

900. Jhajjar has the lowest CSR (774) in the state of Haryana.



Map: 2

Table 6: Child Sex Ratio in Haryana, 1961-2011

Census Year	Child Sex Ratio			Rural-Urban Differentials
	Total	Rural	Urban	
1961	910	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
1971	898 (-12)	899 -	897 -	(-2) -
1981	902 (+4)	899 (00)	912 (+15)	(-13)
1991	879 (-23)	878 (-21)	884 (-28)	(-6) -
2001	819 (-60)	823 (-55)	808 (-76)	(+15) -
2011	830 (+11)	835 (+12)	832 (+24)	(+3) -

Source: Census of India, 1961-2011

Note: Figure in Parentheses is the decadal change.

As per the 1961 census CSR of Haryana was 910 which decreased by 80 points in 2011 census. From 1961 to 2011 there was continuous decline except for two times in 1981 and 2011 where it increased by 4 and 11 points respectively. CSR declined sharply in both rural and urban areas. In 2001 the rural-urban differential of CSR was 15 points at 823 for rural and 808 for urban areas. The state of Haryana has the lowest child sex ratio in India, which raises questions about the socio-cultural values, which are highly

responsible for the gender inequality. Haryana's result reveals a rapid decrease in the child sex ratio between the 2001 and 2011 censuses. Haryana is one of the most afflicted states in terms of child sex ratio decline and imbalance.

Sex Ratio at Birth and its Differential, India and Haryana:

Sex ratio at birth (SRB) is conventionally defined as the number of male babies per 100 females during birth, and it varies from 103 to 107. The average figure is, thus, taken as 105 male births to 100 female births. In most of the populations of the world, there is already a preponderance of male babies over female babies at birth. Evidences indicate a further rise in masculinity at birth in the country during the recent past. This trend of rising number of males is more conspicuous in north-western parts of the country especially Haryana. For instance the sample registration system based estimates of sex ratio in India during the period 1987-90 to 1996-98 indicates a rise from 109.5 to 111.0 i.e. at the rate of 1.37 percent.

The corresponding figures for Haryana are 115.0 and 123.3 respectively implying a growth rate of well over 7 percent. Such a fast growth in male preponderance at birth is undoubtedly an indication of female foeticide practices in the state. It is also true that with improvement in health care facilities, the loss of male fetuses have undergone decline contributing to the rise in masculinity at birth. However, for a state like Haryana the contribution of this factor is very much limited (Bhardwaj, P., 2012).

Although, Haryana ranks very high in terms of the levels of economic development in the country, the status of women continues to be appalling in the state. The male dominated social ethos and patriarchal system discriminate against women in a number of ways. There is a strong preference for a son child because of economic, social and religious reasons including financial support, old age security, property inheritance, dowry, family lineage, prestige and power, birth and death rituals and beliefs about religious duties and salvation (Unisa, Sayeed; Sucharita Pujari; and R. Usha. 2007). A female child is viewed as a financial burden and a liability to the family. Female infanticide used to be one manifestation of this discrimination, but with the introduction of prenatal sex determination technology, female foeticide has taken its place (Hassan, 2000). Due to the concentration of these services in metropolitan areas, it is the middle class urban people who are the first to take advantage of the technology. Following that, the habit steadily spreads to the remainder of the urban population; finally reaching the affluent groups in the rural areas.

The urban population, therefore, in general reflects a lower child sex ratio than its counterpart in the rural areas. Interestingly, however, the rural-urban differentials in Haryana do not match with this observed pattern completely. The rural areas were marked with lower child sex ratio up to 1991. It was only at the time of 2001 census that the ratio in urban areas dipped to a level lower than that

in rural areas. Nevertheless, what is remarkable to note is the fact that the urban areas in the state have witnessed a distinctly faster decline in child sex ratio over the last two decades. For instance, between 1981 and 2001, child sex ratio declined by 104 points in urban areas as against 76 points in rural areas.

Table 7: India and Haryana, Trends in Child Sex Ratio (1991-2011)

Years	India		Haryana	
	Sex Ratio	Decadal Change	Sex Ratio	Decadal Change
1991	945	-	879	-
2001	927	-18	819	-60
2011	914	-13	830	11

Source:-Census of India, 2011

Table 7 presents a comparison between the child sex ratios of India and Haryana from 1991 to 2011 and the decadal change in respective sex ratio. The national child sex ratio has been decreasing since 1991 from 945 to 914 in 2011. The child sex ratio of Haryana has been considerably lower than that of India. However, the child sex ratio in Haryana increased from 819 in 2001 to 830 in 2011 after a significant decline in 2001 from 879 in 1991.

Krishnamoorthy (2003) used NFHS-2 data to estimate sex selective abortions in another study. Haryana, according to the survey, ranks quite high in India in terms of the number of sex selective abortions performed. Sayeed; Sucharita Pujari; and R. Usha. (2007), based on data on pregnancy history of a sample of our 2,500 ever married women gathered in the Jind district survey, have offered some important information on, and insights into, the clandestine practise of sex selective abortions in rural Haryana.

There is now substantial evidence that the practise of sex selective abortions is widespread in Haryana. For nearly a quarter-century, facilities for sex determination procedures have been known to exist in this section of the country. Surprisingly, the practise of female foeticide is also prevalent in the state's rural areas. In Haryana's villages, there is evidence of mobile facilities for sex determination and pregnancy termination if the foetus is female (George, Sabu & Dahiya, Ranbir, 1998). According to the study, "Female Foeticide in Rural Haryana, 1998" six villages in the state's Rohtak area, the activities are more frequent among upper caste Hindus, and women from this group freely acknowledge to doing so.

III. CONCLUSION

The sex ratio in India improved by as much as 13 points between 1991 and 2011, however despite this, the number of girls per 1000 males in the population is still 32 points lower. The drop in sex differentials in mortality is largely responsible for the improvement in the country's overall sex ratio. Furthermore, this is primarily a problem among adults. Child sex ratio in the age group of 0-6 years

have been declining at an alarming rate in recent years, which will have serious ramifications for all age sex ratios in the future, considering that several of the main states have seen a decrease of 50 points in child sex ratios in the previous decade alone. In the northwestern states of India, particularly Haryana, Punjab and the Union Territories of Delhi and Chandigarh, spatial patterns in sex composition demonstrate a vast discrepancy in numerical strengths of male and female in the population. In India's 1991 census, the overall sex ratio showed considerable improvement at the national level, but continued deterioration in the northwestern states. Between 1991 and 2001, the child sex ratio in these northwestern states fell dramatically, with Punjab leading the way, followed by Haryana. Because it is unaffected by sex selective migration, the sex ratio among children is regarded a better measure of gender relations and the condition of female children in a population.

Haryana has 867 females per thousand males, compared to India's 872. However, the sex ratio improved only twice after India attained independence from British rule (1981 by 3 points and 2011 by 18 points); otherwise, the sex ratio has been progressively dropping for the previous 60 years. The minor increase in the sex ratio recorded over the last decade was due to government awareness initiatives at the federal and state levels, as well as tight prenatal sex determination and pregnancy termination rules imposed by the authorities. Haryana's CSR has plummeted in both rural and urban areas.. In 2001, the rural-urban CSR gap was 15 points, with rural areas having CSR of 823 and urban regions having CSR of 808. Haryana has the lowest child sex ratio in India, which raises concerns about socio-cultural beliefs, which are a major contributor to gender imbalance. Between the 2001 and 2011 censuses, Haryana's result shows a dramatic fall in the child sex ratio. In terms of child sex ratio reduction and imbalance, Haryana is one of the worst-affected states.

The patriarchal structure and male-dominated societal ethos discriminate against women in a variety of ways. Because of economic, social, and religious factors like as financial assistance, old age security, property inheritance, dowry, family lineage, status and authority, birth and death rites, and religious duties, there is a significant preference for a son child. A female child is seen as a financial liability and a financial strain to the family. Female infanticide was once a form of discrimination, but since the advent of prenatal sex determination technologies, female feticide has taken its place. The widespread practice of sex selective abortion and sex differentials in mortality among children in the wake of strong son preference are the primary causes of the dropping child sex ratio in India, notably in areas like Haryana. In order to balance the sex ratio, the Union and the Haryana state governments have implemented policy measures and started efforts to safeguard and empower female children. In January 2015, India's Prime Minister started the "BetiBachao, BetiPadhao" campaign in Panipat, Haryana. In Haryana, there are various more programmes for female children, such as the 'Devi RupakYojna,' that aim to improve the plight of girls in the state. Despite official support and attempts, women's standing in the state has not

improved significantly even after an increase of 18 points in the overall sex ratio in the state from 2001 to 2011, a steady drop in the child sex ratio is a cause for concern.

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