HEALTH INEQUALITY IN INDIA: A GENDER DIMENSIONS

Manjula G. K.\(^1\) and Dr. Chandrika K. B.\(^2\)

\(^1\)Assistant Professor, Department of P.G. Studies and Research in Sociology, Rani Channamma University, Belagavi.
\(^2\)Department of P.G. Studies and Research in Sociology, Rani Channamma University, Belagavi.

ABSTRACT:

Sex is one of the principle social determinants of wellbeing that assume a noteworthy job in the wellbeing results and access to medicinal services in India. Wellbeing is a significant factor that adds to human prosperity and Economic development of a nation. The soundness of ladies in India has different measurements. It must be investigated in connection to worldwide wellbeing midpoints and furthermore in contrast with men. At present, ladies in India face numerous medical issues, which eventually influence the total economy's yield. Tending to the sexual orientation, class or ethnic incongruities that exist in human services and improving the wellbeing results can add to monetary addition by improving the nature of wellbeing and prosperity. In 2011 United Nations improvement projects of human advancement report positioned India 132 out of 187 as far as sexual orientation disparity. The Gender Inequality list (GII) is controlled by various components including maternal death rate juvenile fruitfulness rate, instructive accomplishment and work power investment rate. Sexual orientation imbalance in India is exemplified by ladies' lower probability of being ignorant, proceeding with their instruction and taking part in the work power. The abnormal state of sex disparity in India contrarily impacts the wellbeing of ladies. The low status of—and resulting victimization—ladies can be credited to numerous social standards societal powers of man controlled society, progression and multigenerational families add to Indian sexual orientation jobs. Sex imbalances, thus, are straightforwardly identified with weakness results for ladies. Various investigations have discovered that, the rates of admission to emergency clinics shift significantly with sexual orientation, with men visiting medical clinics more oftentimes than ladies. Differential access to social insurance happens on the grounds that ladies commonly are qualified for a lower offer of family assets and in this way use medicinal services assets to a lesser degree than men. This paper Analyses the current Health imbalances in India.

KEYWORDS: Health Care, Health inequality, Gender inequality, Socio-economic status, Health care, Gender dimensions.

OBJECTIVES

- To study the Health status of women in India.
- To examine the Health inequalities between men and women.
- To suggest measures to improve the health status of women to reduce the Health inequalities.

INTRODUCTION:

Women’s health concern is influenced by interrelated biological, social, and cultural factors. It is generally expected that women can live longer than men, it does not necessarily ensure a better quality of life and women are more sickly and disabled than men throughout the life cycle. It has been suggested that women are particularly
vulnerable, where basic maternity care is unavailable. Due to the involvement of biological factors, women are more prone to sexual exposure of contracting sexually transmitted infections (STIs), including the human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) than do men. Moreover an early marriage and childbirth could be responsible for the prevailing wide variation in the socioeconomic status.

Women’s disproportionate poverty, low socioeconomic status, gender discrimination and reproductive role not only expose them to various diseases, but also their accesses to and use of health services. Domestic violence, rape, and sexual abuse against women affect their productivity, autonomy, quality of life, and physical and mental well being and women who lost male partner are often forced into prostitution to lead their life. Men transmit the infectious virus to women fourfold than women are to men. Women also acquire HIV infection when they receive blood transfusions to combat pregnancy-related anemia. Sexual abuse during childhood enhances the mental depression and reproductive tract infections in later life, which could often lead to female infertility. Gender discrimination (son preference) along with high dowry costs for their daughters, marriage, often results in the mistreatment of daughters. Bias in education and formal labor force participation as well as leading the life under the control of their fathers, husbands, and sons could exert a negative impact on the health concerns of Indian women.

Sex is one of the fundamental social determinants of wellbeing that assume a noteworthy job in the wellbeing results of ladies and access to human services in India. The abnormal state of sex disparity in India contrarily impacts the wellbeing of ladies. The low status of—and ensuing victimization—ladies in India can be credited to numerous social standards Societal powers of man centric society, chain of command and multigenerational families add to Indian sexual orientation jobs. Ladies are likewise observed as less important to a family because of marriage commitments.

The absence of maternal wellbeing adds to future monetary abberations for moms and their kids. Poor maternal wellbeing frequently influences a tyke’s wellbeing in unfriendly ways and furthermore diminishes a lady’s capacity to partake in financial exercises. Along these lines, national wellbeing projects, for example, the National Rural Health Mission (NRHM) and the Family Welfare Program have been made to address the maternal social insurance needs of ladies crosswise over India. Despite the fact that India has seen sensational development throughout the most recent two decades, maternal mortality remains determinedly high in contrast with many creating countries. As a country, India contributed about 20 percent of every single maternal demise worldwide somewhere in the range of 1992 and 2006. The essential purposes behind the large amounts of maternal mortality are straightforwardly identified with financial conditions and social limitations restricting access to mind. Be that as it may, maternal mortality isn’t indistinguishable over all of India or even a specific state; urban zones regularly have lower generally speaking maternal mortality because of the accessibility of satisfactory therapeutic assets. For instance, states with higher proficiency and development rates will in general have more noteworthy maternal wellbeing and furthermore lower newborn child mortality.

Three major forms of inequities have been largely responsible for the persistent and even widening differentials in health outcomes: historical inequities, socio-economic inequities and inequities in provision and access to health services. Among the various factors that influence health, availability, accessibility and affordability of health services are important determinants for improving population health. Healthcare financing and provisioning arrangements play a critical role in reducing or perpetuating existing inequities and shape the pattern of health service use and expenditure (Gilson et al 2007; Mackintosh 2001).

The fact that the typical female advantage in life expectancy is not seen in India suggests that there are systematic problems with women’s health. Indian women have high mortality rates, particularly during childhood and in their productive years. The health of Indian women is intrinsically linked to their status in society. The women in India belong to various socio-economic backgrounds are sometimes neglected when it comes to basic healthcare. Women however, are the very backbone of any society and if one needs a healthy society, they women need to be well taken care off. Research on women’s status has found that the contributions Indian women make to families often are overlooked and instead they are viewed as economic burden.
In many parts of the world, women receive less attention and health care than men do and particularly girls often receive very little support than boys. As a result of this gender bias, the mortality rates of females often exceed those of males in these countries. This is an important issue because gender discrimination that contributes to poorer health status for girls than for boys is likely to be the main pathway for excess female child mortality. Such discrimination occurs in (a girl) receives less attention than would be bestowed upon a son. She is less warmly clad, she is probably not so well fed as a boy would be and when ill, and her parents are not likely to make the same strenuous efforts to ensure her recovery”.

Poor health has repercussions not only for women but also their families. Women in poor health are more likely to give birth to low weight infants. They also are less likely to be able to provide food and adequate care for their children. Finally, a woman’s health affects the household economic well-being, as a woman in poor health will be less productive in the labor force. Availing nutritious food, prevalence of anemia and nutritional status of women. Women’s autonomy has been determined by three areas- control over finance, decision making power and freedom of movement. Women with greater freedom of movement obtained higher level of antenatal care and were more likely to use safe delivery care. The influence of women’s autonomy on the use of health care appears to be as important as other determinant such as education. According to NFHS 3 almost one out of every five women in India did not receive any antenatal care for their last birth in the five years preceding the survey. There is wide variation in the use of antenatal care services among the states. Utilization of antenatal care is almost universal in Kerala, Tamil Nadu and Goa. In addition, more than 90 percent of women received ANC in Andhra Pradesh, Maharashtra, West Bengal, Karnataka, Delhi and Punjab. The percentage of women receiving antenatal care was lowest in Bihar. In India there is broad North-South contrast between areas of low female autonomy and unfavorable demographic performance on the one hand and comparatively high female autonomy and relative favorable demographic performance on the other. Particularly the high birth and death rates that continue to prevail throughout most of Northern India must be seen within the context of local kingship arrangements. For women, weight and height measurement can be used to assess health risks. A widely used indicator of nutritional status is the body mass index (BMI), which is defined as the weight in kilograms divide by height in meters squared (kg/m²). This indicator is used to assess both thinness and obesity. It is helpful in detecting the risk of health or nutritional disorders.

WHO commends India for its groundbreaking progress in recent years in reducing the maternal mortality ratio (MMR) by 77%, from 556 per 100,000 live births in 1990 to 130 per 100,000 live births in 2016. India’s present MMR is below the Millennium Development Goal (MDG) target and puts the country on track to achieve the Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) target of an MMR below 70 by 2030.

Four key actions are responsible for India’s remarkable achievement.

First, India has made a concerted push to increase access to quality maternal health services. Since 2005, coverage of essential maternal health services has doubled, while the proportion of institutional deliveries in public facilities has almost tripled, from 18% in 2005 to 52% in 2016 (including private facilities, institutional deliveries now stand at 79%).

Second, state-subsidized demand-side financing like the Janani Shishu Suraksha Karyakram – which allows all pregnant women delivering in public health institutions to free transport and no-expense delivery, including caesarian section – has largely closed the urban-rural divide traditionally seen in institutional births. Overall, 75% of rural births are now supervised, as compared to 89% of urban deliveries.

Third, India has put significant emphasis on mitigating the social determinants of maternal health. Women in India are more literate than ever, with 68% now able to read and write. They are also entering marriage at an older age, with just 27% now wedded before the age of 18. These factors alone have enabled Indian women to better control their reproductive lives and make decisions that reflect their own interests and wants.
Finally, the government has put in substantive efforts to facilitate positive engagement between public and private health care providers. Campaigns such as the Pradhan Mantri Surakshit Matritva Abhiyan have been introduced with great impact, allowing women access to antenatal check-ups, obstetric gynecologists and to track high-risk pregnancies – exactly what is needed to make further gains and achieve the SDG targets.

India’s achievements are already having wide-ranging human impact, and are of immense inspiration to WHO Member States, both in the Region and beyond. As per WHO South-East Asia’s Flagship Priority of advancing maternal, newborn, child and adolescent health, the Organization will continue to provide technical and operational support as and where needed in India and across the Region to end preventable deaths due to pregnancy and childbirth and to ensure every woman has full control over her reproductive life.

Poor Health Behaviors include smoking and chewing tobacco or drinking alcohol. Standard of living, education, and caste were strongly related to consumption of tobacco or alcohol. Individuals in the lowest quintile of standard of living or having no formal education were three times more likely to consume tobacco or alcohol. Important differences were also observed by caste. Scheduled tribes were considerably more likely to consume tobacco or alcohol as compared to other castes. The odds of consuming tobacco or alcohol were also higher among scheduled caste, compared to other castes. Marked gender differences were observed with men being substantially more likely to consume tobacco or alcohol as compared to women. Religious affiliation and urban-rural difference were not related to the probability of tobacco or alcohol consumption. Nutritional Status and Anemia. WHO says that Worldwide prevalence of anemia during 1993-2005 with regards to the data for 192 Anemia affects 1.62 billion people, globally, which corresponds to 24.8% of the population. The prevalence among pregnant women is 41.8%. The WHO regions of Africa and South-East Asia posses the highest risk, wherein about two thirds of preschool-age children and half of all women are affected by anemia.

**NATIONAL SCENARIO**

National Family Health Survey NFHS-3 (2005-2006), states that anemia is a leading health problem affecting adults, 58 percent of pregnant women are affected by anemia. Anemia affects 55 percent of women and 24 percent of men.

Profound studies pointed out the voluntary involvement of the community, paramedical workers, NGO, policy makers and teachers in various developmental programs for the removal of poverty and improve the literacy rate among females. Nutrition and health education should be strengthened via department of health to improve the nutritional status of mother and child, which are intimately linked. A strong and sustained government commitment is therefore needed to improve women’s health concern.

**CONCLUSION:**

The development of an independent women’s health program that takes a life-course approach to improving their access to healthcare is needed to enable management of all issues that affect women’s health. This should include improved management of sexual and reproductive health issues, integrated with the management of chronic diseases, including cardiovascular diseases, cancers and mental health. It should also encourage prevention and remove barriers to healthcare utilization. In recent times public subsidies to the private sector need to be reviewed, especially in light of lack of adherence to equity conditionality, i.e., tertiary hospitals not complying with the injunction to treat a fixed percentage of patients below the poverty line. With globalization many of the health policy options are being shaped by international debates and organizations.

**REFERENCES**


Manjula G. K.
Assistant Professor, Department of P.G. Studies and Research in Sociology, Rani Channamma University, Belagavi.