Rural-Urban Variations in Gender Equity in Kerala - A Case Study of Thrissur District

by

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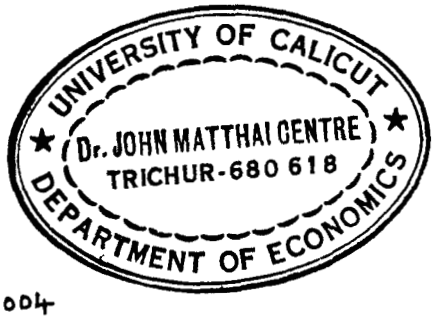
CERTIFICATE

Certified that this written account on **'RURAL-URBAN VARIATIONS IN GENDER EQUITY IN KERALA - A CASE STUDY OF THRISSUR DISTRICT'**, submitted for the award of the degree of Doctor of Philosophy of the University of Calicut is a bonafide record of research work done by Smt. T.V. Salma, under my supervision. No part of this has been submitted earlier for any other purpose.



Thrissur,
20·08·2004

Dr. D. Retnaraj
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DECLARATION

I, T.V. Salma, do hereby declare that this written account titled **'RURAL-URBAN VARIATIONS IN GENDER EQUITY IN KERALA - A CASE STUDY OF THRISSUR DISTRICT'** is a bonafide recode of research work done by me under the guidance of Dr. D. Retnaraj, Reader in Economics, University of Calicut.

I also declare that this has not been submitted by me earlier for the award of any degree, diploma, title or recognition.

Salma

Thrissur,
20.08.2004

T.V. Salma

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Chapter I
INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

The terms 'gender' and 'gender equity' have become a popular and indispensable part of the lexicon of international development works in recent years. Development without gender perspective is only half of development. If one gender is left behind, there cannot be real development even for the dominating gender (Macdonald et al. 1995[1]). At present, gender disparity has become an important issue and the central message of Human Development Report (HDR) of 1995 is that human development if not engendered is endangered.

How we care about, perceive, understand, analyse and critique the world we live in is profoundly shaped by gender. Gender, not only influences who we are, how we live and what we have but also how we think and how we understand and explain the social world in which we live. Examining gender permits us to see how men-women relationship works in the world, how it is institutionalised, legitimated and reproduced and how gender hierarchy interacts with the other structural inequalities (Peterson and Runyen 1993[2]).

The great value of gender as an analytical concept is that it directs attention towards the differential effects of social and cultural processes and interventions on women and men. It does not look at women in isolation and it enables differences between men and women to become visible.

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[1] Manday Macdonald, Ellen Sprenger and Ireen Dubel (1995), *Gender and Organisational Change-Bridging the Gap Between Policy and Practice,* Royal Tropical Institute, Netherlands, p.10.

[2] V. Spike Peterson and Anne Sisson Runyen (1993), *Global Gender Issues,* Westview Press, Boulder, pp 15-25.

The term 'gender' scarcely appears in the academic writings of the first half of this century. The notion seems to have gathered wide currency only with the coming into being of the sex-gender distinction (Nagla 2001[3]). Sex is biological or genetic features taken to differentiate males from females, which is determined much before the birth of the child, over which outside factors have no control and gender is the socially constructed differences in character traits and role expectations for men and women, which is totally influenced by outside factors. Sex determines maleness and femaleness both of which are based on physical differences and have universal application. Gender determines masculinity and femininity both of which are based on cultural differences and does not have a universal application. People translate biological sex into gender, with one set of rules for females to think, feel and behave as women and different set of rules for males to be men. Parents, peers, media, literature, teachers and school influence gender identity formation (Chatterji 1993)[4].

Gender is a socio-culturally constructed division between females and males, which is deeply woven into the organisation of institutions and of everyday life. It is not just a division, but also an asymmetry, with men having more power and status (Nagla 2001[5]). In a gender-based society, women's involvement in various levels of human interactions and relationships are totally ignored. In every walk of life like social and physical mobility, allocation and distribution of cultural resources, religion, politics, education, law and caste, some sort of discrimination can be observed.

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[3] B. K. Nagla (1995), 'Sex and Gender: Cognitive Analysis', *In* Abha Avasthi, A K Srivastava, 2001, *Modernity, Feminism and Women Empowerment* (Ed.), Rawat Publications, New Delhi, pp.131-150.

[4] Shoma A. Chatterji (1993), *The Indian Women in Perspective: The Psychological Dimension*, Ajanta Publications, New Delhi, pp 48-65.

[5] B. K. Nagla (1995), 'Sex and Gender: Cognitive Analysis', *In* Abha Avasthi, A K Srivastava, 2001, *Modernity, Feminism and Women Empowerment* (Ed.), Rawat Publications, New Delhi, pp.131-150.

The struggle for women's equality with men is based on the recognition that gender inequality is caused by structural and institutional discrimination. Gender inequalities manifest themselves in disadvantages for women (Macdonald et al. 1995[6]). Therefore, discussions about gender mainly concentrate on women.

Gender discrimination is so firmly embedded in the history of humanity that it is often not perceived as discrimination. Because, women have always been burdened with unpaid household work and absent from public life, this is deemed to be a natural state of affairs (Jha et al. 1998[7]).

Man-woman relationship is a tactic contract, which should be equally advantageous to both. In whatever situation women and men are socially constructed, in this contract, this ethics is of importance in every action and inter action. To make the meaning of equity or justice comprehensive, equality is an important notion. The Constitution promises formal equality of men and women but the structure and functions of the society through its institutions, norms and values act in a peculiar way that men are getting the privileges and women are underprivileged. If both are considered equal, unjust treatment of one to the other create crisis.

Equity is synonymous with fairness and justice and it is the means to attain the end-equality. Equity is not about treating everyone the same- it may also use positive action initiatives and measures to address existing inequities. Equity is distinct from the concept of equality in that it specially targets those groups, which are socially underprivileged or disadvantaged, for example, with respect to access to health, education, employment and income. Equity is the resolutions against inequalities, which are unnecessary, avoidable, and unjust.

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[6] Manday Macdonald, Ellen Sprenger, Ireen Dubel (1995), *Gender and Organisational Change- Bridging the Gap Between Policy and Practices*- Royal Tropical Institute, Netherlands, p.10.

[7]Uma Shankar Jha, Arathi Mehta and Lalitha Menon (1998), *Status of Indian Women: Crisis and Conflicts in Gender Issues* (Ed.), Volume 1,2,3, Kanishka Publishers, Delhi, p.104-137.

Gender equity is the principle and practice of fair and equitable allocation of resources and opportunities for females and males. Development affects men and women differently and so there must be special measures to achieve equity in access to resources. A primary goal of gender equity is to provide all individuals with access and opportunity to take part in a full range of activities. This enables them to benefit from, excel at and fulfil their human potential.

Achieving gender equity does not mean that women become the same as men. Women need different rights and entitlements with regard to their reproductive function. It simply means that both can exercise their rights irrespective of gender. It also means that men and women may arrive at equal results from different starting points, using different paths.

Gender justice aims at much more than mere absence of discrimination. The concept of gender justice is incorporated in the concept of social justice. It means a social order based on justice-social, economic and political-as visualized by Article 38 of the Constitution. The existence of a democratic social culture and liberal and secular polity must precede gender justice. Gender justice does not thrive in a fundamentalist regime (Sathe 1996[8]).

Gender equity has many aspects. Equity in the labour market affects earnings, employment, and the industrial and occupational division of labour. Equity in the social development relates to the fulfilment of such basic needs as health, education etc. Equity within the household affects women's control over resources and income and responsibilities for the work required to reproduce the household on a daily and generational basis. Although these three dimensions of

[8] S. P. Sathe (1996), *Towards Gender Justice*, RCWS, SNDT Women's University, Bombay, p.23.

gender equity are related to each other, growth patterns and government policies do not affect them in the same way (Sen 1995 [9]).

The HDR of United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) 1995 states that there is yet no country where women and men enjoy equal rights and opportunities. In all spheres, perfect equality between both the sexes is not possible or desirable in the present world. For a healthy society, harmony and complementarities are essential. But problem arises when one group is deprived of its basic privileges only because of gender over which one has no control (UNDP 1995[10]).

The preamble of United Nations (UN) Charter reaffirms faith in fundamental human rights, in the equal rights of men and women. International Covenant on Economic, Cultural and Social Rights (1966) provides equal right to all people to pursue development and prohibits discrimination on the basis of sex. Declaration on the elimination of discrimination against women expresses concern over continued existence of considerable discrimination against women (Bansal 1989[11]). Ever since the UN Declaration of 1975 as year of woman, momentum has been gathering all over the world demanding gender equality. The UN conferences such as the International Conference on Population and Development held in Cairo in September 1994; the Social Summit at Copenhagen in March, 1995; the Fourth World Conference on Women which was held in Beijing in September, 1995 have all proclaimed the goals of gender equality and women's rights. These dimensions of development find international reinforcement in the series of Human Development Reports.

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[9] Gita Sen (1995), 'Gender, Poverty, Economic Growth and Gender Equity', *In* Noeleen Heyzer and Gita Sen, Gender, *Economic Growth and Poverty-market Growth and State Planning in Asia and Pacific* (Ed.), Kali for Women and Asian and Pacific Development Centre, New Delhi, p.32.

[10] *Human Development Report 1995*, United Nations Development Programme, Oxford University Press, Delhi.

[11] V.K.Bansal (1989), 'Economic Security of Women and Employment Equality' *In* R.K.Sapru, *Women and development,* p.1-3.

Governments, the world over, have sensitised to the issue of gender justice and have introduced statutory changes to achieve gender equity (Indiresan 2000[12]). India the land of hierarchy and holism also accept gender equity as a value. Constitution of India has laid emphasis on equality of men and women. In India, most of the disabilities of women still persisting in some other countries have been removed and even traditional inheritance laws have been modified in conformity with the principle of equality.

But, this is only one side of the coin. India is one of the large number of third world countries where females are still at a considerable disadvantage demographically, socially, culturally and economically. Inequality among men and women is found universal, but it is on fast decline in advanced countries compared to developing countries like India. India's achievements are very low both in Gender Related Development Index (GDI) and also Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM), compared to advanced states like Canada, Norway and USA.

In India, there is a considerable difference in the level of attainments of people on various aspects of well being depending on the place of residence, the sex of person and the social group or segment of population that the person belongs to. In general most indicators show a lower level of attainment for women and for people residing in rural areas (Planning Commission 2002[13]).

The preference for sons is reflected in several ways, including female infanticide and the various constraints and inequities the surviving female children face later in life in respect of division of labour within the household, liberties that they are permitted to enjoy, opportunity to develop talents, education, medical care, health and nutrition, property rights based on patrilineal system, drastic

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[12] Jaya Indiresan (2000), 'Will Gender Sensitization of Men Result in a Win-Win Situation', *Contemporary Analyst*, 1 (2), pp.55-59.

[13] *National Human Development Report 2001*, Planning Commission, Government of India, 2002.

separation of female child from natal family, employment, marriage, divorce and remarriage of widows.

Kerala with a beautiful caption 'God's Own Country' can be proud of many things. Among the Indian states, Kerala has the highest Human Development Index (HDI) and GDI. In Kerala, sex ratio favours females unlike as in India. Kerala is in the forefront in the life expectancy of females and the difference between figures for males and females is larger in Kerala than that in the national level. Turning to the literacy rate, the female literacy rate is highest in the national level and gender gap in literacy is also very small in Kerala. In maternal mortality rate, Kerala is placed first among the Indian states. Both genders in Kerala have a high mean age at marriage, compared to the national level. Due to wide network of health institutions, institutional deliveries are more in Kerala than in India. The fertility indices give Kerala the best figures in comparison with the all India average. The death rate is also lowest in Kerala and female death rate is less than the male death rate. Among the states, Kerala has the least difference between Infant Mortality Rate (IMR) of male and female children. Kerala's life expectancy for males and females is very much higher than the all India rates.

The gender gap in enrolment favours girls in Kerala in lower primary, upper primary, high school, degree, post graduate and teachers' training institutes. Dropout rates in Kerala are less than that in national level. Along with the highest enrolment of girl students, there is high proportion of women teachers in Kerala, a factor that carried the state to the top position in women development. In local governments, women occupy more than one-third seat. Kerala ranks last in dowry death cases. By the above indicators, the quality of life of women and children in Kerala compares favourably with that of their counterparts in other states of India.

Despite the fact that Kerala has signal achievements in gender development, there are some areas of attention required in achieving gender equity. There is yawning chasm between official statistics and everyday lives. Anyone who has lived in Kerala, for even a short spell, will tell that Kerala's women are empowered only in a virtual sense. There is nothing like a position of equality and paradox, for men and women of Kerala, so much different from their counterparts in rest of the country.

The women in Kerala face all kind of problems revealing the gender inequity prevailing in the state. Regarding the sex ratio, 0-6 population sex ratio favours males in Kerala. The work participation rate, especially female work participation rate, is the lowest in the national level. Unemployment rate, especially female unemployment, is the highest in Kerala compared to other states. The division of labour based on gender – both within the family and society – reinforces the slavery of women. Wage discrimination is also common in Kerala. Share of women in the earned income is only 12.4 per cent in Kerala, while it is 23.2 per cent for women in the all India level (Smith and Smith 1997[14]), showing higher rate of dependency of Kerala women on men in economic front. In Kerala, compared to other Indian states, the number of petitions on atrocities against women filed in Women's Commission is quite high. Another figure, which is not encouraging, is the poor representation of women in Kerala Legislative Assembly and Parliament. Women in Civil Service are only very small percentage compared to men in Kerala. Number of girl students in other than state syllabus school and technical high schools, ITI and poly techniques, engineering and medicine are less compared to boys. Elderly population is the highest in Kerala with more female elderly than male elderly. Morbidity rates are the highest in Kerala with more female morbidity than male.

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[14] Anitha Madhekar Smith and Lawson Smith (1997), *The Indian Handbook – Prospects into the 21st Century,* Fitzory Dearborn Publishers, USA, p.28.

Gender disparity exists in getting chance, encouragement and participation in cultural, and social fields. Moreover, there is inequity in accessing health care utilities, obtaining educational facilities and participation in political fields. These negative indicators pose certain very pertinent questions against the gender equity prevailing in Kerala.

1.2 Review of Literature

In this section an attempt is made to present the review of some studies connected with gender at international, national and state level.

Both in the developed and developing countries of the world a large number of researches have been conducted in the field of gender. These studies have analysed the problem from different viewpoints such as social, economic, psychological, cultural and political. A review of some of the major studies is necessary to formulate and project the problem of the present study in its wider theoretical perspectives.

Research on gender can be traced back to the time of the emergence of gender studies as a discipline. The gendered character of social relations, that was brought into the focus by the late 1960s liberation movements, became a site of imagination from then onwards. It took totally different directions from there and one significant turn was towards the formation of the discipline of gender studies, attempting the description and explanation of the process of gendering social relations.

1.2.1 Studies at the International Level

Boserup (1970)[15] launched the field of gender in development. The book was revolutionary because it changed prevailing concepts about women's

[15] Ester Boserup (1970), *Women's Role in Economic Development,* St. Martin Press, London.

economic roles in modernising agricultural societies. Boserup argued that women's status in agricultural societies was positively correlated with their roles in food production. As technologies advanced and as men monopolized the more advanced technologies, women were increasingly marginalized from agriculture. This in turn reduced women's status and consequently their freedom. Colonial bureaucracies ex-acerbated this tendency by introducing new farming techniques and cash crops. Because of western notions about the appropriate sexual division of labour in agriculture, men were trained to use these new technologies and women continued to work in the least productive land, with the poorest inputs. As a result, women lost income and status relative to men.

Recognising that modernisation entailed urbanisation, Boserup also examined the economic situation of women in cities. Noting that women were often excluded from formal sector jobs in modern employment by their low levels of education and by discriminatory practices and arguing that women's access to 'bazaar and service' occupations could be the basis for improving women's incomes, Boserup's thesis challenged the common assumption that women's rights and status automatically improve as modernisation proceeds.

She also paid attention toward policies that could enhance women's changes. If colonial administrations had undermined women's position, by failing to recognise women's productive roles, the enlightened policies on the part of national governments and international agencies could correct the mistakes of the past. And although women's equality has again become a major issue in the last quarter of the twentieth century, norms and practices have proven resistant to change. Modernisation should reinforce equality by establishing a gender free division of labour, a set of gender-free standards of achievements, and gender-free institutions. Instead, she argues, patriarchy has modernised itself. Boserup explained women's dependence as a consequence of the changing relations of

economic production. She further argued that these economic changes did not necessarily marginalize women. Women's role in agriculture had been diminished by their lack of access to new technologies, a trend that was aggravated by colonial administrations, which provided men with the training, inputs, credit, and markets to produce and sell cash crops, while women continued to produce most of the food without benefit of new inputs. Boserup opined that there was an urgent need to act, because letting modernisation take its course could only worsen the situation.

Abrams and Elliot (1978)[16] analysed various aspects of British society, defining ways in which it has altered since Second World War and suggesting reasons for these changes. The chapters are linked thematically by three central concerns of classical sociology: the division of labour, urbanisation and inequality. Within the context of their chosen themes each contributor considered the origin and nature of differing lifestyles and the degree to which the available data reveal continuing or new forms of inequality.

Beneria and Sen (1981)[17], in their review of a decade of research on women and development, argued that the roots of women's oppressions must be sought not only within the sphere of production, but also reproduction, not only in economic structures but also in social and cultural structures, and that women's frequent loss of status in the course of economic development must be conceived in the context of an interweaving of class relations and gender relations.

Chant and Brydon (1989)[18] have provided an up-to-date general account and review of research on the roles and status of women in the contemporary third

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[16] Philip Abrams and Brian Elliot (1978), *Work, Urbanisation and Inequality*, Weidenfield and Nicholson, London.

[17] Lourdes Beneria and Gita Sen (1981), 'Accumulation, Reproduction and Women's role in Economic Development: Boserup Revisited', *Signs*, 7 (2), pp.279-298.

[18] Sylvia Chant and Lynne Brydon (1989), *Women in the Third World-Gender Issues in Rural and Urban Areas.* Edward Edger Publishing Ltd., England.

world. They focused on four major themes of under development, which have particular relevance for gender roles and relations: the household, production, reproduction and policy. They summarised significant ideas and finding on each theme and drew out the main differences among regions.

Groverman (1990)[19] revealed that gender impact assessment is a way to estimate the expected impact of an intervention, such as a development project, on women and to know to what extent the specific interests and needs of various categories of women will be affected. They believed that such an assessment provides information for project planning.

Barring and Wehkamp (1991)[20] have covered an array of subjects, from conceptual aspects of gender and women's autonomy to planning strategies and evaluation methodology. They presented a view, which focused more on non-governmental organisations, peasant women and co-operation agencies.

Blumberg (1991)[21] explained that the male-female control of economic resources is the main prediction of a wide variety of gender stratification consequences. He reviewed the evidence that men and women spend income under their control in different fashions, with women holding back less for themselves and spending more on child nutrition and family 'basic human needs'. So when women lose control of income not only their relative power position in the family is affected but also family well-being. He showed that planned third world development projects that rely on female labour, but do not provide women with a return for that labour, are likely to suffer as well to the extent that they are not able to reallocate their efforts to tasks yielding income under their own control.

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[19] Vera Giantten Verona Groverman (1990), *Assessing the Gender Impact of Development Projects: Case Studies from Bolivia, Burkina Fasoo and India*, Intermediate Technology Publications, U.K.

[20] Maruja Barring and Andy Wehkamp (1991), *Engendering, Development Experiences in Gender and Development Planning,* Novib Publications, Peru.

[21] Rac Lesser Blumberg (1991), *Gender, Family and Economy: The Triple Overlap*, Sage Publications, New Delhi.

He has touched all the three sides of an important but relatively neglected triangle-inter relationship among economic, gender and family variables.

Chafetz (1994)[22] explained how inequality is maintained and reproduced and how such systems changed over time, becoming either more or less inequitable to women, by integrating a variety of feminist theories, ranging from micro level to macro level. Cross-cultural and historical data are cited to support the theory, which stresses the centrality of the gender division of labour.

Jacobson (1994)[23] offered a comprehensive, balanced, up to date introduction to all the new work on the differences between women and men-economic opportunities, activities and rewards. Although Jacobson's primary focus is on contemporary United States pattern, she denoted three separate chapters to the experience of men and women in developed countries. She also took a close look at the evolution of contemporary pattern over time and the impact on them of race, ethnicity and class. Throughout she discussed the 'pros and cons' of 'comparable worth' and effects of welfare programmes. The text is enlivened by many real life examples and anecdotes.

Beneria (1995)[24] gave a historical overview of the alternative theoretical approaches that have discussed women's issues, particularly since 1950s and 1960s and argued that during 1980s and 1990s these approaches have tended to converge through the use of gender as a central category of analysis. The influence of post-modernism and the development of feminist theory have laid the basis for the task of transforming economies and engendering theory and policy. The paper discussed two areas in which progress towards engendering economic

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[22] Janet Saltzman Chafetz (1994), *An integrated Theory of Stability and Change*, Intermediate Technology Publications, U.K.

[23] Joyce P. Jacobson (1994), *The Economics of Gender*, Blackwell Publishers, Cambridge.

[24] Lourdes Beneria (1995), 'Toward a Greater Integration of Gender in Economics', *World Development*, 23 (11), pp.1839-1850.

analysis has been made since the late 1970s: (a) the visibility of women's work and its inclusion in labour force and national accounting statistics and (b) macro economic issues with focus on the area of gender and development and of structural adjustment policies.

Elson (1995)[25] was of the opinion that the macro economic models underpinning the design of structural adjustment programmes are gender blind. The paper discussed strategies for introducing gender analysis into these models and evaluated the strengths and weaknesses of the model from a gender perspective. It concluded that besides being blind to gender, the models are also blind to the waste of resources. This waste is likely to be diminished by moves to more egalitarian systems of gender relations entailing changes in the structure of entitlements.

Gherardi (1995)[26] explored the symbolic order of gender in organisations, looking at how gender relations are culturally and discursively produced and reproduced and how they might be done differently. The author discussed her focus upon the relations between gender, power and culture in organisations and upon the need to come to grip with the pervasive, illusive and ambiguous nature of gender in work-settings through metaphoric, allusive analysis. She introduced two key metaphors for the book. The first is of the sexual contract, which centers on the sexuality of the organisations and static gender differences. The second is of the alchemic wedding, which highlights a plurality of cultural models of femaleness and women, work relationships and processes of dynamic difference, transformation and transcendence. She continued her examination of the construction of gender relations in the workplace through a series of rich, illuminating stories, which also draw upon various symbolic archetypes as

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[25] Diane Elson (1995), 'Gender Awareness in Modelling Structural Adjustment', *World Development,* 23 (11), pp.1851 - 1856.

[26] Silvia Gherardi (1995), *Gender, Symbolism and Organisational Culture*, Sage Publications, Delhi.

powerful forms of cultural expression. The last section of the book looked at possibilities for change, developing in a particular concept of different forms of gender.

Scott (1995)[27] demonstrated that many prevailing ideas about development, dependency, capitalism and socialism are anchored in social construction of gender differences. Early modernisation theorists, Scott pointed out, often juxtaposed modernity and tradition in ways reminiscent of enlightenment dichotomies that pitted the rational, productive city against the particularistic, fragmented and stagnant country side. Dependency theory despite its radically different focus on the causes of underdevelopment, also rests upon masculinistic conceptions of the unfolding of history, human labour, gendered division between the public and private realms. This provocative critique of both theory and practice went beyond the women in development approach, explored fundamental reconceptulisations of tradition, modernity and masculinity, femininity, revolution and development.

Human Development Report 1995 drew attention to the persistence of severe gender disparities in human development. The central message of the report is that human development if not engendered, is endangered (UNDP 1995[28]). It made the case that inequality between men and women cuts across all the usual divides; advanced, industrialised countries, developing countries, class, religion and race. Report made it clear that moving towards gender equality is not a technocratic goal – it is a political process. It requires a new way of thinking, in which the stereotyping of men and women gives way to a new philosophy, that regards all people irrespective of gender, as essential agents of change. The

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[27] Catherine V. Scott (1995), *Gender and Development: Rethinking Modernisation and Dependency Theory*, Lynne Rienner Publishers, London.

[28] *Human Development Report 1995,* United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), Oxford University Press, Delhi.

relentless struggle for gender equality would change most of today's premises for social, economic and political life.

An extremely valuable and innovative contribution of HDR 1995 is the construction of the Gender-related Development Index (GDI), which reflected gender disparities in basic human capabilities, ranking 130 countries on a global scale. The GDI concentrated on the same variables as HDI but focused on both the inequality between men and women as well as on the average achievement of all people taken together. GDI is basically the HDI adjusted for gender inequality. The GDI is the average of three equally distributed indices – life expectancy, educational attainment and income – and has a value ranging from 0 to 1. The Report also introduced the concept of Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM). The GEM examined whether women actively participate in economic and political life and in the decision making as men. Four indicators – the percentage of seats in parliament held by women, the percentage of women as administrators and managers, the percentage of women as professionals and technical workers and the percentage of income shared by women – are used for constructing the GEM.

Lewis (1996)[29] has focused on the contributions of women. She has argued that women do not have a straightforward access to an implicitly male position of western superiority. Their relationship to the shifting terms of race, nation and gender has produced positions, from which women writers and artists can articulate alternative representation of racial difference.

Sainsbury (1996)[30] made one of the studies, which made significant contribution to the gender research. She analysed the situation in countries whose welfare state policies differ in significant ways: the US, the UK, Sweden and Netherlands. Building on feminist criticisms of feminist research, Professor

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[29] Reina Lewis (1996), *Gendering Orientalism*, Routledge Publications, London.

[30] Diane Sainsbury (1996), *Gender Equality and Welfare State*, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.

Sainsbury reconceptualised the crucial dimensions of welfare state variations and identified those relevant to gender. She used the framework to determine the extent to which legislation reflect and perpetuate the gendered division of labour in the family and society, as well as what types of policy alter gender relations in social provisions. She discussed the importance of distinguishing between entitlements as women's and as mothers' in contrast to social rights based on wifely and motherly labour. She also underlined the needs to examine the social rights of both women and men in order to move towards gender equality. She tracked policy changes from the late 1960s to 1996 and evaluated the impact of gender equality reforms to show which reforms work and which do not. She increased our understanding of how policy mechanism, especially the bases of entitlement, exclude or incorporate women and offered constructive proposals for securing greater equality of the sexes.

Waylen (1996)[31] has put forward a gendered analysis of Third world politics. She examined the impact of policy and politics on gender relations and on different group of women.

Bank and Hall (1997)[32] have taken tough questions of how to define and obtain gender equity in education in the next century. They have laid bare some of the basic contradictions and paradoxes of gender equity that are often ignored by overzealous reformers, policy makers and educational researchers.

Deutscher (1997)[33] has examined recent theories of gender instability. She then considered how these theories challenged many contemporary feminist interpretations, revising the controversial debates about sexual difference in the

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[31] Georgina Waylen (1996), *Gender in Third World Politics*, Open University Press, Buckingham.

[32] Barabara J. Bank and Peter M. Hall (1997), *Gender Equality and Schooling*, Garland Publications, New York.

[33] Penelope Deutscher (1997), *Yeilding Gender-Feminism, Deconstruction and the History of Philosophy*, Routledge Publications, London.

work of Rousseau, St.Augusine and Simone de Beauvoir. She offered an illuminating reconstruction of how the elusive, unstable and self-contradictory aspects of such interpretations of gender enable the masculine connotation of reasons to persist.

Gould (1997)[34] has presented a lively, controversial and critical discussion concerning gender. She explained from more theoretical considerations concerning the concept of gender and the alternative ways of understanding it, to more normative and applied contexts of its role in ethics and in political and legal practices. Part I explained the issue of the social constructions of gender, beginning with Simone de Beauvoir's classic statement of woman as the 'other'. Subsequent essays presented a range of perspectives on the cultural and social status of gender and its relation to Biology, as well as on the process through which such gendering takes place. The question of gendered character traits-masculine and feminine-and their relation to social role is discussed here, as is the relation of gender to the formation of the self and the construction of sexual identity. Part II pursued the analysis of gender in its socio-cultural and psychological aspects and considered some of the specific ways in which women have been subordinated and oppressed. There was also a reflection on the varying historical forms of masculinity and their relation to male domination. This part then went on to deal with the formation of female sexual identity in the context of oppression. The essays in Part III continued this examination of concrete manifestations of gender discrimination by focusing on the family in its historically changing forms in class societies, on relations between racism and sexism, and on the problems of gender in western cultures. In Part IV, questions about the nature of scientific knowledge, of philosophical method, and of the role of reason itself are posed from feminist perspectives. There was also a critical

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[34] Carol C Gould (1997), *Key Concepts in Critical Theory: Gender,* :Humanities Press, New Jersey.

discussion of postmodernism as a way of theorising gender. In part V, as in the remaining two sections of the book, normative questions became the explicit focus for analysis. In this part, universalistic moral conceptions such as justice and impartiality are contrasted with alternatives that emphasise moral concern. This general focus on difference is carried through the next section in application to the political domain. The final part took up a range of questions concerning gender and law.

MacDonald et al. (1997)[35] have provided a practical approach to change, richly illustrated with experiences in gender interventions. The book highlighted the gender perspective in relation to funding. The growing strength and impact of women's organising efforts throughout the world have spurred on the development of strategies to reduce gender inequalities. The need to address these inequalities has become a recognised element in encouraging development. Poverty and marginalisation are now clearly seen as gendered phenomena. However if real change is to occur with respect to gender, organisations will have to become accountable to the needs and interest of women, not only development organisations of the south but also northern donor organisations. It explained processes that are relevant to many organisations and sketched a vision of an organisation that is not only gender sensitive but also more generally people friendly. Specific chapters focused on organisational culture, the role of changing agent and the challenge of monitoring and evaluating change. Guidelines for a gender assessment of an organisation are also involved. However, a commitment to change remains an essential element of the book.

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[35] Mandy MacDonald, Ellen Sprenger and Ireen Dubel (1997), *Gender and Organisational Change-Bridging the Gap Between Policy and Practice*, Royal Tropical Institute, Netherlands.

Potuchek (1997)[36] gave an original contribution to the ongoing study of what happens within families when women enter into labour force. The author carefully distinguished breadwinning from paid employment and used the insights of gender construction theory to illuminate that distinction. Gender construction theory saw gender as a system of social relations that is continually and actively created in the social interactions of daily life. Using both quantitative and qualitative analysis, this book demonstrated that despite the problems of dual earner marriages, breadwinning is still widely used as a boundary that creates gender discrimination, by distinguishing the meaning of men's employment from that of women's. The author argued that this discrimination is influenced by adult experiences and circumstances and by the material conditions of couple's lives.

Walby (1999)[37] set out a new policy agenda for women. Gender relations are being transformed and a new gender settlement is being created. Policy concerns that the book included were the welfare provision women need in order to become full citizen, the needs of children and of the elderly, how law could be made to work more effectively and how to protect women against violence.

Gutierrez (2003)[38] offered concepts and tools to bring macro economics and reform processes closer to the realities by focussing on gender relations. The book is organised in four parts. The intersection between macro economics and gender and the effects of alleged neutrality of Economics as a discipline has been discussed in first part. The second part dealt with gender and reforms. Institutionalising gender in national and international organisations was the content of third section. The last part has given the case studies from Latin America. The author made it clear that gender bias are present at all levels – in

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[36] Potuchek (1997), *Who Supports the Family: Gender and Breadwinning in Dual Earner Marriages*, Stanford University Press, California.

[37] Sylvia Walby (1999), *New Agenda for Women*, Macmillan Press Limited, London.

[38] Martha Gutierrez (2003), *Macro Economics: Making Gender Matter – Concepts, Policies and Institutional Change in Developing Countries*, Zed Books Ltd. USA.

institutions, markets and households and presented options for introducing social structures to the macro economic agenda. A wide range of key issues like gender differentiated effects of economic policy and public spending decisions are explained. Unpaid household labour and its measurement, gender statistics, gender quality in planning and public policies and the notion of economies as gendered structures are also dealt with.

1.2.2 Studies at the National Level

Desai (1957)[39] has pointed out that theoretically a woman is recognised as equal to man; in practice she is still considered much inferior to him. The social institutions, religious norms, value system, ideologies, all continue to reinforce the spirit of male dominance. Authoritarian and pro-male values still shape the lives of the large majority of women in India.

DeSouza (1980)[40] sought to draw the traditional images and changing roles of men and women in India. The author stated that all over the world women are denied equal access with men in opportunities for personal growth and social development, in education, employment, marriage and family life. In India there was extensive discrimination because of the sex-segregated character of society, the conditions of poverty and traditionally valued system. Women are so completely tied down by childcare, housework and agricultural labour, that the options opened to them for personal growth are limited.

Devandra (1985)[41] revealed an interesting fact that in the ancient period girls in ruling families received administrative and military training. They were entitled to the same education as boys. Later, the joint family system with consanguinity in the male, discouraged independence and initiation of female

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[39] Neera Desai (1957), *Women in Modern India,* Vora and Co., Bombay.

[40] Alfred DeSouza (1980), *Women in Contemporary India and South Asia*, Manohar publications, New Delhi.

[41] Kiran Devandra (1985), *Status and Position of Women in India*, Shakthi Books, Delhi.

members. According to the author the reasons for the continuous deterioration in the status of Indian women are early marriages of girls, unequal and indifferent treatment of women by the Hindu law in marriage, marital status, divorce, widowhood and inheritance.

Sharma (1986)[42] issued a detailed material to examine women's economic contribution to the urban household. The term economic contribution covers not only income from waged labour or conventional notions of housework, but also all activities, which are associated for the maintenance and management of household resources, both material and social. It is shown how these kinds of work are related to each other and how women and men perceive them. This study adds another dimension to the literature on the household and on class formation and urbanisation in the third world countries.

Panigrahi (1989)[43] stated that legal equality granted to women itself is not at all sufficient to overcome the gender inequality in India. To overcome gender inequality, awareness among women about equality with men should be created. Women of all region, class and caste should co-operate in the task of their own redemption.

Sapru (1989)[44] has provided a comprehensive evaluation of the status of women in the world today. The book is a collection of research papers and articles investigating into various aspects of pressing socio-economic problems facing women in India. Making wide use of data, the problems of Indian women are analysed. The contributors suggested means and ways not only for removing economic and social inequality affecting Indian women but also accelerating the

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[42] Ursula Sharma (1986), *Women's Work, Class and the Urban Household: A Study of Shimla, North India,* Tavistock Publications, London and New York.

[43] N.P. Panigrahi (1989), 'Gender Inequality in India', *Yojana,* 33 (4), pp.4-13.

[44] R.K. Sapru (1989), *Women and Development*, Ashish Publications, New Delhi.

involvement of women in the development process and ensuring them the status envisaged in the constitution through policy intervention and action programmes.

According to Rajalakshmi (1991)[45], the status of women is lower than that of men in all UN member states. Indian women still lag behind men in terms of education, literacy and female participation in labour force. Women earn less than men for the same work. Women are under-represented in higher political offices. The social status of Indian women is much worse than that of women of other countries.

Singh (1991)[46] has provided a contour of Indian women. Latest statistics of various aspects of women had been brought into focus. An attempt had been made to cover almost all facts such as population, vital statistics, education, labour, employment, wages, health and welfare. Gender disparities in the state regarding these facts have also been highlighted.

Chowdhry (1995)[47] identified gender bias against female children and youth in India. Discrimination is reflected in denial of female children's educational, health, nutrition and recreational needs. The task of eliminating gender bias involves legal, developmental, political and administrative measures. He opined that public awareness needs to be created and education and health system should be re-oriented.

Das and Dash (1995)[48] have vindicated the ideology of equality between sexes. When potential of women is realised, gains to society will multiply because of synergistic effect. Their contribution was unique in the sense that seldom have

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[45] V. Rajalakshmi (1991), 'Indian Women Today', *In* Sebasti L.Raj, *Quest for Gender Justice: A Critique of the Status of Women in India* (Ed.), T.R Publications, Madras.

[46] Prakash P. Singh (1991), *Women in India-A statistical Panorama*, Inter India Publications, New Delhi.

[47] D.P.Chowdhry (1995), 'Girl Child and Gender Bias', *Social Change: Issues and Perspectives,* 25 (2-3), pp.84-93.

[48] Bibekananda Das and L.N. Dash (1995), *The Feminine Gender*, Manaka Publications, New Delhi.

people tried to weave conclusions from various sciences into an edifice, supportive of a human cause of epoch making importance.

Das and Gupta (1995)[49] have presented the various view points regarding the status of women in developing countries in the light of social changes. The authors have explored the nature of social changes with incisive theoretical analysis, of their influence on women, who have been relegated to a secondary position in the emerging human configurations.

Dreze and Sen (1995)[50] analysed deprivation and role of public action in addressing the problem of deprivation. The analysis was based on a broad view of economic development focussing on human well being and social opportunity rather than on the standard indicators of economic growth. The seventh chapter of this book is devoted for gender equity and women's agency. It discussed in detail female deprivation and missing women and regional differences in male-female ratio. The extent of anti female bias on survival is substantially reduced by various influences that give women more voice and agency within the family. Here, female education has a crucial role to play. Fertility and women's employment, widowed and gender relations, gender equity and social progress are also discussed.

Basu (1996)[51] opined that all people should participate in development process but women are excluded from developmental opportunities. The author considered whether women truly have equitable access to literacy, education, food, nutrition, health, employment and political and economic decision-making process. She further argued that in order for women to achieve equality with men,

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[49]Man Singh Das and Vijay Kumar Guptha (1995), *Social Status of Women in Developing Countries*, MD Publications, New Delhi.

[50] Jean Dreze and Amartya Sen (1995), *India: Economic Development and Social Opportunity,* Oxford University Press, New Delhi.

[51] Aparna Basu (1996), 'Towards Ensuring Gender Equity', *Yojana*, 40 (1), pp.51-53.

all girls must have access to primary and secondary schools, as mere literacy is not enough. Gender stereotyping must be avoided and gender sensitisation be ensured at all levels.

Hirway and Mahadevia (1996)[52] argued that the GDI and GEM, as conceptualised by UNDP are not satisfactory, as they do not measure the concerns of women in the south and ignore macro and structural aspects of gender development. They are also fairly narrowly defined in terms of their coverage. Here, an alternative conceptual framework was presented for measuring the gender development in the south naming it GDM and computed GDM-I, GDM-II and GDM for the major 15 states. GDM-I includes income component represented by per capita income, educational attainment component, health status component, housing status component, employment diversification and empowerment of women. GDM-II measures gender development at macro level and the components considered are environment and ecology, community level facilities, institutional participation, social environment and inequalities of assets and incomes. GDM for each state is computed by averaging the values of GDM-I and GDM-II to have one comprehensive measure of GDM for each state.

There are many inadequacies in the composition of GDI and GEM presented in the Human Development Report 1995 (Jain 1996[53]). The paper addressed the issues of the valuation of work, a crucial element in the presentation of evaluative indices. On the basis of a field study of the time use of individuals, in a sample of 127 rural households, it traced the question whether time itself may not be a more appropriate measure for evaluating work, especially in the context of asset less women workers. The study involved household survey in six villages

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[52] Indira Hirway and Darshini Mahadevia (1996), 'Critique of Gender Development Index: Towards an Alternative', *Economic and Political Weekly,* 31 (43), pp.WS87-WS96.

[53] Devaki Jain (1996), 'Valuing Work: Time as a Measure', *Economic and Political Weekly,* 31 (43), pp.WS46-WS57.

where time spent by men, women and children across a broad range of 42 activities was recorded largely through observation. The study revealed the phenomenon of invisibility, concentrated more on measuring methods and showed that by elaborating housework and breaking it into segments, it is possible to extract unmeasured economic activity, thereby making the enumeration of workers more accurate. The study suggested that while there is a neglect of housework and its value in the current methodologies used by statistical systems, there is also prior neglect in that, even economic activity of the kind the majority of women engaged in the developing countries does not get reflected.

Mehta (1996)[54] opined that gender relations are the key to understanding the inequalities between men and women. Gender relations need to be measured in the context of participation in and sharing of the important decision making process that results in inequalities. Such a measure would help to identify the differing degrees of inequalities in terms of age, income level and geographical location. She tried to construct three measures of gender empowerment based on the following indicators: representation in Lok Sabha, state legislatures, gram panchayats, panchayat samitis and zilla parishads; the literacy rate; exercise of the right to vote; life expectancy and income. The scores and ranks obtained by the sixteen states for each of these variables revealed gender based disparities that can be meaningfully used by policy makers and analysts.

Mukherjee (1996)[55] explored the problems and prospects inherent in developing a database that could effectively address emerging issues including a more sensitive approach to gender- related developed indices. The preliminary sections are in the nature of a data inventory, providing an overview of the state of

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[54] Aasha Kapur Mehta (1996), 'Recasting Indices for Developing Countries – A Gender Empowerment Measure', *Economic and Political Weekly,* 31 (43), pp.WS80-WS86.

[55] Mukul Mukherjee (1996), 'Towards Gender – Aware Data Systems – Indian Experience', *Economic and Political Weekly,* 31 (43), pp.WS63-WS71.

statistics in four key areas, that determine the quality of life experienced by women and men: education, work participation, health and political participation. The concluding observations showed how our main stream data systems are capable of responding the data requirement in the context of development measures presented in UNDP's HDRs.

Prabhu et al. (1996)[56] drew attention to the problems associated with the construction of GDI at the sub-national level in developing countries, using data for 15 Indian states, using various measures of work force participation rates and wage rates by applying the methodology used by UNDP in 1995 Report. The sharp changes in ranks, which may be obtained with different sets of data show that there is need for exercising caution while deriving policy measures based on these ranks.

According to the study by Rajeevan (1996)[57], to assess inequality in functioning capabilities between males and females one way was the direct observation of their physical states. The GDI, a capability measure, uses life expectancy at birth as one of the indicators to capture male-female gap. It is suggested that there is considerable suffering, limitation of choice and inequalities even without waiting for the final, stark outcome of premature death: a dimension which can be captured using anthropometric data. Anthropometry is the systematic measurement of human body. Measures based upon anthropomtric data serve as indicators of physical condition of individuals – male and female – and allow us to draw inferences about inequalities in their functional capabilities. Gender differences in the prevalence of under nutrition and malnutrition, growth faltering, height and weight deficits, morbidity, disease loads, care and attention

[56] K. Seeta Prabhu, P.C.Sarker and A. Radha (1996), 'Gender Related Development Index for Indian States – Methodological Issues', *Economic and Political Weekly,* 31 (43), pp.WS72-WS79.

[57] Anuradha Kathi Rajeevan (1996), 'Measurement of Gender Differences Anthropometry', *Economic and Political Weekly,* 31 (43), pp.WS58-WS62.

received could thus be measured. This method allows assessing inequalities within households and, in particular, examining separately the well being of some of its members, for example, females, not only at the overall national level but also by sub-national regions and ethnic groups.

Shivakumar (1996)[58] computed GDI, using the methodology described in HDR 1995, for 16 Indian states and ranked them along with 130 countries of the world. Kerala tops the list among the states with a HDI value of 0.603. The gender inequalities are least in Himachal Pradesh (4.7 per cent) and maximum in Hariyana (24.3 per cent) as per his calculation.

The study of Jha et al. (1998)[59] was a comprehensive analysis of crisis and conflict in the 20th century women in India, for equal status in socio-economic and political life. The main role of women in most of the society, all over the world, was expected and confined to perform the household job, child bearing and care of the family. For these works there was neither wages nor their works recognised as much important as that of men. But with advancement of science and technology, there have been tremendous changes in life style of men and women, especially in urban areas.

Due to development of education, participation in outside jobs in the urban areas has gained impetus after independence. First volume dealt with gender discrimination and economic issues. The work structures for educated and uneducated, employed and unemployed have basic similarities in the domestic front. But outside the home the work situation and structure are hierarchically related to levels of education. Second volume gave a critical account of women participation in politics and politicalisation of women issues. Social theories of

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[58] A.K.Shivakumar (1996), 'UNDP's Gender-Related Development Index: A computation for Indian States', *Economic and Political Weekly,* 31 (14), pp.887-895.

[59] Uma Shankar Jha, Arathi Mehta and Lalitha Menon (1998), *Status of Indian Women: Crisis and Conflicts in Gender Issues*, (Ed.) Volume 1,2,3, Kanisha Ppublishers, Delhi.

womanhood in India have been critically examined in the third volume. The nature of cruelty against women and preventive steps taken by government and non-government agencies are also discussed in this volume.

Krishnaraj et al. (1998)[60] were of the opinion that the links between gender, population and development are complex and specific to historical and socio-cultural contexts. This volume sought to probe deeper into these not easily recognisable connections between gender and development. It explored and illustrated through theoretical reviews and empirical accounts the powerful mediatory effect of gender relations in modifying or reinforcing gender biases. The papers in the volume had a specific thrust linking gender with development to two distinct set of conditions – individual endowments and structural constraints - for gender equality. They examined the basis of gender discrimination and the policy perspectives rising there from and provided an insight into what is actually happening to the females of this country.

Kumar (1998)[61] considered the health implication of gender equality and political participation. He examined gender inequality in human capabilities in sixteen Indian states through a presentation of demographic data, HDI values and GDI values. It was found that there is unpredictable relationship between income and gender equity since the status of women is lowest in India, in two of the richest states, Hariyana and Punjab. Another finding was that higher levels of development and greater sex equity lead to lower fertility rates.

Utilising a disaggregated indicator analysis, Rustagi (2000)[62] identified gender backward districts among 15 major Indian states based upon 13 gender

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[60]Maithreyi Krishnaraj, Ratna M. Sudershan and Aboo Saleh Sharaff (1998), *Gender Population and Development* (Ed.), Oxford University, Delhi.

[61] A.K. Kumar (1998), 'Gender Equality and Political Participation: Implications for Good Health', *In* Swapna Mukhopadhyay, *Women's Health, Public Policy and Community Action* (Ed.), New Delhi, pp.53-68.

[62] Preet Rustagi (2000), 'Identifying Gender Backward Districts Using Selected Indicators', *Economic and Political Weekly,* 35 (48), pp.4276-4286.

sensitive indicators. Levels of development as well as gender differences in varied spheres, such as demographic, educational, health related, economic, social and cultural, have been taken into consideration. Apart from the individual indicator based ranking, an average of ranks of the 13 selected indicators at the district level was calculated to identify gender backward districts. This exercise limits itself mostly to secondary data from the 1991 Census. Only rural areas have been considered. 370 districts have been taken into consideration. All the selected indicators are analysed both at the state as well as the district levels and the lists of identified gender backward districts are presented. No district of Kerala has been included in the backward district list.

Planning Commission (2001)[63], in National Human Development Report of 2001, presented the status of human development at state level in India. It has put together an extensive database since 1980 covering nearly 70 social indicators in terms of gender, as well as the rural-urban dimensions. The report highlighted inequality by estimating the 'gender gap' and the 'rural-urban gap' in different indicators by a core set of composite indicators, namely, the HDI and Human Poverty Index. For the first time a Gender Equality Index has also been constructed to show the relative attainments of women as against men. The compilation of indicators extends beyond indicators on the economic attainment, educational attainment, health attainment and demographic factors to indicators on various social and environmental aspects, like the state of elderly, the working children, the disabled and violence and crimes against women. Besides, aspects of physical environment have also been highlighted. The report also focused on the issue of governance for human development and identified some instruments that need to be pursued for improving governance in the country.

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[63] Planning Commission (2001), *National Human Development Report 2001*, Government of India.

Seth (2001)[64] gave a meticulous documentation of development efforts in India. He started with the historical background of Indian women. The first chapter gave a fairly extensive review of literature and the underlying social constructions of gender in India. The second chapter dealt with policy and planning in India. The crucial issue of the girl child was given in the third chapter. The fourth chapter on women and education analysed the data on literacy rates with inter-state and gender variations. The fifth chapter evaluated the health policy of women while the sixth chapter discussed various issues related to women's employment. In the final chapter, the author brought out the factors like cultural norms that play a role in gender development. The book stands out as a different work due to its treatment of development issues incorporating the cultural construction of gender.

Bhatia (2002)[65] opined that women's work in the household, in subsistence agriculture and such other activities is either not accounted for or is grossly undervalued in conventional data collection on work. One possible way of properly accounting women's contribution to the economy is to measure the time women spent on activities, which are not included normally under the head of economic activities. This article using data, from the report of the Time Use Survey of 1998-99, conducted by Central Statistical Organisation (CSO), attempted to measure gender disparity in terms of the relative time men and women spent on productive activities. On the lines of the methodology used in the construction of HDI and GDI as given by UNDP in its reports, a measure of the gender disparity has been constructed. The absolute differences in the time spent by men and women in three different categories of activities namely, System of National Accounts (SNA), extended-SNA, and non-SNA as well as the absolute

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[64] Mira Seth (2001), *Women and Development: The Indian Experience*, Sage Publications, New Delhi.

[65] Rajesh Bhatia (2002), 'Measuring Gender Disparity Using Time Use Statistics', *Economic and Political Weekly,* 37 (33), pp.3464-3469.

difference in the proportions of time spent on unpaid SNA activities out of the total time spent on SNA activities, by men and women have been taken and combined to arrive at a composite index of gender disparity. Men dominate the SNA activities whereas the extended-SNA activities appear to be the sole responsibility of women.

Saha (2003)[66] explored the persisting gender inequalities in the fields of health, education and work, which focused on the well being of the growing girl. To fill some of the empirical and conceptual gaps about health of children, various parameters of health and nutrition, with reference to morbidity and medical care, immunisation, infant feeding and supplementary nutrition have been discussed. Differences in schooling opportunities, school dropouts, attitudes and aspirations towards educational attainment form an important part of discussion. Gender approach also highlights the ways in which boys and girls are positioned differently on diverse activities. The close association between mother's perception, the balanced development of children and their improvement in the quality of life are revealed in the analysis.

1.2.3 Studies at the State Level

Devi (1988)[67] revealed that 94.2 per cent of the women were not bothered about issues of sexual equality and gender justice. For them, gender hierarchy was god decided and that no human being could break it.

Gulati et al. (1996)[68] have provided valuable information about the gender and status of women in Kerala. The profile provided an overview of the position

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[66] Chandana Saha (2003), *Gender Equity and Equality: Study of Girl Child in Rajasthan,* Rawat Publications, New Delhi, pp.1-326.

[67] K.R.Lakshmi Devi (1988), *A Case Study of Tribal Women of Waynad District in Kerala,* Unpublished Project Report, Ministry of Environment, Government of India.

[68] Leela Gulati, Ramalingam and I.S Gulati (1996), *Gender Profile, Kerala,* Royal Netherlands Embassy, New Delhi.

of women in Kerala and made it clear that the role of men and women are complementary and often even overlapping.

Ramachandran (1996)[69] has investigated the source of Kerala's high profile performance in respect of living standards. When studying the sources of Kerala's current level of achievements, special features of its social circumstances have also been examined. He has tried to draw lessons from Kerala's experience for the rest of India and perhaps for other developing societies and discussed Kerala's achievements in respect of health, literacy and gender relations.

Pushpangadan and Murugan (2000)[70] have examined the causes of gender bias within the framework of bargaining models. Objective measures based on Sen's capability approach have been estimated. All four estimated capabilities – morbidity, longevity, nutrition and education show that females have lower well being compared to males. Household endowments seem to affect the gender inequality since higher income households do have a better female-male ratio. Gender bias unfavourable to females takes place mostly in lower income households. Lower bargaining power of females in the intra-household distribution of resources emanates from their worse breakdown position, their valuation of family interest above self interest and their lower perceived contribution to household opulence.

Murickan (2002)[71] opined that women in Kerala were exceptionally privileged because of higher life expectancy, higher education, and their participation rates in every field. Their higher education and literacy rates acted as a restrictive factor in raising the age at marriage. The younger women were

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[69] V.K. Ramachandran (1996), *On Kerala's Development Achievement*, Oxford University Press, New Delhi.

[70] K. Pushpangadan and G.Murugan (2000), Gender Bias in a Marginalised Community: A Study of Fisherfolk in Coastal Kerala, Working Paper No.302, Centre for Development Studies, Thiruvananthapuram.

[71] J. Murickan (2002), *Marriage and Human Fulfilment,* Classical Publishers. New Delhi.

moving away from the attitude of submissiveness and the traditional division between male and female jobs were not relevant since educated women could function as completely as men in any types of employment. Also younger women believed that women should engage in activities outside home and they saw themselves as equal partners with men not only in education and employment, but also in family. The author opined that education by itself was not enough to liberate women but a strong mass based movement organised by enlightened leadership would be able to provide women freedom and equality with men.

Kumar (2003)[72] opined that the paradox of the status of women in Kerala lies in the confusion between gender equality and gender equity. The notion of 'gender equality' assumes that the needs and interests of men and women are identical, while the notion of 'gender equity' presumes that they are different. The author believed that though development scholars point to past and current levels of female literacy and education, late age of marriage, decrease in fertility and greater work participation, to establish that Kerala women are privileged, many of the rights and powers they are bestowed with are intrinsic to their status as females.

Thus, a large number of studies have been conducted in different parts of the world on gender. In India several studies have been focused on different aspects of gender. In Kerala a few attempts have been made by individual researchers to study about the extent of gender equity. Review of existing literature pertaining to gender at the international, national and state level reveals that barring a few studies, which focus on gender in general, no such studies are undertaken to examine the rural-urban variations in gender equity in Kerala. A wide gap exists in the existing literature. This indicates the dire need for a number

[72] K.G.Kumar (2003), 'Women in Kerala: Engendered or Endangered?', *The Business Line,* March 10, 2003.

of studies to be undertaken concentrating this area. Hence, in order to bridge this research gap, an intensive study is undertaken to investigate into these aspects of gender equity in Kerala.

1.3 Significance of the Present Study

Traditionally, Kerala is often considered as a land of gender equity prominently in terms of factors like higher sex ratio, better health and educational standards for women, high level of female literacy, late age of marriage, declining fertility etc. The much publicised matrilineal background of Kerala and its positively projected comparison of women's position, in contrast to the womenfolk of other states of India, all have earned much appreciation and applause. The modern Kerala however is known for its high rate of socio-economic development and as a result it is almost a taken for granted situation that the so-called categories of women are well taken care in Kerala.

Have the women in Kerala achieved the millennium? The dominant ideology of gender relations that regards men as economic providers and women as child bearers persists in society. Here, we find behaviour patterns and modern techniques clearly bearing an imprint of the west, alongside with a very strong current of orthodoxy and conservatism born of the love for social values, handed down from generation to generation. Women have internalised self-sacrificing and expressive values and developed a false consciousness, which force them to accept male domination passively. They blindly accept the cumulative inequalities, arising from the socio-cultural and economic discriminatory practices, prevailing in Kerala.

Here, generalisation is pretty nearly impossible because of the existence of considerable variation between regions, between rural and urban areas, between classes etc. The present study, while utilising the valuable contributions of the

previous works has a distinct approach to the understanding of gender equity. Most of the earlier studies are macro in character. The inherent limitation of the macro-level indicators is that they are incapable of revealing the inter-regional and inter-class disparities. Macro studies have given too much attention to the legal, theoretical and formal dimensions of gender position, and too little to actual relations between men and women and the part played by them in rural and urban areas. The need for micro studies is also reinforced from another direction; the data from different macro surveys such as the Census and the various rounds of the National Sample Survey conflict with each other, and further, they do not provide a clue to the complex inter-regional disparities.

Since urbanisation is considered as the index of development and since Kerala witnessed rapid urbanisation during 1980s, it is necessary to have a rural-urban comparison. The lives of urban women are currently undergoing different types and degrees of change from those of their rural counterparts (Chant and Brydon 1989[73]). Urban residence enables women to make a relatively easy transition to new roles and responsibilities. Since urbanity is the main jolt on the traditional basis of family, it is necessary to have a rural-urban comparison. We proceed to study gender equity in the rural-urban setting.

Another reason for the rural-urban division is that the bulk of the literature on gender tends to concentrate on one or other area only. With the exception of national or regional overviews of gender, or analysis of particular topics such as migration, most detailed case studies are based on research carried out in either rural or urban areas and have rarely spanned the rural-urban divide. Second, such a division permits to group various factors affecting gender equity according to

[73] Sylvia Chant and Lynne Brydon (1989), *Women in the Third World-Gender Issues in Rural and Urban Areas-*, Edward Elgar Publishing Limited, England, 1989, p.1-16.

whether they are associated with tradition or more recent processes arising from urbanity.

Modernisation's western-based view dictated that the process of becoming 'urban' would necessarily involve the rejection of traditional values. Urbanisation is essentially a demographic phenomenon, which above all affects access to resources. It does not mean that urban is 'advance' and rural is 'backward'. Everywhere, whether rural or urban, several processes affecting women are similar, regardless of residence (Chant and Brydon 1989[74]).

The study aims to see whether gender equity is worse or better in urban or rural area, emphasising that long-standing social customs are more in the rural areas compared to urban area. Against this backdrop we will analyse the gender equity in Kerala in general and the gender equity of rural and urban areas in particular. Even though there are some studies regarding the general gender inequity status in Kerala, there are dearth of studies at micro level dealing with the gender inequity prevailing in family and society and its rural-urban variations. Here we proceed to see gender equity especially in the fields of health, education, communication and social life, household decision-making and atrocities faced. So the present study is relevant in such a way that it would provide better insights into gender equity status and its rural-urban variations.

1.4 Objectives of the Study

The following are the main objectives of the present study.

(i) To assess the gender status in Kerala.

(ii) To evaluate gender equity in terms of socio-economic status.

(iii) To analyse the rural-urban variations in gender equity, and

(iv) To identify the factors that determine and discriminate gender status.

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[74] Sylvia Chant and Lynne Brydon (1989), *Women in the Third World: Gender Issues in Rural and Urban Areas-*, Edward Elgar Publishing Limited, England, 1989, p.1-16.

1.5 Hypotheses

(i) Socio-economic conditions determine gender equity.

(ii) Gender equity varies with rural and urban areas.

(iii) Gender equity is directly related to employment status and educational status of female respondents.

(iv) Gender equity is inversely related to size of family and number of females in the family.

1.6 Data Source and Methodology

This section includes major concepts, data source, procedure for collection of data, the sampling design and the detailed methodology used in the study.

1.6.1 Major Concepts and Definitions

It is necessary to discuss briefly the concepts and the definitions of the terms used in the study.

Gender Analysis: A gender analysis identifies, analyses and helps to act upon inequities that arise from the different roles of women and men or the unequal power relationships with them (Macdonald et al. 1995[75]).

Gender Awareness: Gender awareness involves understanding the difference between sex roles and gender roles and understanding that the latter being socially and historically determined and constructed can be changed (Macdonald et al. 1995[76]).

Gender Equality: Gender equality means equal rights and opportunities for women and men in all sectors-social, economic, political, legal etc. Gender inequalities arise from the different roles of women and men or the unequal power

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[75] Manday Macdonald, Ellen Sprenger, Ireen Dubel (1995), *Gender and Organisational Change-Bridging the Gap Between Policy and Practices*- Royal Tropical Institute, Netherlands, p.10.

[76] Manday Macdonald, Ellen Sprenger, Ireen Dubel (1995), *Gender and Organisational Change-Bridging the Gap Between Policy and Practices*- Royal Tropical Institute, Netherlands, p.10.

relationships between them. Since these inequalities most often disadvantage women, a gender analysis highlights women's problems (Macdonald et al. 1995[77]).

Gender Equity: Equity is used here to mean justice and overall equality in the totality of rights and responsibilities of both genders. It is just treatment and balanced appreciation of both women's and men's potential and it results from a set of actions, attitudes and assumptions that provide opportunities and create expectations about individuals, regardless of gender. Perhaps it may be more useful to talk about gender equity instead of gender equality, for the very use of the notion of gender equality assumes that the needs and interests of women and men are identical whereas the notion of gender equity presumes they are different (Kumar 2003)[78].

Gender Identity: Gender identity refers to the perceptions of the self as a relatively masculine or feminine characteristics, abilities and behaviours.

Gender Inequality: Gender inequality is the departure from parity in the representation of women and men in various dimensions of social life like physical well being, family formation, education, economic activity and public power.

Gender Justice: Gender justice is justice done to both the genders by the society. It is the moral responsibility of the society to see to it that both enjoy the rights, share the duties and get the opportunities that they deserve.

Gender Relations: Gender relations are the socially determined relations that differentiate male and female situations. It refers to the gender dimension of the social relations structuring the lives of individual men and women, such as gender division of labour and gender division of access to and control over resources (Elson 1991[79]).

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[77] Manday Macdonald, Ellen Sprenger, Ireen Dubel (1995), *Gender and Organisational Change- Bridging the Gap Between Policy and Practices*- Royal Tropical Institute, Netherlands, p.10.

[78] K.G.Kumar (2003), 'Women in Kerala: Engendered or Endangered?', *The Business Line,* March 10, 2003.

[79] Diane Elson (1991), *Male Bias in the Development Process,* Manchester University Press, UK, p.1.

Gender Roles: By roles we refer to the manifold activities carried out by men and women, such as child-care, housework, subsistence farming, remunerated employment and health care (Chant and Brydon 1989)[80].

Gender Status: By status we refer to the value and meaning given to the activities performed by women by wider society, which in turn both reflect and influence the gender relations (Chant and Brydon 1989)[81].

Gender Stereotypes: Gender stereotypes are widely held beliefs about characteristics deemed appropriate for male and females in a culture.

Gender Typing: Gender typing refers to the process of developing gender beliefs, gender roles and gender role identity.

Gender: The term gender is used to describe those characteristics of women and men that are socially constructed in contrast to those that are biologically determined. People are born femalesor males but learn to be girls and boys who grow into women and men. They are taught what the appropriate behaviour and attitudes, roles and activities are for them, and how they should relate to other people. This social construction of femininity and masculinity varies over time and place and is enacted through learned rather than innate behaviour (Macdonald et al. 1995[82]). These learned attitudes are what make up gender identity and determine gender roles.

Household: A household is usually defined as a residential unit whose members share 'domestic' functions and activities-a group of people who 'eat out of the same pot'.

Nuclear Family: A nuclear family has been conceived as a household composed of parents and their unmarried children and a joint family was taken as a group of

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[80] Sylvia Chant and Lynne Brydon (1989), *Women in the Third World-Gender Issues in Rural and Urban Areas-*, Edward Elgar Publishing Limited, England, 1989, p.1-16.

[81] Sylvia Chant and Lynne Brydon (1989), *Women in the Third World-Gender Issues in Rural and Urban Areas-*, Edward Elgar Publishing Limited, England, 1989, p.1-16.

[82] Manday Macdonald, Ellen Sprenger, Ireen Dubel (1995), *Gender and Organisational Change-Bridging the Gap Between Policy and Practices-* Royal Tropical Institute, Netherlands, p.10.

consanguineous kins of one or more than one generation where everything is common.

Urban Area: All places with a municipality, corporation, cantonment board or notified town area and all other places which satisfied: (a) minimum population of 5000; (b) at least 75 per cent of the male working population engaged in non-agricultural pursuits; and (c) density of population of at least 400 per sq.km. (1000 per sq.mile) (Government of Kerala 2001[83]).

1.6.2 Data Source

The present study has relied upon both categories of data: primary and secondary. The primary survey was confined to the normal year extending from June 2001 to May 2002. The household survey was conducted in Thrissur district of Kerala. The rationale for selecting Thrissur district was that it stands in the midway when we consider many socio-economic and demographic variables. Also the familiarity of the researcher with the district was in favour of selecting Thrissur district for the study. In Thrissur district rural population is spread over 92 gram panchayats (48 special grade and 44 first grade) and the urban population is spread over one corporation and six municipalities, constituting respectively 73 per cent and 27 per cent of population in the district. Primary data have been collected from 300 households of urban and rural areas of Thrissur district.

Secondary data have been used to get an overall view of the extent of gender equity in Kerala. Main sources of secondary data are the publications of the Department of Economics and Statistics, Department of Census, National Sample Survey Organisation, National Family Health Surveys, Directorate General of Employment and Training and State and District Planning Boards.

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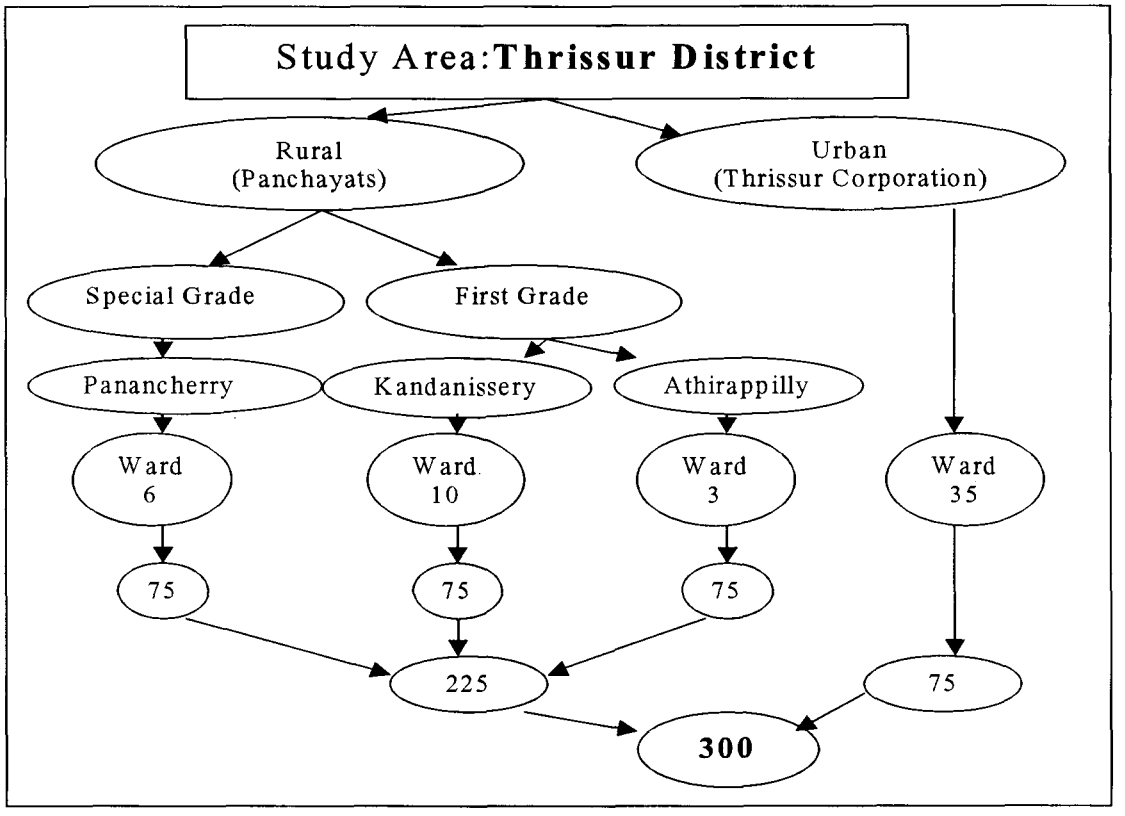
[83] Government of Kerala (2001), *Census of India 2001, Series 33, Provisional Population Totals, Paper II,* Directorate of Census Operations, Kerala.

1.6.3 The Sampling Framework

A multistage random sampling technique was used for selecting the sample households. The number of sample households in the survey was 300, giving weightage to rural-urban representation as 75:25, i.e., 225 households from rural area and 75 households from urban area.

In the first stage, one panchayat from the 48 special grade gram panchayats and 2 panchayats from 44 first grade gram panchayats were selected at random for rural representation. The gram panchayats selected at random were Pananchery gram panchayat belonging to Ollukkara block, Kandanissery gram panchayat belonging to Chowannur block and Athirappilly gram panchayat belonging to Chalakudy block. For the representation of the urban area, Thrissur Corporation was selected at random. In the second stage, one ward each from selected gram panchayats and corporation was again selected at random. The wards selected were ward number 6 in Pananchery gram panchayat, ward number 10 in Kandanissery gram panchayat and ward number 3 in Athirappilly gram panchayat and ward number 35 in Thrissur corporation. From each ward, 75 households were selected at random so as to get a fruitful comparison of the rural and urban area. Thus, the total number of households in the survey was 300 (225 rural and 75 urban). The sampling framework is given in Fig.1.1.

Fig.1.1: Sampling Design



1.6.4 Methodology

The important problems under investigation in the study as stated in objectives are to assess the gender status in Kerala, to evaluate gender equity in terms of socio-economic status, to analyse the rural-urban variations in gender equity and to identify the factors that determine and discriminate gender status. The methodology adopted for studying these aspects is delineated below.

Gender status in Kerala is analysed using secondary data and the variables selected are HDI, GDI, GEM and GEI, work participation rate, employment, sex ratio, literacy and education, political participation, health, atrocities against women and decision making.

To evaluate gender equity in terms of socio-economic aspects, a few important gender equity areas were identified and questions were framed for both husband and wife of the sample households. Gender equity is a multidimensional concept. We assess gender equity and its variations between rural and urban areas through different indicators, which compare the situation of women to men. The areas of gender equity considered were equity in employment, income, savings, education, health, decision-making, communication and social life and atrocities. Tools like averages, percentages, correlation, simple and multiple regression analysis, χ^2 test have been used for this. To examine the rural-urban variations in gender equity gender indices have been prepared. Arithmetic mean, standard deviation, ANOVA and Pearson correlation have been used for the analysis.

For studying the factors that determine gender status, logistic regression model is used. To delineate the factors that discriminate between high and low gender status, canonical discriminant function analysis is used in the study.

The whole analysis has been done for the rural, urban and total areas separately.

1.7 Plan of the Study

The present study is an attempt to analyse the rural-urban variations in gender equity in Kerala. The study is presented in seven chapters.

Second chapter discusses the gender status in Kerala using secondary data. The inter district variations in gender disparity, profile of Thrissur District and details of the sample area have been discussed in third chapter. The fourth chapter analyses the socio-economic profile of the respondents. In the fifth chapter, we analyse the rural-urban variations in gender equity using gender indices and regression models. Here, the analysis is entirely based on primary data collected. Sixth chapter is devoted to the analysis of the factors that determine and

discriminate gender status. The last chapter concludes with the summary of the findings of the study and the major conclusions that emerge from it.

1.8 Limitations of the Study

The present study is based on both primary and secondary data and it faces different types of data problems. Recent data of certain variables on rural-urban gender basis are not available from secondary sources. The reliable secondary data are sometimes insufficient to establish the problem under consideration. The nature of the topic, which is so sensitive, is another limitation, since people are not ready to reveal the real facts at many times. Another limitation is that the study was not done in a purely economic theoretical framework. The study has taken into consideration not only economic but also sociological variables, since many theories on gender have originated from Sociology.

GENDER STATUS IN KERALA

T.V. Salma “Rural-urban variations in gender equity in Kerala- A case study of Thrissur district” Thesis. Department of Economics , Dr. John Matthai Centre Thrissur , University of Calicut, 2004

Chapter II
GENDER STATUS IN KERALA

2.1 Introduction

Among the Indian states, Kerala is one of the most interesting states. Every aspect of its life and society is fascinating and puzzling at the same time. This is particularly so when we discuss the gender status. Gender status, as the relative position of female with respect to male ought to be the same. But, an inferior status and role are ascribed to women. Given the inferior status to women, it turns to be the source of gender biases-implicit and explicit in different forms, which refuse gender equality, and result in gender based discrimination (Joseph 1997[1]). Different forms of gender discrimination can impose diverse adversities on the lives of men and women.

This chapter purports to give an overall review of the gender status in Kerala and compare it with national pattern. The analysis here is based on secondary data. It is hoped that the discussion will be useful in understanding the results of the present study, given in the subsequent chapters, within the context of the overall gender status in the state of Kerala. Nine manifestations of status are examined. They are (i) HDI, GDI, GEM and GEI, (ii) work participation rate, (iii) employment, (iv) sex ratio, (v) literacy and education, (vi) political participation, (vii) health, (viii) atrocities and crimes against women, and (ix) decision making. This chapter is divided into eleven sections including the introductory and concluding sections.

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[1] Molly Joseph (1997), *Women Participation and Development Strategies*, Kanishka Publishers, New Delhi, p.19.

2.2 HDI, GDI, GEM and GEI

The achievements of Kerala in the social and demographic spheres have been widely acknowledged all over the world. Kerala is often land marked as the model state of development. It holds a prime position among the other Indian states with regard to the human development and related indices. We can identify the present position of Kerala when compared to India in terms of Human Development Index (HDI), Gender related Development Index (GDI), Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM) and Gender Equality Index (GEI).

UNDP's human development reports have advocated the use of HDI to measure the country's average achievements in human capabilities. HDI is a composite index of three basic components: longevity measured in life expectancy at birth; knowledge measured in adult literacy rate and the combined primary, secondary and tertiary gross enrolment ratio; and a decent standard of living measured in per capita income adjusted for the purchasing power parity. GDI measures the achievements of women with respect to the same capabilities, while taking note of inequalities in achievements between men and women, i.e., GDI is simply HDI adjusted downwards for gender inequality (UNDP 1995[2]). The greater is the gender disparity in basic human development, lower is the GDI of a country compared with its HDI. In other words, the equality between GDI and HDI will be established if gender equality in human development is achieved. GEM examines whether women actively participate in the economic and political life and in decision making as men. Four indicators are used for constructing GEM: the percentage of seats in Parliament held by women, the percentage of women as administrators and managers; the percentage of women as professionals and technical workers; and the percentage of income shared by women. It exposes inequality in opportunities in selected areas as different from GDI. India's global

[2] UNDP (1995), *Human Development Report: 1995*, Oxford university press, New York.

position with regard to HDI, GDI and GEM for three years (1992, 2001 & 2002) is presented in Table 2.1. It indicates that India's achievements in terms of all these indicators are far from satisfactory when compared to Sri Lanka and China.

As compared to HDI and GDI, India's GEM value is less than 5 and it is 0.405 for the year 2002. There exists a significant variation of 0.17 between HDI value and GDI value for India. This shows the presence of gender inequality in India.

Table 2.1: India's Global Position on Human and Gender development

Country	HDI			GDI			GEM		
	1992	2001	2002*	1992	2001	2002	1992	2001	2002
Norway	0.933	0.939	0.942	0.911	0.937	0.941	0.752	0.836	0.837
Australia	0.927	0.936	0.939	0.901	0.935	0.956	0.568	0.738	0.759
Sri Lanka	0.704	0.735	0.741	0.660	0.732	0.737	0.288	0.409	0.274
China	0.594	0.718	0.726	0.578	0.715	0.724	0.474	0.510	0.514
Indonesia	0.637	0.677	0.684	0.591	0.671	0.678	0.362	0.440	0.456
India	**0.439**	**0.571**	**0.577**	**0.401**	**0.533**	**0.560**	**0.226**	**0.385**	**0.405**
Pakistan	0.483	0.498	0.499	0.360	0.466	0.468	0.153	0.385	0.405
Nepal	0.343	0.480	0.490	0.310	0.461	0.470	0.315	0.385	0.405
Bangladesh	0.364	0.470	0.478	0.334	0.459	0.468	0.287	0.309	0.223
Mozambique	0.246	0.323	0.322	0.229	0.309	0.313	0.350	0.404	0.223
Ethiopia	0.227	0.321	0.327	0.217	0.308	0.307	0.205	0.404	0.223
Niger	0.207	0.274	0.277	0.196	0.260	0.306	-	0.404	0.223

Note: * HDI value 2000.

Source: (i) Govt. of India, Economic survey, 2002-2003, Ministry of finance and company affairs, Economic division, Govt. of India.

(ii) UNDP Human Development Reports 2001 & 2002, Oxford University Press, New Delhi

Based on the UNDP report of 1995, HDI and GDI values for 16 Indian states have been calculated. The HDI and GDI values for India and states and the percentage reduction of the GDI from the HDI are given in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2: Human Development Index and Gender Related Development Index for Indian States

States	Percentage of Female Population (1991)	Percentage of Male Population (1991)	The equally distributed index of life expectancy	The equally distributed index of education	The equally distributed index of income	HDI	GDI	HDI – GDI	(HDI – GDI) / HDI (%)
Andhra Pradesh	0.493	0.507	0.59	0.36	0.17	0.400	0.371	0.029	7.3
Assam	0.480	0.520	0.49	0.44	0.11	0.379	0.347	0.032	8.4
Bihar	0.477	0.523	0.57	0.28	0.07	0.354	0.306	0.048	13.6
Gujarat	0.483	0.517	0.59	0.53	0.20	0.467	0.437	0.029	6.3
Hariyana	0.464	0.536	0.63	0.39	0.09	0.489	0.370	0.119	24.3
Himachal Pradesh	0.494	0.506	0.65	0.46	0.19	0.454	0.432	0.021	4.7
Karnataka	0.490	0.510	0.61	0.48	0.16	0.448	0.417	0.031	6.9
Kerala	**0.509**	**0.491**	**0.78**	**0.86**	**0.06**	**0.603**	**0.565**	**0.038**	**6.2**
Madhya Pradsesh	0.482	0.518	0.48	0.34	0.11	0.349	0.312	0.037	10.7
Maharashtra	0.483	0.517	0.65	0.56	0.27	0.523	0.492	0.031	6.0
Orissa	0.493	0.507	0.50	0.40	0.09	0.373	0.329	0.044	11.9
Punjab	0.469	0.531	0.69	0.50	0.08	0.529	0.424	0.105	19.8
Rajasthan	0.476	0.524	0.54	0.27	0.12	0.356	0.309	0.046	13.0
Tamil Nadu	0.493	0.507	0.62	0.46	0.12	0.438	0.402	0.036	8.3
Uthar Pradesh	0.468	0.532	0.51	0.31	0.06	0.348	0.293	0.055	15.9
West Bengal	0.465	0.535	0.60	0.54	0.05	0.459	0.399	0.060	13.1
India	**0.481**	**0.519**	**0.57**	**0.44**	**0.15**	**0.423**	**0.388**	**0.035**	**8.2**

Source: A.K.Sivakumar (1996), UNDP's Gender - Related Development Index, A Computation for Indian states, Economic & Political Weekly. Vol XXXI, April 6, p.894

Kerala tops the list among the Indian states with HDI value of 0.603. A comparison of GDI value of Kerala and India indicates that Kerala's GDI value is much higher than that of India. What it implies is that gender inequality is less pronounced in Kerala than in India. Even though our education index and life expectancy index is very high, our income index is very low compared to other states. This clearly indicates that economic development is not a necessary condition for gender equality. GEM for Indian states, which is a better yardstick of the gender relations in the Indian economy, is given in Table 2.3. The indices taken are per capita income, share of jobs in the professional, technical, managerial and administrative categories and share of parliamentary seats. Kerala ranks first among the Indian states in the case of GEM also.

Table 2.3: State-wise Gender Empowerment Measures

States	Gender Empowerment Measure	Rank
Andhra Pradesh	0.51	10
Assam	0.46	15
Bihar	0.45	16
Gujarat	0.56	3
Haryana	0.53	8
Himachal Pradesh	0.55	4
Karnataka	0.55	5
Kerala	**0.63**	**1**
Madhya Pradesh	0.48	12
Maharashtra	0.60	2
Orissa	0.47	13
Punjab	0.54	6
Rajastan	0.48	11
Tamil Nadu	0.52	9
Uttar Pradesh	0.47	14
West Bengal	0.53	7

Source: Aasha Kapur Mehta (1996), Recasting Indices for Developing Countries: A Gender Empowerment Measure, Economic and Political Weekly, 31 (43), p.WS 84.

National Human Development Report 2001 has estimated HDI for the Indian states for 1981, 1991 and 2001 and GEI (or Gender Disparity Index) for the

years 1981 and 1991. Indices have been prepared considering longevity measured in life expectancy at age one and IMR; educational attainment measured in literacy rate of 7 years and above and intensity of formal education; economic attainment measured in per capita real consumption expenditure adjusted for inequality for preparing HDI and worker-population ratio for preparing GEI. HDI has been estimated for all states and Union Territories especially for rural-urban areas for 1980s and 1990s. At the national level, gender equality was highest in Kerala. The improvement in rural area was from 0.263 to 0.340 and in urban area was from 0.442 to 0.551 during 1981 - 1991. Though the rural-urban gap continues to be significant, it has declined (Planning Commission 2002[3]). HDI and GEI for selected states as estimated by NHDR are given in Table 2.4. Taking into consideration, the major 15 states, Kerala stands first as regards HDI and GDI for all the years.

Table 2.4: Human Development Index and Gender Disparity Index

States	1981				1991				2001	
	HDI	R	GDI	R	HDI	R	GDI	R	HDI	R
Andhra Pradesh	0.298	9	0.744	2	0.377	9	0.801	3	0.416	10
Assam	0.272	10	0.462	14	0.348	10	0.575	13	0.386	14
Bihar	0.237	15	0.471	13	0.308	15	0.469	15	0.367	15
Gujarat	0.360	4	0.723	4	0.431	6	0.714	6	0.479	6
Haryana	0.360	5	0.536	12	0.443	5	0.714	7	0.509	5
Karnataka	0.346	6	0.707	6	0.412	7	0.753	5	0.478	7
Kerala	**0.500**	**1**	**0.872**	**1**	**0.591**	**1**	**0.825**	**1**	**0.638**	**1**
Madhya Pradesh	0.245	14	0.664	8	0.328	13	0.662	10	0.394	12
Maharashtra	0.363	3	0.740	3	0.452	4	0.793	4	0.523	4
Orissa	0.267	11	0.547	11	0.345	12	0.639	11	0.404	11
Punjab	0.411	2	0.688	7	0.475	2	0.710	8	0.537	2
Rajastan	0.256	12	0.650	9	0.347	11	0.692	9	0.424	9
Tamil Nadu	0.343	7	0.710	5	0.466	3	0.813	2	0.531	3
Uttar Pradesh	0.255	13	0.447	15	0.314	14	0.520	14	0.388	13
West Bengal	0.305	8	0.556	10	0.404	8	0.631	12	0.472	8
All India	**0.302**		**0.620**		**0.381**		**0.676**		**0.472**	

Note: HDI-Human Development Index; GDI-Gender Disparity Index (also termed as Gender Equality Index); R-Rank

Source: Planning Commission (2002), *National Human Development Report 2001*, pp.25, 140, 142.

[3] *National Human Development Report 2001,* Planning Commission, Government of India, March 2002, Oxford University Press, New Delhi, p.25.

At the national level, Gender Equality Index increased from 62.0 per cent in 1981 to 67.6 per cent in 1991. This implies that the attainments of women on human development indicators were only two-thirds of those of men. In Kerala, even though GEI fell to 82.5 per cent from 87.2 per cent during 1981 – 1991, the attainments of women on human development indicators were higher than that in India.

2.3 Work Participation Rate

Work Participation Rate (WPR), the ratio of total number of workers to total population - has an important bearing on gender relations. The social influences of work affect the gender relations within the household and society. It is really unfortunate that our state, which has achieved social development comparable to USA in several respects, does not have a female WPR anywhere near US rate of 41.4 per cent. Even though the status of women in Kerala is better, in terms of demographic and social spheres, the female work participation has been on the decline and even much steeper than the male work participation.

The macro picture of the work participation rate for males and females in Kerala and India for the period 1901 to 2001 is presented in Table 2.5. Both male and female work participation rates are less than all India rates from 1951 and the female work participation rates for Kerala have never been greater than all India rates except for two years, i.e., 1901 and 1931.

The relative gap between males and females in work participation rate is decreasing in the case of India but increasing in the case of Kerala and it was higher in Kerala when compared to India. Though female work participation showed a rising tendency in 1931, 1961 and 1981, it was not very much pronounced. Female work participation rates in Kerala were decreasing continuously from 16.6 to15.9 and 15.3 per cent for the census years 1981, 1991

and 2001 respectively and it was much below the national average of 19.7, 22.3 and 25.7 per cent.

Table 2.5: Work Participation Rates in Kerala and India during 1901-2001

Year	Kerala			India		
	Male	Female	Gender Gap	Male	Female	Gender Gap
1901	56.3	32.7	23.6	61.1	31.7	29.4
1911	53.8	28.9	24.9	61.9	33.7	28.2
1921	51.1	24.9	26.2	60.5	32.6	27.9
1931	50.0	35.9	14.1	58.3	27.6	30.7
1941	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
1951	46.7	18.3	28.4	54.1	23.3	30.8
1961	47.2	19.7	27.5	56.2	27.9	28.3
1971	45.2	14.6	30.6	52.8	14.2	38.6
1981	44.9	16.6	28.3	52.6	19.7	32.9
1991	47.8	15.9	31.9	51.6	22.3	28.9
2001	50.4	15.3	35.1	51.9	25.7	26.2

Source: Census of India Reports for various years

The work participation rates for males in India seemed to be more or less stable during the census periods of 1981, 1991 and 2001 as 52.6 per cent, 51.6 per cent and 51.9 per cent. An important thing to be noted here is that not only is the male work participation rate in Kerala is increasing continuously but also it is substantially higher than that of the female work participation rate (more than three times that of women).

Rural-urban sex wise work participation rates in Kerala and India during the last three census years are given in Table 2.6. Total work participation rates in rural area were higher than in urban area for males and females, the difference being much wider in the case of female work participation rates. Rural work participation rate of women in Kerala is far less when compared to all India figures.

Table 2.6: Rural-Urban Work Participation Rates in Kerala and India - 1981-2001

Census Year	Kerala			India		
	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females
TOTAL						
1981	30.5	44.9	16.6	36.7	52.6	19.7
1991	31.4	47.6	15.9	37.5	51.6	22.3
2001	32.3	50.4	15.3	39.3	51.9	25.7
RURAL						
1981	31.3	45.2	17.7	38.8	53.8	23.1
1991	32.1	47.9	16.9	40.0	52.5	26.7
2001	32.6	50.2	15.9	42.0	52.4	31.0
URBAN						
1981	27.4	43.4	11.8	30.0	49.1	8.3
1991	29.6	46.8	13.0	30.2	48.9	9.2
2001	31.6	50.8	13.5	32.2	50.0	11.6

Source: Census of India, 2001, Provisional Population Totals, Paper 3 of 2001

Female work participation rates in rural area were higher than in urban area both in India (31.0 and 11.6 respectively) and Kerala (15.9 and 13.5 respectively) in 2001 census. Both in rural and urban areas male work force participation rates are greater than female work force participation rates, in Kerala and India. During 1991-2001 female work force participation rate in rural Kerala decreased from 16.9 to 15.9, while in rural India it increased from 26.7 to 31.0. In urban Kerala there was a slight increase in female work force participation rate from 13.0 to 13.5, while in rural India, it increased from 9.2 to 11.6 during the same period. The fall in work participation rate in rural Kerala may be due to the non-availability of land for agricultural purposes and decline in traditional industries. The rising trend of female participation rate in urban area could be the result of many factors like ease in transportation due to the moped revolution and public transportation, demands raised by consumerism, expansion of industrial and service sector due to urbanisation, education of women, upward trends in inflation and living standards, break up of joint family system and increase in cost of living. A part of this might be due to better reporting of female economic activity in urban area as compared to rural area.

2.4 Employment

Employment is indeed regarded as the key to sexual equality and personal fulfilment (Gulathi 1981[4]). Economic well being has a higher priority than any other consideration in the problem of equality. Outside earnings can give a woman a better break down position, a clear perception of her individuality, well being and a higher perceived contribution to the families economic position. But, girls and women continue to encounter discrimination in employment and occupation. There may be equal access to employment in principle, but especially outside public sector, applicants are selected on the basis of sex. In the sphere of employment, discrimination is manifest in three forms: higher incidence of women unemployment[5], female employment in low-paid peripheral jobs with little scope for upward mobility and payment of lower wages for women than men for similar tasks. Discrimination in terms of longer working hours, discrimination against married women, discrimination in opportunities for promotion are other aspects of discrimination.

2.4.1 Incidence of Unemployment

In India female employment is not only low, but remained almost stagnant over the past two decades. One of the paradoxes of Kerala is that although it leads the rest of the states of India in regard to female literacy and level of education, it lagged behind the South Indian states like Tamil Nadu and Karnataka in terms female employment. The incidence of unemployment has increased in the national level from 2.0 per cent in 1983 to 2.3 per cent in 1999-2000. The incidence of unemployment in the rural-urban break up in Kerala and India is presented in Table 2.7.

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[4] Leela Gulathi (1981), *Profiles in Female Poverty,* Hindustan Publishing Corporation, New Delhi, p.7.

[5] The incidence of unemployment is defined as the percentage of persons unemployed in the age group 15 years and above on the Usual Principal and Subsidiary Status to the total number of persons in the labour force.

Table 2.7: Incidence of Unemployment in Kerala and India (Percentage)

Area	Kerala/India	1983			1993-1994			1999-2000		
		M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T
Rural	Kerala	7.0	7.3	7.1	5.4	9.8	6.8	5.7	13.2	8.1
	India	1.4	0.7	1.1	1.5	0.8	1.2	1.7	1.1	1.5
Urban	Kerala	9.4	15.1	11.2	6.6	18.5	10.2	5.5	19.9	10.0
	India	5.0	5.2	5.1	4.1	6.6	4.6	4.5	5.9	4.8

Note: M-Male; F-Female; T-Total

Source: Planning Commission (2002), *National Human Development Report-2001*, pp.162,163.

There was an increase in the incidence of unemployment both for males and females on the whole and in particular for rural area. In the urban area, there was a sharp decline between 1983 and 1999 from 5.1 per cent to 4.6 per cent and an increase to 4.8 per cent in 1999-2000. Kerala has the highest incidence of unemployment at nearly 8.0 per cent in all the three years for which the data have been presented. Both in rural and urban areas, incidence of unemployment is more for females than for males. Besides, incidence of unemployment for females is very high in urban area compared to rural area. While there is a fall in incidence of male unemployment, there is sharp rise in incidence of female unemployment both in rural and urban areas. High female literacy, over supply of educated females and favourable sex ratio are other contributing factors for high urban female unemployment. Unemployed jobseekers in Kerala, according to Employment Exchange Data, are 38.56 lakhs in 2003 against 39.56 lakhs in 2002. Out of the total unemployed job seekers in 2003, 57.0 per cent are women against 56.0 per cent in 2002. It was 47.0 per cent in 1990.

Educated Unemployment

Both at the state and national levels there is educated unemployment and it is more acute in the rural sector. This difference may be attributed to greater employment opportunities available to the educated in the urban sector compared to the rural sector. The magnitudes involved however have been much higher at

both urban and rural levels in Kerala compared to India (Mathew 1995[6]). Gender Differences in educated unemployment are presented in Table 2.8.

Table 2.8: Percentage Distribution of Educated Unemployment of Age 15 and above in Kerala and India

Year	Area	Sex	Kerala			India		
			Secondary	Graduate & above	All	Secondary	Graduate & above	All
1987-88	Rural	Male	28.9	18.8	12.3	10.5	15.0	11.3
		Female	59.8	45.1	25.0	33.5	37.3	26.9
		Persons	44.6	32.2	18.8	21.7	25.8	18.9
	Urban	Male	23.6	7.3	14.0	8.8	7.4	8.3
		Female	52.6	19.5	34.0	22.8	21.0	21.8
		Persons	38.4	13.5	24.2	15.4	13.8	14.6
	Total	Male	27.6	16.1	12.7	7.8	11.2	8.4
		Female	58.1	39.0	27.1	25.3	28.2	20.4
		Persons	43.0	27.6	20.0	16.3	19.4	14.2
1993-94	Rural	Male	36.2	19.9	18.5	6.7	13.2	8.8
		Female	45.0	20.0	36.6	19.9	34.6	24.9
		Persons	40.6	20.0	34.4	13.0	23.5	16.6
	Urban	Male	29.9	10.0	12.6	6.3	6.4	6.9
		Female	34.1	22.0	33.4	20.0	20.6	20.6
		Persons	32.0	16.1	26.9	12.7	13.1	13.4
	Total	Male	34.5	17.3	16.9	6.5	11.4	8.3
		Female	42.1	20.6	35.7	19.9	31.0	23.8
		Persons	38.4	19.0	32.5	13.0	20.8	15.7
1999-00	Rural	Male	31.0	9.8	15.0	5.2	10.6	6.8
		Female	37.5	24.9	36.7	14.7	33.1	20.4
		Persons	32.8	14.0	24.5	9.8	21.5	13.4
	Urban	Male	33.2	5.4	9.9	5.5	6.6	6.6
		Female	36.9	21.6	34.2	14.4	16.3	16.3
		Persons	34.3	10.0	22.9	9.8	11.3	11.3
	Total	Male	31.6	8.6	13.6	5.3	9.6	6.7
		Female	37.3	24.0	36.0	6.6	11.5	19.4
		Persons	33.3	12.9	23.0	5.6	10.0	11.3

Source: (i) For 1987-88, (a) Sarvekshana, Issue No.53, Vol. XVI, No.2, Octobor- December 1992; (b) NSSO, Special Report No.1. 'Key Results of Employment and Unemployment Survey', All India (Part I), NSS 43rd Round, January 1990.

(ii) For 1993-94, Estimated using the NSSO unit level data of Fifth Quniquinnial Survey on Employment and Unemployment in India.

(iii) For 1999-00, Estimated using the NSSO unit level data of Sixth Quniquinnial Survey on Employment and Unemployment in India.

[6] E.T. Mathew (1995), 'Educated Unemployment in Kerala: Some Socio-economic Aspects', *Economic and Political Weekly,* February 11, pp.325-326.

Educated unemployment among both males and females in Kerala is increasing substantially and the extent of increase in unemployment among female work seekers has been relatively much higher. Compared to Kerala the rise in educated unemployment in the national level, for males or females has been quite nominal. Gender differences in educated unemployment are also negligible in the national level.

In Kerala, for males and females, unemployment among graduates and above, though definitely on the increase, is of relatively lower magnitude compared to work seekers with secondary education only.

2.4.2 Discrimination in Wages

Liberating consequences of employment are entirely relative to the nature, conditions and remunerations of the job performed. One of the blatant forms of discrimination is unequal payment for work of equal value. Wage discrimination at the national level is revealed in Table 2.9. In all categories, both in rural and urban areas, female wages are less than male wages. Wage differences are sharply felt in urban area compared to rural area except in the category of Graduate+.

Table 2.9: Average Wage/Salary Received by Employees Per Day in India: 1999-2000 (Rs.)

Type of Work	Educational Level	Rural			Urban		
		Male	Female	Gap	Male	Female	Gap
Regular	Not literate	71.23	40.32	30.91	87.63	51.83	35.8
	Educated up to VIII	191.63	161.48	30.15	105.08	64.41	40.67
	Secondary	148.23	126.09	22.14	168.16	145.73	22.43
	Graduate+	220.93	159.92	61.01	261.55	234.74	26.81
Casual		44.84	29.01	15.83	62.26	32.71	29.55

Source: India Year Book 2001, Man Power Profile Institute of Applied Manpower Research, New Delhi.

Differential wage structure between males and females, in spite of powerful trade union movement and relatively larger participation in trade union activity, still persists in Kerala. This is particularly true of agricultural labour and

construction labour (State Planning Board 2001[7]). Women are almost paid much less than men except in a very few highly professional, scientific, technical, political or administrative jobs. Although male-female wage differences are getting narrower, this has occurred only in organised sector. The situation is much worse in the unorganised sector, where majority of women are employed. In almost all sectors of unorganised economy such as agriculture, construction, handicrafts, embroidery and cultivation, women get lesser wages than their male counterparts.

Gender differential in wages is very much higher in the agricultural sector and construction sector. While the male paddy field labourers received Rs.118.90 as wages, female labourers doing the same type of work, received only Rs.78.80 during 1999-2000, as per Table 2.10.

Table 2.10: Yearly Average Wages of Paddy Field Labours and Agricultural Labours -Kerala (Rs.)

Year	Paddy field Labour			Other Agricultural labourers		
	Male	Female	Gender Gap	Male	Female	Gender Gap
1980-81	11.13	7.91	3.22	11.06	8.27	2.79
1985-86	26.08	15.10	10.98	25.96	19.13	6.83
1990-91	35.77	21.11	14.66	36.82	26.35	10.47
1991-92	41.38	26.30	15.08	41.63	29.85	11.78
1992-93	48.40	32.31	16.09	49.20	35.44	13.76
1993-94	54.26	35.49	18.77	55.57	40.82	14.75
1994-95	63.53	41.92	21.61	65.09	49.71	15.38
1995-96	77.17	51.17	26.00	77.97	62.79	15.18
1996-97	92.18	60.52	31.66	91.88	77.01	14.87
1997-98	103.72	69.35	34.37	105.65	89.94	15.71
1998-99	111.76	71.42	40.34	108.31	93.00	15.31
1999-00	118.90	78.80	40.10	113.10	101.25	11.85

Source: *Women in Kerala- 2001,* Department of Economics and Statistics, Thiruvananthapuram, p.57.

The gender gap in wages has continuously increased from 1980-81 (3.22) to 1999-2000 (40.10). In the case of wages of other agricultural labourers also

[7] State Planning Board (2001), *Economic Review 2001,* Government of Kerala, Thiruvananthapuram.

there exists discrimination in wages and the gender gap remains almost stable throughout the years.

In the construction sector also, wage discrimination had increased throughout the period as shown in Table 2.11. Rural-urban gap in this regard is not so significant with marginally higher gender gap in urban areas. During 1999-2000, the daily wages for women construction workers in the rural sector was Rs.102.59 against Rs.123.45 for men and in the urban sector it was Rs.105.27 for women against Rs.126.54 for men.

Table 2.11: Average Daily Wage Rates of Unskilled Workers in the Construction Sector in Kerala (Rs.)

Year	Rural			Urban		
	Male	Female	Gender Gap	Male	Female	Gender Gap
1980-81	12.30	9.62	2.68	13.07	10.22	2.85
1985-86	25.31	19.08	6.23	28.42	19.42	9.00
1990-91	37.34	29.39	7.95	37.34	29.23	8.11
1991-92	39.71	31.64	8.07	41.63	34.32	7.31
1992-93	46.34	37.23	9.11	48.66	39.38	9.28
1993-94	50.36	40.89	9.47	52.85	42.80	10.05
1994-95	60.08	49.94	10.14	63.63	52.00	11.63
1995-96	76.59	62.80	13.79	79.15	65.34	13.81
1996-97	88.47	73.73	14.74	90.76	75.76	15.00
1997-98	101.00	85.00	16.00	104.00	87.00	17.00
1998-99	111.18	93.44	17.74	112.43	94.06	18.37
1999-00	123.45	102.59	20.86	126.54	105.27	21.27

Source: *Women in Kerala- 2001,* Department of Economics and Statistics, Thiruvananthapuam, pp.174-177.

Wages differ on sex grounds also due to male prejudice of the employer assuming sex difference in performance, low skills of women, imperfections or bottlenecks like less mobility of women due to family responsibilities, poor bargaining power, lower reservation price of women due to poor family income, and absence of forceful enactment of laws in unorganised sectors. Since women are assumed to be supplementary earners of their family, it is assumed that they do not deserve the higher wage rate that go with mechanised operations. Those who

determine the demand of this kind of labour, the male or male dominated trade unions, subscribe to these myths (Banerji 1999[8]).

2.4.3 Structure of Employment

Women's occupations are often extension of women's domestic roles (cooks, domestic servants), mothering and nurturing roles (teachers, nurses, midwives) or supportive roles (secretaries, typists, assistants). Women are absent from administrative and political occupations that entail large amounts of authority and power over others when compared to males. They are concentrated in activities with low levels of productivity, income, stability and security of employment.

Many jobs are categorised as men's and women's on the basis of traditional norms rather than own assessment. In rice cultivation, low paid jobs like seeding, transplanting, weeding, etc. are female jobs and ploughing is a male job. In house hold industry females work as helpers. In construction males are employed in high paid skilled works and females in low paid jobs like mixing mortar and carrying head loads.

In India, agricultural accounts for about 65.0 per cent of total employment but of the women workers, 82.0 per cent are working in this sector (Papola 1991[9]). Half of the female work force in Kerala was employed in the primary sector, which is significantly below the corresponding figures of 80.0 per cent for the whole country. On the other hand tertiary sector accounted for a significantly higher proportion of female employment in Kerala (30.0 per cent) than in India (11.6 per cent).

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[8] Nirmala Banerji (1999), 'Women in the Emerging Labour Market', *The Indian Journal of Labour Economics,* 42 (4), p.255.

[9] T.S.Papola (1991), 'Recent Changes in the Structure of Women's Employment, Paper presented at *Planning Commission, World Bank Work Shop on Gender and Poverty in India*, New Delhi, 5-7 December. P.13.

The industry wise distribution of workers by gender in Table 2.12 reveals that males outnumber females in categories of cultivators and in tertiary sector, both in Kerala and India. But, the percentages of cultivators, especially female cultivators, are low in Kerala. In categories of agricultural labours and workers in household industry, males outnumber females both in Kerala and India.

Table 2.12: Industry Wise Distribution of Workers in Kerala and India: 1981-2001

Kerala/ India	Census Years	Industrial Category							
		Cultivators		Agricultural labours		Workers in Household Industry		Tertiary Sector	
		Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Kerala	1981	15.7	4.9	23.3	43.6	2.4	7.6	25.0	24.6
	1991	14.2	5.6	22.4	36.1	1.6	5.9	39.9	30.7
	2001	8.0	4.7	14.2	22.0	2.3	7.3	75.5	66.0
India	1981	43.7	33.1	19.6	46.3	3.2	4.6	21.6	10.2
	1991	39.6	34.6	21.1	44.2	2.1	3.5	25.5	11.6
	2001	31.4	32.5	20.8	39.4	3.0	6.4	44.8	21.7

Source: Census of India (Various Years).

Among the agricultural labourers, there was a significant fall both in Kerala and India during 1991-2001. In Kerala, the percentage of female agricultural labourers fell steeply from 36.1 to 22.0 while at the national level it fell from 44.2 per cent to 39.4 per cent. There was a small rise in the percentage of female cultivators at the national level from 33.1 to 34.6 and in Kerala from 4.9 to 5.6 during 1981-1991 but it fell to 4.5 in Kerala and to 32.5 in India during 1991-2001. In recent years, the occupation structure of India shows shrinkage in the primary sector and a definite shift towards the service sector. There was a shift of workers in Kerala, both males and females, away from the primary sector towards the secondary and tertiary sectors. This shift was more prominent among women. For instance, while the percentage of female employment in tertiary sector changed from 11.6 to 21.7 at the all India level, it changed from 30.7 to 66.0 during the period 1991-2001 in Kerala. This shows that more and more women in Kerala prefer employment in the service sector.

Status of Employment

Regarding the status of employment, women occupy a low share of jobs in secure and stable category of regular wage and salary earners. They also have poor representation in public sector employment compared to males.

In Kerala out of the main workers only 21.3 per cent are female main workers as per Table 2.13. But out of marginal workers 36.5 per cent are female marginal workers. Among the rural males in the state 41.0 per cent are main workers. Among the females in the rural area, only 10.8 per cent are main workers. In the rural area, the incidence of marginal work (7.1 per cent) is comparatively high as compared to urban area (4.5 per cent). Among rural males of the state 9.2 per cent and among rural females 5.1 per cent are marginal workers. Of the rural population 67.4 per cent are non-workers. Among rural males of the state 49.8 per cent and among rural females 84.1 per cent are classified as non- workers.

Table 2.13: Percentage Distribution of Workers and Non-Workers in Kerala: 2001

Type of Workers	Sex	Rural	Urban
Total Workers	Total	32.6	31.6
	Male	50.2	50.8
	Female	15.9	13.5
Main Workers	Total	25.5	27.1
	Male	41.0	44.5
	Female	10.8	10.6
Marginal Workers	Total	7.1	4.5
	Male	9.2	6.3
	Female	5.1	2.9
Non-Workers	Total	67.4	68.4
	Male	49.8	49.2
	Female	84.1	86.5

Source: Census of India 2001.

Among the urban males in the state, 44.5 per cent are main workers. Among the females in the urban areas of the state only 10.6 per cent are main workers. In the urban areas, the incidence of marginal work among females is very

low when compared to males. Among urban males of the state 6.3 per cent and among urban females 2.9 per cent are marginal workers. Of the urban population 68.4 per cent are non-workers. Among urban males of the state 49.2 per cent and among urban females 86.5 per cent are classified as non- workers.

So both in the category of main and marginal workers female percentage is less than male percentage both in rural and urban areas. The proportion of non-workers among females is very high in both areas, urban area having more female non-workers compared to rural area.

Employment in the Organised Sector

Organised sector is defined as that part of the labour force, which is employed in all enterprises in the public sector and most of the non-agricultural establishments in the private sector, which employ a minimum of ten workers with the use of power or twenty workers without the use of power (Rustagi 1997[10]). Even though organised public and private sectors employ a large number of women in India, the relative proportion of women employed is highly disproportionate with respect to their numbers and they are under-represented in many important occupations.

Employment in the organised sector by gender in Kerala and India shows that women's employment in the country as a whole is much less than that of men (Table 2.14). The share of women's employment to total employment in organised sector in Kerala is much higher than that in India. There is marginal decrease in male employment in organised sector while there is a marginal increase in female employment in the organised sector both in Kerala and India. We find that while the percentage of women's employment to total in the organised sector in India

[10] Preet Rustagi (1997), 'Women, Employment in the Unorganised Sector: Some Issues, *Social Action,* 47 (2), p.168.

increased to 17.6 per cent in 2000 from 14.8 per cent in 1993, in Kerala it rose to 39.03 per cent from 36.96 per cent during the same period.

According to the Annual Report of the Kerala State Women's Commission for the year 1999-2000, the number of women employed in the organised sector has increased because a large number of women were employed as casual labourers in the Coir Board, Cashew Development Corporation and the Plantation Corporation (Kerala State Women's Commission 2001[11]).

Table 2.14: Employment in the Organised Sector in Kerala and India– 1993-2000

Year	Kerala			India		
	Total employment (in lakhs)	% of male employment to total	% of female employment to total	Total employment (in lakhs)	% of male employment to total	% of female employment to total
1993	11.85	63.04	36.96	271.77	85.2	14.8
1994	11.98	62.61	37.39	273.75	84.8	15.2
1995	11.74	62.60	37.40	279.87	84.6	15.4
1996	11.79	62.59	37.41	277.80	83.7	16.3
1997	11.63	62.40	37.60	282.45	83.6	16.4
1998	12.16	61.84	38.16	281.66	83.1	16.9
1999	12.10	63.72	36.28	281.13	82.8	17.2
2000	12.41	60.97	39.03	279.60	82.4	17.6

Source: (i) Economic Survey, 2002-03, Government of India, New Delhi.
(ii) Statistics for Planning, 2001, Directorate of Economics and statistics, Government of Kerala, Thiruvananthapuram.
(iii) Economics Review, 2001; 2003, State Planning Board, Government of Kerala, Thiruvananthapuram.

Another characteristic of female employment is poor representation of women in the case of secure, stable and salaried category of public sector employment. The reason for the adverse sex ratio in the public sector can be attributed to the gender bias and tradition, which have kept many large areas out of bounds (Srivastava 1997[12]).

[11] Kerala State Women's Commission (2001), *Annual Report 1999-2000,* Government of Kerala, Thiruvananthapuram.

[12] Nisha Srivastava (1997), 'Striving for a Toe-Hold: Women in the Organised Sector, *The Indian Journal of Labour Economics,* 40 (3), p.44.

The distribution of persons employed by gender in the public and private sector in Kerala is presented in Table 2.15. In the public sector, in 2002, only 30.33 per cent were women, but in the private sector women constitute 49.01 per cent.

Table 2.15: Gender Wise Distribution of Persons Employed in Public and Private Sector in Kerala

Year	Public			Private		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
2001	451395 (69.99)	193511 (30.01)	644906 (100.00)	304384 (51.00)	292404 (49.00)	596788 (100.00)
2002	444472 (69.67)	193536 (30.33)	638008 (100.00)	293683 (50.99)	282312 (49.01)	575995 (100.00)

Note: Figures in parentheses are percentages.
Source: Economic Review 2003.

Category wise employment by gender in public sector in Kerala is revealed in Table 2.16. Even the small percentage of women employed in public sector, mainly concentrate in Class IV category.

Table 2.16: Category wise Employment in Public Sector in Kerala – 1999-2000 (Excluding daily wage earners)

Category	Females	Males	Total
Class I	388 (14.00)	2365 (86.00)	2753 (100.0)
Class II	922 (19.20)	3891 (80.80)	4813 (100.0)
Class III	2490 (18.26)	11149 (58.68)	13639 (100.0)
Class IV	8458 (41.32)	12013 (58.68)	20471 (100.0)
Total	12258 (29.41)	29418 (70.59)	41676 (100.0)

Note: Figures in parenthesis refer to percentage to total
Source: Annual Report, 1999-2000, Kerala State Women's Commission, Government of Kerala, 2001.

Out of the total 41,676 persons employed in the public sector as Class I, Class II, Class III and Class IV employees (excluding daily wage earners), 70.6 per cent are males and only 29.4 per cent are females. In the Class I category, men

constitute 86.0 per cent whereas women's representation is merely 14.0 per cent. The same pattern is found in the case of Class II and Class III posts. With regard to Class IV category, we observe a significant decline in male employment. But still the proportion of male employees exceeds that of female employees.

Women Employment in the Unorganised Sector

Though there has been some rise in female employment in the organised sector over the last two decades, their participation level in the unorganised sector has not declined during this period. According to the Central Statistical Organisation, the unorganised sector includes all those unincorporated enterprises and household industries (other than the organised ones) which are not regulated by any legislation and which do not maintain annual accounts or balance sheets.

In Kerala urbanisation has resulted only in slow industrialisation and the industries were not able to absorb the surplus agricultural labour. So these unskilled labourers especially women find their survival in unorganised sector. Also many non-agricultural occupations dominated by women turned into mechanised jobs.

Rapid changes in technology decreased opportunities of women in organised sector. Thus women are found in un-skilled, semi-skilled, or low-grade office jobsor in assembling and tail-end tasks associated with packing, drilling and checking. They participate in agriculture, animal husbandry, dairying, social and agricultural forestry, fisheries, handicrafts, khadi and village industry, handloom weaving and sericulture. In rural area they work in home based production or in self employed basis. They also work as vendors, hawkers and domestic servants both in rural and urban areas. In urban area service sector is open to women and they are concentrated in information handling, secretarial jobs such as typing, stenography and clerical jobs.

The rise of female participation in the unorganised sector is more due to economic compulsions than any change in work ethos (Rustagi 1997[13]). These are extremely serious issues that reflect the complex, exploitative and in equitable employment situation in Kerala. We find that status of women employment is always lower than that of men; be it in India or in Kerala.

2.5 Population and Sex Ratio

According to 2001 Census, out of the total population of Kerala, females constitute 51.8 per cent while it was 50.88 per cent in 1991 Census (Table 2.17). Out of the total population in India, 48.3 per cent are women in 2001 Census and, it was 48 per cent in 1991 Census. In Kerala, females outnumber males in all the Census years, while opposite is the case in India.

Table 2.17: Sex Wise Population in Census Years (in Million)

Years	Kerala				India			
	Male	Growth Rate	Female	Growth Rate	Male	Growth Rate	Female	Growth Rate
1961	8.40	-	8.50	23.19	226.33	-	212.90	-
1971	10.55	25.60	10.80	27.06	284.16	25.55	264.00	24.00
1981	12.55	18.96	12.90	19.44	352.53	24.06	330.80	25.30
1991	14.29	13.86	14.80	14.73	435.21	23.45	403.37	21.94
2001	15.34	7.35	16.50	11.48	531.32	22.08	495.70	22.89

Source: Economic Review 2003, p.365

Sex ratio[14] as an indicator of gender inequality is important that it sheds some interesting light on other aspects of gender relations (Dreze and Sen 1995[15]). Women being biologically sturdier have a survival advantage over men. So in many countries women outnumber men. This is not true of India (Johnson et al.

[13] Preet Rustagi (1997), 'Women, Employment in the Unorganised Sector: Some Issues, *Social Action,* 47 (2), p.168.

[14] Sex ratio is defined as the number of females per thousand males for the entire population.

[15] Jean Dreze and Amartya Sen (1995), *India Economic Development and Social Opportunity*, Oxford University Press, New Delhi, pp.132-179.

1999[16]). Indian population, though increasing with time is also characterised by increasing masculinisation. The sex ratio of the nation has declined steadily throughout the twentieth century.

Kerala follows the pattern of the developed countries regarding sex ratio. The sex ratio of Kerala is unique as can be seen from Table 2.18. In Kerala, a steady increase in the sex ratio was noticeable till 1951. Then there was a slight decline over the next two decades, followed by a reversal upward trend in the subsequent two decades. Between 1971 and 1991, there was a steep increase in the sex ratio. The gap with the national level sex ratio kept widening throughout the first fifty years of the twentieth century. The gap in 2001 was almost thrice as large as in 1901.

Table 2.18: Sex Ratio in Kerala and India - 1901-2001

Census year	Sex ratio (females per 1000males)		
	Kerala	India	Gap
1901	1004	972	32
1911	1008	964	44
1921	1011	955	56
1931	1022	950	72
1941	1027	945	82
1951	1028	946	83
1961	1022	941	81
1971	1016	930	86
1981	1034	934	100
1991	1036	929	107
2001	1058	933	125

Source: (i) Leela Gulati, Ramalingam, (1997), "Gender Profile: Kerala", A paper prepared for the UNRISD/UNDP/CDS Workshop, "Gender, Poverty and Well being, Indicators and Strategies", Thiruvananthapuram, Kerala, India, 24-27 November.
(ii) Census of India - 2001, Provisional Population Totals, Paper 1 of 2001, Series-33, Kerala.

Urban and rural sex ratio in Kerala has been much higher than the all India rates in all the census years between 1981 and 2001. It is revealed from Table 2.19 that, in India, the urban sex ratio was 880 in 1981 and it increased over the years

[16] M. Johnson, Sunil and M. Jayakrishna (1999), 'Economic Conditions of Family and Gender Bias in Infant and Child Mortality', *Journal of Social and Economic Development*, 11(2), pp-318-332.

and became 901 in 2001, whereas in Kerala, it was 1021 in 1981 and it increased over the years and reached 1058 in 2001. Rural sex ratio in India was 952 in 1981 and it fell to 939 in 1991 and again increased to 946 in 2001 whereas in Kerala it increased from 1034 in 1991 to 1059 in 2001. Both in Kerala and India, rural sex ratio is greater than urban sex ratio in the Census years referred.

The reasons for higher sex ratio in Kerala are out migration of males, decline in female infant mortality rates, increase in life expectancy of women, higher levels of female literacy, progress of education, rise in the age of marriage and the replacement of crude methods of midwifery by modern scientific methods.

Table 2.19: Rural and Urban Sex Ratio in Kerala and India: 1981-2001

Year	Area	Kerala	India
1981	Rural	1034	952
	Urban	1021	880
	Total	1032	934
1991	Rural	1037	939
	Urban	1034	894
	Total	1036	927
2001	Rural	1059	946
	Urban	1058	901
	Total	1058	933

Source: Census of India, 1981, 1991, 2001.

But, if we take the age-wise sex ratio, we find that sex ratio of 0 - 6 age group is unfavourable to females both in the national and state level. Sex ratio of children in the age group of 0 - 6 from 1961 to 2001 for Kerala and India is given in Table 2.20. In the case of Kerala and India, throughout the census periods starting from 1961 to 2001, the number of female children in the age group of 0 - 6 is less than the boys of the same age group. But, sex ratio of 0 – 6 population in Kerala is higher than that of India, except for the Census year 1961. As per the Human Development Report, 2002, the number of 'missing women' in India was estimated to be 50 million.

Table 2.20: Child Sex Ratio (Girls per 1000 boys aged 0-6) in Kerala and India:1961-2001

Year	Kerala	India
1961	972	976
1971	976	964
1981	970	962
1991	958	945
2001	963	927

Source: Economic Review, 2001, State Planning Board, Govt. of Kerala, Thiruvananthapuram

Such a situation explains nothing but gender discrimination practiced in Kerala. Class and gender discrimination that female has to suffer neutralizes the superiority provided by nature to the females in the matter of survival during infancy and later periods of life. Female disadvantage in 0 - 6 age group is due to infanticide, sex selective abortions, preferential treatment of boys, neglect of female children in terms of health, nutrition and related needs, dowry system, marginalisation of women from paid employment and priority for male children in the utilisation of scarce medical facilities.

A survey report published in a seminar for media persons conducted by the Social Welfare Department with the help of United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund (UNICEF), presently known as United Nations Children's Fund, found that there occur 10000 feticides in a year in Kerala. Aluva and Thiruvananthapuram taluks are on par with the north Indian states regarding the rate of foeticides (Sakhi Resource Centre for Women 2002[17]).

[17] Sakhi Resource Centre for Women (2002), 'Support Services to Counter Violence Against Women in Kerala, *A Resource Directory,* in collaboration with UNIFEM South Asia Regional Office, New Delhi, Thiruvananthapuram, p.12.

2.6 Literacy and Education

Difference in male and female literacy rates is one aspect of the broader phenomenon of gender-based inequality. Education is a basic human right. It is a motto to generate power and provides a value system, which is conducive to gender equality in society. Both the GDI and Capability Poverty Measure (CMP) as developed by UNDP have female literacy as a key component because women's education is recognised to have a multiplier effect on family well being and on society's general level of human development (UNDP 1996[18]). Education raises the status of woman by helping to earn an income, participate actively in public life, determine her own fertility and achieve personal autonomy (Chatterji 1993[19]). It helps to increase the ability to resist oppression, to organise politically and to get a fairer deal.

The most noticeable peculiarity of Indian literacy is that women always lag far behind men. Female literacy, which was only 39.29 per cent in 1991 at the national level, rose to 54.16 per cent in 2001 as per Table 2.21. This implies that during this period, female literacy level increased by 15 per cent and it is for the first time that literacy rate had exceeded 50 per cent. But when we compare the female literacy rate with that of male literacy rate, we can find a wide gap of 22 per cent.

Kerala had achieved outstanding development in the sphere of literacy and education. She had achieved a literacy level of 90.92 per cent. Literacy rate for Kerala is 94.20 per cent for males and 87.86 per cent for females whereas the national rates are 75.85 per cent and 54.16 per cent respectively. Even though our female literacy rate is above the all India rate it is less than male literacy rate for all the census years, showing gender inequity in literacy. But the gender gap in

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[18] UNDP (1996), *Human Development Report 1996,* Oxford University Press, New York, pp.107, 110.

[19] Shoma Chatterji (1993), *The Indian Women in Perspective*, Ajantha publications, Delhi, pp.48-65.

literacy in Kerala has been declining at a higher rate when compared to India. For instance, in Kerala, in 1901 gender gap in literacy was 16.0 per cent and it fell to 6.3 per cent in 2001. At the all India level, the gap was 9.2 per cent in 1901 and it increased to 21.7 per cent in 2001.

Table 2.21: Trend in Literacy in Kerala and India: 1901-2001

Year	Literacy Rate							
	Kerala				India			
	Total	Male	Female	Gender Gap	Total	Male	Female	Gender Gap
1901	11.14	19.15	3.15	16.00	5.35	9.83	0.60	9.23
1911	13.31	22.25	4.43	17.82	5.92	10.56	1.05	9.51
1921	19.02	27.25	10.26	16.99	7.16	12.21	1.81	10.40
1931	21.34	30.89	11.00	19.89	9.50	15.59	2.93	12.66
1941	N.A	N.A	N.A	N.A	16.10	24.90	7.30	17.60
1951	40.47	49.79	31.41	18.38	16.67	24.95	7.93	17.02
1961	56.85	54.97	38.90	16.07	24.02	34.44	12.95	21.49
1971	60.42	66.62	54.31	12.31	29.45	39.45	18.68	20.77
1981	70.42	87.74	75.65	12.09	36.03	46.62	24.73	21.89
1991	89.81	93.62	86.17	7.45	52.11	64.13	39.29	24.84
2001	90.92	94.20	87.86	6.34	65.38	75.85	54.16	21.69

Source: Economic Review, 1994, State Panning Board, Government of Kerala, Thiruvananthapuram and Census of India, 2001, Provisional Population Totals, Paper 3 of 2001.

Rural-urban literacy rates of Kerala and India are revealed in Table 2.22.

Table 2.22: Rural-Urban Literacy Rates in Kerala and India

Kerala/ India	Area	Sex	Census Years		
			1981	1991	2001
Kerala	Rural	Male	74.13	79.90	93.50
		Female	64.25	74.11	86.80
	Urban	Male	80.10	83.22	96.10
		Female	72.20	78.39	90.90
	Total	Male	75.26	80.78	94.20
		Female	65.73	75.23	87.90
India	Rural	Male	40.78	46.92	17.18
		Female	17.96	25.13	46.58
	Urban	Male	65.83	68.71	86.42
		Female	47.82	54.01	72.99
	Total	Male	46.89	56.63	75.85
		Female	24.82	32.43	54.16

Source: Census of India 1981 to 2001

There are more literate males than females both in rural and urban areas of Kerala and India. Kerala's male and female literacy rates are well above the all India rates both in rural and urban areas. In Kerala and India, the urban male and female literacy rates in the state are higher than rural and total, male and female literacy rates.

Enrolment of Students

Among the many development indices that bring Kerala to the forefront, an important one is the girls' enrolment rate at school and college levels. In enrolment of students in schools, Kerala has reached near equality. The enrolment of girl students at school level in Kerala is the highest in the country with 49.3 per cent of total enrolment in the year 2003. The share of girl students in LP, UP and secondary level schools stood at 49.4 per cent, 48.2 per cent and 49.47 per cent respectively in 2003. In the higher secondary, girl students constitute 57.4 per cent. Of the total students in aided colleges, girls are 61.4 per cent. At the degree level, girl students constitute 61.1 per cent. Girls form 62.5 per cent for BA degree courses, 62.7 per cent for BSc. courses and 50.9 for B.com courses in the year 2002. Thus, in all the degree courses there are more girls than boys. In 2003, out of the students for PG courses 66.7 per cent are girls. In postgraduate courses of MA, MSc. and M.Com girls constitute 65.4 per cent, 73.0 per cent and 55.8 per cent respectively. In teachers training institutes, girls are 81.5 per cent. It is evident from the data that girls outnumber boys in school enrolment and at the higher levels of education.

But, in the case of students in other than state syllabus schools, boys surpassed girls. This is true in the case of CBSE (57.35 per cent), ICSE (55.94 per cent), Kendriya Vidyalaya (55.25 per cent) and Navodaya Vidyalaya (59.38 per cent). In technical high schools only 10 per cent and in polytechnics only 37 per cent are girls in 2003. The enrolment of girl students in engineering colleges is

also low, constituting only 30 per cent. In 1995-96, enrolment in faculty of medicine was 37.4 per cent. The trade wise analysis shows that there is a strong gender bias with girls opting for courses like stenography, dress making, secretarial practice, hair and skin care and tailoring (State Planning Board 2001[20]).

The quality of school education in Kerala leaves much to be desired, while praising Kerala's literacy achievements. Kerala's scores in literacy are quantitatively excellent, and are well documented in development literature, but there is a conspicuous absence of any discussion on the qualitative aspects. A survey by Kerala Sasthra Sahitya Parishath (KSSP), in Thiruvananthapuram district, to assess the level of degeneration came up with some shocking revelations. A simple test on language and numeric was conducted among 134784 students from III standard to VII standard in 529 schools and the results showed that more than one third (35.27 per cent) of the students scored less than 12 marks out of 100. Another study in Kasargode district found that nearly 60 per cent of the III and IV standards were illiterates. Another study of IV standard students revealed that only 18.48 per cent students scored 50 marks, and above out of 100 in mathematics and 42.44 per cent of students achieved similar results in Malayalam. One reason for the low performance of Kerala's school going children could be the promotion policy which limits the failures in I standard to zero per cent, in II to VII standards to 10 per cent and VIII and IX standards to 20 per cent of the number of students attending the class. On the positive side, this has helped in retaining children in school, with the result that dropout rates in Kerala are negligible (Ramanathaiyer and Macpherson 2000[21]).

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[20] State Planning Board (2001), *Economic Review 2001,* Government of Kerala, Thiruvananthapuram, p.180.

[21] Sundar Ramanathaiyer and Stewart Macpherson (2000), *Social Development in Kerala: Illusion or Reality*, Ashgate Publishing Limited , England. 2000, pp.15-54.

At the national level, the picture is quite different. We find that girls have less access to schooling and lower completion rates than boys. It is seen that in all the classes, boys are always greater than girls. In the year 1999-2000, the percentage of boys enrolled at the primary/middle/upper primary and high/higher secondary/intermediate/pre-degree levels were 56.4, 59.8 and 61.2 respectively. The corresponding percentage for girls at these levels were 43.6, 40.2 and 38.8, but the gap shows a declining trend. Likewise, in higher levels of education also, the disparity between boys and girls is wider. There is a tendency for women to cluster in general discipline, which do not lead to specialisations and professional occupations. This is clearly an evidence of the gender discrimination that prevails in education at the national level.

Kerala is in a better position in enrolment equality compared to India both in rural and urban areas as per Table 2.23. Enrolment equality is more in urban area compared to rural area both in Kerala and India. The rural-urban gap is high in India while it is nominal in Kerala.

Table 2.23: Percentage Distribution Rural-Urban Enrolment in Various School Stages – 1993

Standard	Kerala				India			
	Rural		Urban		Rural		Urban	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
I - V	51.52	48.48	50.69	49.31	58.04	41.96	53.29	46.71
VI - VIII	51.58	48.42	50.03	49.97	63.57	36.43	54.94	45.06
IX - X	49.06	50.94	47.33	52.67	67.77	32.23	58.28	41.72
XI - XII	49.45	50.55	44.82	55.18	70.24	29.76	60.27	39.73

Source: NCERT (1999), Sixth All India Educational Survey, Vol.4, Table IS 132, pp.127-130

2.7 Political Participation

Political participation and freedom are considered as fundamental parts of human development. Gender equality in political participation can be called a reality only when men and women are given the freedom to exercise their right to

vote according to their will, freedom to contest in elections and be a part of the decision-making process in the various administrative bodies.

After the enactment of the 73rd and 74th Constitutional Amendments in 1993, women's role in governance has increased in India at grass root democratic institutions, namely, Panchayati Raj and Nagarapalika Institutions. Of the 475 Zilla Parishats in the country, 158 (33.26 per cent) are chaired by women. Out of 51,000 members of Block Samities, 17,000 (33.33 per cent) are women. Nearly, one-third of Mayors of municipalities are women.

In Kerala, between 1993 and 1997, women participation in local governments went beyond the mandatory requirement of one-third of total seats (36.4 per cent). Out of 16797 wards in Panchayati Raj and Nagarapalika institutions in Kerala 6,084 (36.22 per cent) wards are with women. In Kerala, out of the 13255 wards in gram panchayats and 1638 wards in Block Panchayats, 331 and 51 seats respectively for posts of President are reserved for women.

Seats reserved for women in local self-governments are highest in block panchayats (38.4 per cent) and lowest in municipal corporations (33.6 per cent) as revealed in Table 2.24. Seats reserved for women are more than 33 per cent in all the local bodies.

Table 2.24: Seats in Local Self Governments in Kerala - 2001

Local Self Governments (LSG)	Number of LSGs.	Total Number of Wards	General Seats		Number of Seats reserved for Women	
Gram Panchayat	991	13255	8455	(63.79)	4800	(36.21)
Block Panchayat	152	1638	1009	(61.60)	629	(38.40)
District Panchayat	14	307	202	(65.80)	105	(34.20)
Municipality	53	1597	1047	(65.56)	550	(34.44)
Municipal Corporation	5	298	198	(66.44)	100	(33.56)
Total	1215	17095	10911	(63.83)	6184	(36.17)

Note: Figures in parentheses are percentages.
Source: Women in Kerala-2001, Economics and Statistics Department, Trivandrum, p.171.

Due to less political awareness among women, the male members of the panchayats as well as their husbands and other family members keep them away from meetings, take signature at their residence and treat them as dummy participants (Bhan and Singh 2001[22]). Only when women are involved in these bodies, pro-women policies can be introduced (Narayana 2002[23]). In Kerala, unlike many other states, experience shows that elected members and heads of local governments are aware of their powers and exercise them to a significant extent.

But, there is sheer negligence of women in apex institutions. Even now, men marginalize women's access to political power in higher level bodies and the constitutional equality for women and provision of affirmative action have not been translated significantly into political participation. Even though India is a country of vibrant women's movements and the emergence of women's wings in political parties, women's representation in the parliamentary democratic process in the last five decades never did surpass 10.0 per cent in the general elections. There has been no woman president or vice president or speaker of the Lok Sabha. The seats held by women in parliament and state assemblies are as low as 8.9 per cent and 10.0 per cent respectively. The women members in Union and State Level Council of Ministers have been between 6.0 per cent to 7.0 per cent. In several states women's share in ministerial portfolios has become a rare phenomenon. At the sub-ministerial level they share 7.9 per cent of positions, while their share in administrative and managerial positions is only 2.3 per cent. In the 14th Lok Sabha there are no women Parliament Members (MP) from several states. The highest number of women MPs was in the 13th Lok Sabha with 49 MPs (9.0 per cent) and the least number was in the 6th Lok Sabha with only 19 MPs

[22] Chander Bhan and Raj Singh (2001), 'Women's Empowerment for Gender Equality: A Functional Analysis, *Kurukshetra,* August 2001, pp.33-35.

[23] K. S. Narayana (2002), 'Women's Empowerment: The Path Ahead', *Social Welfare,* 48 (12), pp. 16-27.

(3.4 per cent) as per Table 2.25. Women representation in Lokh Sabha is less than 10 per cent in all the elections and in Rajya Sabha, it never did never surpass 16 per cent.

Table 2.25: Gender Wise Representation in the Parliament for the Period 1952-2004

Year	Lok Sabha						Rajya Sabha					
	Total	Male		Female			Total	Male		Female		
1952	499	477	(95.6)	22	(4.4)		219	203	(92.7)	16	(7.3)	
1957	500	473	(94.6)	27	(5.4)		237	219	(92.4)	18	(7.6)	
1962	503	469	(93.2)	34	(6.8)		238	220	(92.4)	18	(7.6)	
1967	523	492	(94.1)	31	(5.9)		240	220	(91.7)	20	(8.3)	
1971	521	499	(95.8)	22	(4.2)		243	226	(93.0)	17	(7.0)	
1977	544	525	(96.5)	19	(3.5)		244	219	(89.8)	25	(10.2)	
1980	544	516	(94.9)	28	(5.1)		244	220	(90.2)	24	(9.8)	
1984	544	500	(91.9)	44	(8.1)		244	216	(88.5)	28	(11.5)	
1989	517	490	(94.8)	27	(5.2)		245	221	(90.2)	24	(9.8)	
1991	544	505	(92.8)	39	(7.2)		245	207	(84.5)	38	(15.5)	
1996	543	504	(92.8)	39	(7.2)		223	203	(91.0)	20	(9.0)	
1998	543	500	(92.1)	43	(7.9)		236	218	(92.4)	18	(7.6)	
1999	543	494	(99.0)	49	(9.0)		245	226	(92.2)	19	(7.8)	
2004	540	496	(91.9)	44	(8.1)		243	221	(90.9)	22	(9.1)	

Note: Figures in parentheses are percentages

Source: (i) Chandrika Parmar (1997). 'Fact File 1952-97', Seminar 457, September 1997, p.51.

(ii) B.K Pattanaik (2000). "Women Welfare and Social development", *Yojana*, Vol.44,No.11, p.25.

(iii) Man Power Profile Institute of Applied Manpower Research, *India Year Book 2001*, New Delhi.

The same situation can be seen in the case of women in Kerala in spite of Kerala's high social development. It is a disgrace to see that 165 lakhs of female population in Kerala is represented by two parliament members (Table 2.26). The table also shows that for five times, no woman had represented Kerala in the Lok Sabha.

Table 2.26: Gender-wise Representation from Kerala in Lok Sabha- 1957-2004

Year	Total Seats	Men		Women	
1957	19	19	(100.0)	0	-
1962	19	19	(100.0)	0	-
1967	19	18	(94.7)	1	(5.3)
1971	19	18	(94.7)	1	(5.3)
1977	20	20	(100.0)	0	-
1980	20	19	(95.0)	1	(5.0)
1984	20	20	(100.0)	0	-
1989	20	19	(95.0)	1	(5.0)
1991	20	18	(90.0)	2	(10.0)
1996	20	20	(100.0)	0	-
1998	20	19	(95.0)	1	(5.0)
1999	20	19	(95.0)	1	(5.0)
2004	20	18	(90.0)	2	(10.0)

Source: (i) Aleyamma Vijayan (2000). "The status of Kerala women", Seminar on Women Empowerment, University of Kerala, Thiruvanathapuram, November 1921,pp.1-11

(ii) *The Mathrubhumi Daily*, May 14, 2004

Women participation in the State Assembly is also low, as seen in Table 2.27. Out of the 144 seats in the State Assembly, the number of women has never been more than 10 per cent. The women's representation in the state cabinet has also remained rather nominal.

Table 2.27: Gender-wise Participation in Kerala Assembly Since 1957

Assembly	Year	Total number of seats	Male		Women	
I	1957	126	120	(95.2)	6	(4.8)
II	1960	126	119	(94.4)	7	(5.6)
III	1965	133	130	(97.7)	3	(2.3)
IV	1967	133	132	(99.2)	1	(0.8)
V	1970	140	138	(98.6)	2	(1.4)
VI	1977	140	139	(99.3)	1	(0.7)
VII	1980	140	135	(96.4)	5	(3.6)
VIII	1982	140	136	(97.1)	4	(2.9)
IX	1987	140	132	(94.3)	8	(5.7)
X	1991	140	132	(94.3)	8	(5.7)
XI	1996	140	127	(90.7)	13	(9.3)
XII	2001	140	132	(94.3)	8	(5.7)

Note: Figures in parentheses are percentages.

Source: *The Mathrubhumi Daily*, May 15,2001.

In the present cabinet of 20, there is only one woman Cabinet Minister. Important portfolios are often allotted to men. This only underlines the fact that women were not incorporated into important levels of leadership and decision – making, though their participation was actively sought and secured.

In the highest and lowest decision – making bodies of various political parties and trade unions in India, women's representation is similarly low. It will be appropriate to look at the representation, which women have, in the decision – making bodies of some major political parties in India. The data given in Table 2.28 show that the core committees of the national parties like Communist Party of India (Marxist) Polit Bureau, Communist Party of India Secretariat, Janatha Dal (JD) Political Affairs Committee and Bharatiya Janatha Party (BJP) Parliamentary Board are monopolised by men only. Not a single woman from Kerala has been made a member of these bodies.

Table 2.28: Representation in Top Decision Making Committees of Various Political Parties

Political parties		Total	Male		Women	
CPI (M)	Polit Bureau	15	15	(100.0)	0	(0.0)
	Central Committee	70	65	(92.9)	5	(7.1)
CPI	Secretariat	9	9	(100.0)	0	(0.0)
	National Executive	31	28	(90.3)	3	(9.7)
	National Council	125	118	(94.4)	7	(5.6)
JD	Political Affairs Committee	15	15	(100.0)	0	(0.0)
	Parliamentary Board	15	15	(100.0)	0	(0.0)
	National Executive	75	64	(85.3)	11	(14.7)
Congress Working Committee		19	17	(89.5)	2	(10.5)
BJP	Parliamentary Board	9	8	(88.9)	1	(11.1)
	Election Committee	17	15	(88.2)	2	(11.8)

Note: Figures in parentheses are percentages
Source: Chandrika Parmar (1997). "Fact file 1952-97", Seminar 457, September 1997.

It is also true that a large majority of women do not show interest in political activities, which is a main cause for poor women's representation in the Indian Parliament and State Assemblies. Often those who participate in politics degenerate into party spokeswomen and hardly voice their own opinion on the

floor of the house. Most of them remain as silent spectators to the proceedings of the house and rarely participate in its work. The major obstacle to women's full participation in politics is clearly a universal social attitude that has valued women principally as mothers and wives.

2.8 Health

Health can be an important factor in promoting gender equity. As the status of men and women is intimately connected with this social factor, better condition of health for both men and women enable to achieve gender equity.

Sex discriminations in health and nutrition is an immutable feature in many regions of India. The current female health status of Kerala, as indicated by levels of mortality rate and life expectancy of its population is more similar to those countries, with much higher levels of per capita income, than those with comparable levels of income. An analysis of the health indicators of the state is given below.

2.8.1 Maternal Mortality and Institutionalisation of Deliveries

While the maternal mortality[24] rate at the all India level was 4.07 in 1998, it was 1.98 in Kerala (Planning Commission 2002[25]). Maternal mortality rates in India are among the highest in the world and more than 50 times the average for industrialised countries. Contraceptive use and the burden of reproductive ill health is also more among women than men, for example, only women face the health hazards of pregnancy and childbirth. According to NFHS-II, 39.4 per cent of urban and 44.0 per cent of rural ever married women suffer from reproductive

[24] Maternal mortality ratio means the number of deaths of women in the age group 15-49 years or while pregnant or within 42 days of termination of pregnancy from any cause related to pregnancy and childbirth per 10000 live births in a given year.

[25] Planning Commission (2002), *National Human Development Report 2001,* Oxford University Press, New Delhi, pp.239.

health problems and 20.4 per cent of urban and 23.4 per cent of rural ever married women are anaemic in Kerala.

In Kerala, unlike the rest of India majority of deliveries take place in institutions and this has contributed considerably to low infant and maternal mortality. According to NFHS, institutional deliveries increased from 34.2 per cent in 1992-93 to 42.3 per cent in 1998-99 at all India level, while it increased from 89.7 per cent in 1992-93 to 94.1 per cent in 1998-99 at the state level.

2.8.2 Infant Mortality Rate

Infant girls have an advantage over infant boys almost everywhere. But the infant mortality rate[26] for female babies in India is higher than male babies in 1991 (Table 2.29).

Table 2.29: Infant Mortality Rate by Sex: Kerala and India

Kerala/India	Sex	1981	1991
Kerala	Male	61	45
	Female	48	41
	Total	54	42
India	Male	122	74
	Female	108	79
	Total	115	77

Source: (i) Occasional Paper No.1 of 1997, Table 3, P.112,113, Census of India.
(ii) National Human Development Report 2001, p.226.

In the case of Kerala, for the years 1981 and 1995, infant mortality rates for the females remained less than the rates of male babies. Kerala's infant mortality rate is the lowest among all Indian states.

[26] Infant Mortality Rate denotes the number of death by age 1 per 1000 live births in an year.

2.8.3 Life Expectancy

Longevity is an all – encompassing measure of health and economic standards. Biologically women have more longevity than men. However it has not been so in the Indian situation, which may be due to five problems confronting them – poverty, hunger, malnutrition, ill-health and maternity (Narayana 2002[27]). Kerala is one of the poorer Indian states, yet it has achieved a life expectancy, by a long margin higher than any other Indian state. Kerala's life expectancy for males and females is (68.2 and 73.6 respectively) very much higher than India's life expectancy for males and females (62.3 and 65.3 respectively) for the year 2000 (State Planning Board 2003[28]). The relevant data showing life expectancy in Kerala and India by residence and gender are given in Table 2.30. Expectation of life at birth of Keralites is much above the all India figures. Furthermore, life expectancy of Kerala women is greater than those of males throughout the period.

Table 2.30: Expectation of Life at Birth in Kerala and India

Area	Sex	Kerala			India		
		1981-85	1991-95	1992-96	1981-85	1991-95	1992-96
Rural	Male	65.5	69.9	70.3	54.0	58.5	58.9
	Female	71.7	74.9	74.9	53.6	59.3	59.8
	Total	68.5	73.0	72.8	53.7	58.9	59.4
Urban	Male	65.0	69.3	69.5	61.6	64.5	64.9
	Female	70.3	75.6	75.9	64.1	67.3	67.7
	Total	67.6	73.6	73.6	62.8	65.9	66.3
Total	Male	65.4	69.9	70.2	55.4	59.7	60.1
	Female	71.5	73.3	75.8	55.7	60.9	61.4
	Total	68.4	72.9	73.1	55.5	60.3	60.7

Source: *National Human Development Report 2001*. pp.218-220.

Expectation of life at birth of males and females has been rising steadily in Kerala and India. In Kerala, female life expectancy increased from 71.5 years in 1981-85 to 75.8 years in 1992-96, where as in India, the increase was from 55.7 years to 61.4 during the same period. Average life at birth of men in Kerala

[27] K.S.Narayana (2002), 'Women's Empowerment: The Path Ahead', *Social Welfare*, 48 (12), pp.16-27.

[28] State Planning Board (2003), *Economic Review 2003,* Government of Kerala, Thiruvananthapuram.

increased from 55.4 years to 60.1 years during the same period. Rural-urban gap in life expectancy at the national level is remarkable while the rural urban gap is only less than one year at the state level. Gender gap in life expectancy is marginal in India while it is remarkable in Kerala.

Health is about much more than life expectancy and so we must look beyond it to male and female quality of life. Although women may live longer, they tend to be more affected by long-term and chronic illness, which significantly affects their quality of life.

2.8.4 Morbidity

Kerala has reached a stage of high morbidity and low mortality that considerably change the picture of an overall healthy society. Morbidity rates in India are highest in Kerala. Medical technologies postpone deaths but do not improve pre-conditions for good health. Longer life need not be a better one. The life span of an individual is about 70 years in Kerala but because of morbidity, part of the expected life is liable to be 'lost' through incapacitation.

The KSSP study (Kannan et al. 1991[29]) showed that, in Kerala, the prevalence of acute morbidity and chronic diseases are higher among women than men. Women are suffering more from bone and joint diseases, goitre and hypertension. The main cause for this is said to be growing tension, frustration and difficulty in coping with increasing demands on their time and energy (Saradamony 1994[30])

The severity of morbidity prevalence is shown in Table 2.31. Morbidity is comparatively high in rural areas than in urban areas. Morbidity rates are very

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[29] K.P. Kannan et al. (1991), *Health and Development in Rural Kerala,* Kerala Sasthra Sahitya Parishat, Thiruvananthapuram, p.35.

[30] K. Saradamony (1994), 'Women, Kerala and Some Development Issues', *Economic and Political Weekly,* February 26, pp.501-510.

high in rural and urban Kerala compared to rural and urban India both for males and females.

Table 2.31: Number of Persons Reporting Ailment Per Thousand Population in Kerala and India: 1995-96

Area	Sex	Kerala			India		
		Acute Ailment	Chronic Ailment	Any Ailment	Acute Ailment	Chronic Ailment	Any Ailment
Rural	Male	80	36	116	41	13	54
	Female	79	40	119	44	14	58
	Total	80	38	118	42	13	55
Urban	Male	63	25	88	39	13	52
	Female	59	28	87	43	15	58
	Total	61	27	88	41	14	55

Source: *Morbidity and Treatment of Ailments*, NSS 52nd Round, July 1995-June 1996, Report No. 441, November 1998.

2.8.5 Magnitude of Disability

In India, as per NSSO Survey on disability[31], there were nearly 16 million (1.9 per cent) persons with some physical disability in 1991, as against nearly 12 million (1.8 per cent) persons in 1981. Males accounted for 57.0 per cent of total disabled persons. The rural-urban division on disability is quite significant with rural areas accounting for 81.0 per cent of disabled persons in the country. Rural-urban gap declined in 1991 with rural area accounting for 78.0 per cent of disabled population, in which 59.0 per cent were males. Prevalence of disability in urban area in Kerala is higher than that of urban area in India.

Both in Kerala and India, more males are disabled than females as per Table 2.32. Number of disabled in the rural area is higher than the number of disabled in urban area both at the national and state level. But, rural-urban difference is more significant in India than in Kerala.

[31] Disability refers to any restrictions or lack of ability to perform an activity in a manner within the range considered normal for a human being.

Table 2.32: Number of Disabled Per 100000 - Kerala and India

Area	Sex	Kerala		India	
		1981	1991	1981	1991
Rural	Male	1882	2280	2045	2277
	Female	1422	1636	1632	1694
	Total	1647	1945	1844	1995
Urban	Male	1884	1927	1532	1774
	Female	1419	1587	1297	1361
	Total	1650	1755	1420	1579

Source: (i) Report on Survey of Disabled Persons, NSSO, 36th Round, July-December 1981, Sarvekshana, 7 (1,2).
(ii) Report on Disabled Persons, NSSO, 47th Round, July-December 1991, Report No.393, NSSO, 1994.

2.8.6 Death Rates

Kerala has the lowest death rate at the national level. Also the gender gap in death rate is higher in Kerala when compared to India. The death rate is more among males than females both in Kerala and India as per Table 2.33. Like that death rate is more in rural area than in urban area.

Table 2.33: Gender Wise Death Rates in Kerala and India: 1981-1997

Area	Sex	Kerala			India		
		1981	1991	1997	1981	1991	1997
Rural	Male	7.9	7.2	7.6	13.4	10.7	9.8
	Female	5.6	5.2	5.0	13.9	10.5	9.4
	Total	6.4	6.7	6.3	13.7	10.6	9.6
Urban	Male	7.1	5.6	7.8	8.0	7.5	7.0
	Female	4.5	4.9	4.5	7.6	6.7	6.0
	Total	5.8	5.3	6.3	7.8	7.1	6.5
Total	Male	7.8	6.9	7.6	12.4	10.0	9.2
	Female	5.5	5.2	4.9	12.7	9.7	8.6
	Total	6.6	6.0	6.2	12.5	9.8	8.9

Source: National Human Development Report 2001, pp.236-238.

2.8.7 The Mean Age at Marriage

In Kerala both men and women get married at a higher age, when compared to India as a whole. Mean age at marriage in Kerala for males and females in rural area (27.6 and 21.2 respectively) and urban area (28.9 and 22.7 respectively) is higher compared to the national average in rural (24.2 and 19.0

respectively) and urban areas (26.5 and 21.5 respectively) in 1998-99 (International Institute for Population Sciences 2001[52]). The age at marriage for both males and females in Kerala is higher than the national average throughout the period depicted in Table 2.34.

Table 2.34: The Mean Age at Marriage in Kerala and India

Period	Kerala		India	
	Males	Females	Males	Females
1961	26.3	19.8	20.0	14.5
1971	26.7	21.1	22.4	17.2
1981	27.7	21.9	23.4	18.7
1991	27.7	22.2	24.0	19.3
2001	27.9	21.5	24.9	19.7

Source: (i) *Women in Kerala 1989*, (ii) *Economic Review 2003*.

2.8.8 Aging and Widows

India has the second largest number of elderly persons after China. There were 6.40 per cent male elderly and 6.58 per cent female elderly in India in 1981 (Table 2.35). The percentage increased to 6.69 for males and 6.71 for females in 1991. During the same period, the change in Kerala was from 7.15 to 8.33 per cent for males and 7.84 to 9.29 for females. The proportion of elderly persons in rural areas is higher than that in urban areas for the Census years 1981 and 1991 for Kerala and India, the difference being higher in India compared to Kerala. In Kerala, both in rural and urban areas, female elderly is higher than male elderly unlike in India.

The gradual marginalisation of the elderly in the decision making process in an average family and the breakdown of joint family system that took care of the elderly has brought problems of the elderly in the society. The proportion of the destitute among elderly is also rising. Another aspect of aging relates to the widows among elderly females. The number of widows (54.0 per cent) among the

[52] International Institute for Population Sciences (2001), *National Family Health Survey 1998-99: Kerala*, Mumbai.

elderly is about three and half times more than the number of widowers (15.0 per cent) in 1991 Census (Planning Commission 2002[33]).

Table 2.35: Percentage Distribution of Elderly Population in Kerala and India: 1981-1991

Area	Sex	Kerala		India	
		1981	1991	1981	1991
Rural	Male	7.33	8.53	7.60	7.10
	Female	7.84	9.27	6.85	6.98
	Total	7.59	8.91	7.23	7.04
Urban	Male	6.39	7.79	5.08	5.51
	Female	7.86	9.37	5.69	5.91
	Total	7.13	8.59	5.37	5.70
Total	Male	7.15	8.33	6.40	6.69
	Female	7.84	9.29	6.58	6.71
	Total	7.50	8.82	6.49	6.70

Source: Aging Population of India: An analysis of 1991 Census Data, Table 1, pp.27-34. March 1999; Census of India 1981, Series 1, Social and Cultural Tables 1987.

Consequences of losing one's spouse are very different for men and women. A widower not only has a greater freedom to remarry than his female counterparts, he also has extensive property rights, wider opportunities for remunerative employment and more authoritative claim on economic support from his children (Dreze and Sen 1995[34]). So the cause of aging and widows must be seen as an integral part of the larger battle against gender inequalities.

2.8.9 Suicides

Suicide rate in Kerala is highest in the country. In 1997, the rate of suicides (per million population) in Kerala was 284.8 while it was 100.3 at the national level (National Crime Records Bureau 1998[35]). Number of male and female suicides are increasing in Kerala as shown in Table 2.36. The number of male suicides is very much higher than the number of female suicides in Kerala.

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[33] Planning Commision (2002), *National Human Development Report 2001,* Oxford University Press, New Delhi, p.92.

[34] Jean Dreze and Amartya Sen (1995), *India: Economic Development and Social Opportunity*, Oxford University Press, New Delhi, pp.132-179.

[35] National Crime Records Bureau (1998), *Crime in India,* Ministry of Home Affairs, New Delhi.

Table 2.36: Number of Suicides in Kerala – 2001-2002

Sex	2001		2002	
Male	6787	(70.90)	7165	(73.04)
Female	2785	(29.10)	2645	(26.96)
Total	9572	(100.00)	9810	(100.00)

Source: Economic Review 2003.

2.9 Atrocities against Women

Atrocities against women spring from multifaceted factors of socio-cultural, political and economic perception of the social system regarding women's place and role. Nature evolves men and women as counterparts to each other but it is the society, which has made the women as subservient to men. The plight of women atrocities and injustices is not only inhuman but also alarming, when we think over women's responsibility in society-building on the one hand, and social justice to her on the other. Atrocities towards women hinder the development of women and thereby result in gender injustice.

Violence against women denotes gender-based violence. The Declaration on the Elimination of Violence against Women adopted by UN General Assembly in 1993 defines violence against women as "any act of gender based violence that results in or is likely to result in physical, sexual, or psychological harm or suffering to women, including threats of such acts, coercion or arbitrary deprivation of liberty, whether occurring in public or private life". The trend of violence against women is growing day by day, whether at home, at work, on the street, in custody or elsewhere. The different types of reported violence against women in Kerala and India for the period 1995-2001 are depicted in Table 2.37. Atrocities become a crime only when it is reported. But, the unreported cases are unimaginably high.

Table 2.37: Incidence of Violence Against Women in Kerala and India: 1995-2001

Kerala/ India	Type of Violence	1995	1996	1997	1998	2001	% Variation
Kerala	Rape	244	370	579	589	550	125.4
	Kidnapping	104	178	153	130	125	20.2
	Molestation	825	1129	1512	1778	2033	146.4
	Eve Teasing	15	33	71	96	86	473.3
	Dowry Deaths	15	23	71	21	24	60.0
	Total	1203	1733	2386	2614	2818	134.2
India	Rape	13754	14846	15330	15031	16075	16.9
	Kidnapping	14063	14877	15617	16381	14645	4.1
	Molestation	28475	28939	30764	31051	34124	19.8
	Eve Teasing	4756	5671	5796	8112	6954	46.2
	Dowry Deaths	5092	5513	6006	6917	6815	33.8
	Total	66140	69846	73513	77492	78613	18.9

Source: (i) Manisha Joshi, (2002), "Violence Against Women: A Cry For Justice", Social Welfare, Vol.49, No.1, p.5.

(ii) Sakhi Resource Centre for Women (2002), "Support Services to Counter Violence Against Women in Kerala", A Resource Directory, Thiruvananthapuram, p.12.

Crimes against women in 2001 reported an increase of 18.9 per cent over the year 1995. In absolute terms, 12473 cases were reported at the all India level in 2001 over 1995. During the period 1995-2001, a steep rise was found in rape cases from 13754 to 16075. Cases of molestation accounted for 43.4 per cent of the total crimes against women in India in the year 2001. Also, we find an increment in dowry deaths from 5092 to 6815. Looking at the statistics, it may be pointed out that injustices on women are growing fast at national level and their existence itself is threatened.

The status of women in Kerala, in this regard, is not better than that of women at the national level. Violence against women in Kerala is very high when compared to India. In spite of 100 per cent literacy and increased rate of women's education, atrocities against women have become the most serious social evil of the contemporary Kerala society.

Crimes against women in Kerala have increased at an alarming rate. The total number of cases which was only 1203 in 1995 rose to 2818 in 2001,

representing a rate of increase of about 134.2 per cent. Similarly, the number of eve teasing cases, which stood at 15 in 1995, increased to 86 in 2001. Rate of increase of violence, in all categories depicted in the table, is very high in Kerala when compared to India.

2.10 Decision Making

Gender equity is closely related to decision-making influence. Women participation in decision making, as reflection in share of high level national services like IAS and IPS was 5.4 per cent in 1987 and it increased to 7.6 per cent in 2000 at all India level. In Kerala, it was 5.9 per cent in 1987 and 6.8 per cent in 2000. Gender wise representation in IAS and IPS services is furnished in Table 2.38.

Table 2.38: Representation in IAS and IPS in Kerala and India

Kerala/ India	Category	1987			1997			2000		
		Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Kerala	IAS	7 (87.5)	1 (12.5)	8 (100.0)	137 (91.3)	13 (8.7)	150 (100.0)	150 (89.8)	17 (10.2)	167 (100.0)
	IPS	47 (97.9)	1 (2.1)	48 (100.0)	90 (98.9)	1 (1.1)	91 (100.0)	98 (99.0)	1 (1.0)	99 (100.0)
India	IAS	3865 (91.9)	339 (8.1)	4204 (100.0)	4479 (89.7)	512 (10.3)	4991 (100.0)	4624 (89.6)	535 (10.4)	5159 (100.0)
	IPS	2397 (99.1)	21 (0.9)	2418 (100.0)	2978 (97.8)	67 (2.2)	3045 (100.0)	3191 (96.7)	110 (3.3)	3301 (100.0)

Note: Figures in parenthesis are percentage to total
Source: Economic Review (2003).

There is a marginal increase in female representation in India and a marginal decrease in female representation in Kerala in IAS and IPS between 1987 and 2000. Both in Kerala and India, female representation is very low when compared to male representation in IAS and IPS.

Coming to household decision making, families are never entirely egalitarian-wife having disproportionate control over family decisions (Nath and

Leonetti 1999[36]). Control over house hold decisions or lack there of is an important and more direct measure of gender equity within families. Both genders still hold traditional views about the roles of men and women and both believe that men ought to make final decisions. The typical husband – wife relationship in a traditional Indian family has been male dominance and female dependence. So, women have only a marginal say in the decision making process of the family. A comparison of role of women in household decision-making in Kerala and India is depicted in Table 2.39. As per table, while 9.4 per cent are not involved in any decision-making in India, they are only 7.2 per cent in Kerala. Except in deciding what to cook, Kerala women have more power in all aspects of household decision-making than Indian women.

Table 2.39: Household Decision Making: Kerala and India

Decisions taken		India	Kerala
Percentage not involved in any decision making		9.4	7.2
Percentage involved in decision making on:	What to cook	85.1	80.9
	Own Health care	51.6	72.6
	Purchasing Jewellery etc.	52.6	63.4
	Staying with her parents/sibling	48.1	59.7
Percentage who do not need permission to:	Go to the market	31.6	47.7
	Visit friends/relatives	24.4	37.9
	Percentage with access to money	59.6	66.2

Source: National Family Health Survey-II, 1998-99.

Household decision making by residence in Kerala is given in detail in the Table 2.40. According to NFHS-II, in Kerala, 23.0 per cent of women who earned cash have no decision making power about the use of their earnings while 42.0 per cent make decisions of their own.

[36]Dilip C. Nath and Donna L. Leonetti (1999), 'Correlates of Female Decision Making in an Urban Indian Society', *The Journal of Family Welfare*, 45 (2), p.28.

Table 2.40: Household Decision Making by Residence -Kerala 1999

Household Decision	Respondent Only			Husband Only			Respondent with Husband			Others in Household only			Respondent with others in household		
	U	R	T	U	R	T	U	R	T	U	R	T	U	R	T
What items to cook	56.8	56.6	56.6	3.4	3.0	3.1	6.1	5.6	5.7	15.8	16.0	15.9	17.8	18.8	18.6
Obtaining health care for herself	52.5	55.2	54.6	19.9	20.0	20.0	16.1	12.4	13.3	7.4	7.4	7.4	4.0	4.9	4.7
Purchasing Jewellery or other major household items	22.2	20.3	20.7	27.8	25.6	26.1	30.3	31.1	30.9	8.3	11.2	10.5	11.4	11.8	11.7
Going and Staying with her parents or siblings	20.4	20.5	20.5	30.9	29.6	29.9	32.6	31.4	31.7	8.8	10.9	10.4	7.2	7.7	7.6
How the money (women earning cash) she earns will be used	50.7	39.9	42.3	18.2	22.3	21.4	27.9	31.0	30.3	1.1	2.0	1.8	2.2	4.8	4.2

Source: National Family Health Survey 1998-99: Kerala (2001), International Institute for Population Sciences, Mumbai.

Only 20.0 per cent could take the decision regarding purchasing jewellery and staying with their own parents. In spending money while 50.7 per cent of urban women have their own decision only 39.9 per cent of rural women have this power. In all other decisions there are not much rural-urban differences.

2.11 Conclusion

In this chapter, we have analysed the comparative position of gender status in Kerala with that of India. Kerala stands first among the Indian states as regards HDI, GDI, GEM and GEI. Work participation rate of females is much less than that of males both in Kerala and India, the gender gap being more prominent in Kerala than in India. WPR for males and females is lower in Kerala compared to India.

There is gender discrimination in employment opportunities. The incidence of unemployment among females is very high and it is highest in the national level. More males are employed in public sector and organised sectors, while more females are employed in private and unorganised sectors in low paid, unskilled and insecure jobs.

Despite the strong trade union movements and comparatively larger participation of women in trade union activities, wide disparity in wage structure between males and females still prevails in Kerala as in India. This is especially true in the case of agriculture labour and construction labour.

The sex ratio of the state has always favoured females while the opposite is true at the national level. But the child sex ratio of Kerala and India indicates that boys outnumber girls in the 0 – 6 age group.

The literacy rate of females in 2001 was almost near to male literacy in Kerala. Kerala has achieved near equality in school enrolment with regard to gender. At the higher secondary, degree and postgraduate levels, the enrolment of girl students exceeded that of boys. But in the case of technical and professional education, girls lag behind boys. This is also the case in other than state syllabus schools. The quality of education in Kerala is yet to be desired.

The representation of women in local bodies of government is higher than the mandatory requirement of 33 per cent in Kerala. But, the representation of women in the Parliament and the State Assembly is very low. In the core committees of major political parties also there is low representation of women.

The health status of Kerala can be compared to those of the developed countries. The widely accepted health indicators, such as, maternal mortality and institutionalisation of deliveries, infant mortality rate, life expectancy, number of disabled, crude death rate and mean age at marriage favour females in Kerala and they are the best figures in India. But regarding morbidity, especially among women, Kerala stands first among Indian states. Elderly population is the highest in Kerala than any other states in India and female elderly outnumber male elderly. Suicide rates are also highest in Kerala with more male suicides than female suicides. The atrocities against women in Kerala are increasing at a spectacular rate than in India.

Kerala women have less household decision making power than men but she has more decision making power compared to Indian women. Except in decision making regarding spending money, there are not much rural-urban disparities in decision making.

Thus, as regards the conventional indicators of gender equity like HDI, GDI, GEM, GEI, literacy rate, sex ratio, education, health and political

participation in local bodies, Kerala women stands at an enviable position. But the data regarding child sex ratio, work participation rate, employment, morbidity, political participation at higher levels and atrocities. substantiate the opening statement that the status of women in Kerala compared to that of the men is not so enviable, when we go deep into these indicators. In gender status of Kerala, there are many socio-economic disparities, which call for special attention.

INTER DISTRICT COMPARISON OF GENDER DISPARITY

T.V. Salma “Rural-urban variations in gender equity in Kerala- A case study of Thrissur district” Thesis. Department of Economics , Dr. John Matthai Centre Thrissur , University of Calicut, 2004

Chapter III
INTER DISTRICT COMPARISON OF GENDER DISPARITY

3.1 Introduction

An inter district analysis of gender disparity using indictors of WPR, employment, sex ratio, literacy and education, health, atrocities against women and political participation is the content of this chapter. Some of the indicators, which have been included in the state level analysis, have not been included here due to non-availability of district level data. The chapter is divided into six sections. Second section deals with the inter district variations of gender disparity while the gender disparity index for the districts of Kerala is discussed in the third section. Profile of the study area, Thrissur district is briefly discussed in the fourth section. The fifth section explains the details of the sample area. The last section is devoted to the conclusions emerging from this chapter.

3.2 Inter District Variations in Gender Disparity

Even though Kerala is a very small state with fourteen districts, there are district level variations in many respects. In this section, variations of gender disparity between districts are discussed using the indicators of WPR, employment, sex ratio, literacy, education, health and political participation.

3.2.1 Work Participation Rate

There is gender disparity in work participation rates among the districts of Kerala. Sex- wise rural-urban work participation rates in districts in Table 3.1 will give us a clear picture of the level of gender disparity in work participation rates. In every district female WPRs are less than male WPRs both in rural and urban area.

It is seen that the first rank in male and female WPR goes to Idukki (58.6 and 28.8 respectively) and the 14th rank goes to Malappuram (42.7 and 6.6 respectively) in the rural area in 2001. In the urban area, the highest male and female WPR is recorded in Wayanad (57.3 and 24.1 respectively) and the lowest in Malappuram (43.6 and 6.3 respectively). Gender gap in WPR is the highest in Kozhikode both in rural and urban areas.

Table 3.1: Sex-Wise Work Participation Rate in 14 Districts of Kerala – 2001

State/Districts	2001							
	Rural				Urban			
	Total	Male	Female	Gap	Total	Male	Female	Gap
Kasargod	35.3	49.6	21.5	28.1	32.5	47.8	18.1	29.7
Kannur	34.0	51.4	17.8	33.6	29.7	48.6	12.7	35.9
Wyanad	39.2	55.6	22.8	32.8	40.8	57.3	24.1	33.2
Kozhikode	27.4	47.5	8.4	39.1	28.7	50.9	7.7	43.2
Malappuram	24.1	42.7	6.6	36.1	24.4	43.6	6.3	37.3
Palakad	36.5	52.2	21.8	30.4	34.0	52.4	16.5	35.9
Thrissur	32.3	50.8	15.4	35.4	31.9	51.0	14.2	36.8
Ernakulam	37.7	56.3	19.3	37.0	34.3	54.4	14.7	39.7
Idukki	43.8	58.6	28.8	29.8	33.7	53.0	14.7	38.3
Kottayam	33.3	52.8	14.1	38.7	30.8	49.9	12.4	37.5
Alappuzha	33.8	48.7	20.1	28.6	35.8	52.0	20.5	31.5
Pathanamthitta	29.9	48.0	13.4	34.6	27.7	44.5	12.0	32.5
Kollam	32.2	48.3	17.3	31.0	31.2	49.5	13.6	35.9
Thiruvananthapuram	32.3	51.8	14.0	37.8	32.6	50.9	15.1	35.8
Kerala	32.6	50.2	15.9	34.3	31.6	50.8	13.5	37.3

Source: Census of India, 2001, Paper 2, and Series 12

3.2.2 Employment

Gender disparity in employment is revealed in Table 3.2. In the rural and urban areas, in all districts, percentage of male workers is greater than percentage of female workers in the categories of main and marginal workers. But, in the non-workers, in all districts, females outnumber males. The gender gap in non-workers both in rural and urban areas, is the highest in Kozhikode. Male and female percentages of main workers are highest in Idukki (50.6 and 21.0 respectively) and lowest in Malappuram (34.6 and 4.2 respectively) in the rural area.

Table 3.2: Percentage Distribution of Main and Marginal Workers in Rural and Urban Areas - (2001)

District/State	Main Workers						Marginal Workers						Non-Workers					
	Rural			Urban			Rural			Urban			Rural			Urban		
	M	F	Gap	M	F	Gap	M	F	Gap	M	F	Gap	M	F	Gap	M	F	Gap
Kasargod	41.5	14.1	27.4	40.0	13.3	26.7	8.1	7.4	0.7	7.8	4.8	3.0	50.4	78.5	-28.1	52.2	81.9	-29.7
Kannur	42.3	11.2	31.1	43.5	9.9	33.6	9.1	6.6	2.5	5.1	2.8	2.3	48.6	52.2	-3.6	51.4	87.3	-35.9
Wyanad	42.6	12.9	29.7	48.1	15.9	32.2	13.0	9.9	3.1	9.2	8.2	1.0	44.4	77.2	-32.8	42.7	75.9	-33.2
Kozhikkode	36.7	4.9	31.8	43.9	6.0	37.9	10.8	3.5	7.3	7.0	1.7	5.3	52.5	91.6	-39.1	49.1	92.3	-43.2
Malappuram	34.6	4.2	30.4	37.2	4.7	32.5	8.1	2.4	5.7	6.4	1.6	4.8	57.3	93.4	-36.1	56.4	93.7	-37.3
Palakkad	44.2	15.4	28.8	47.2	12.8	34.4	8.0	6.4	1.6	5.2	3.7	1.5	47.8	78.2	-30.4	47.6	53.5	-5.9
Thrissur	43.9	11.2	32.7	46.2	11.6	34.6	6.9	4.2	2.7	4.8	2.6	2.2	49.2	84.6	-35.4	49.0	85.8	-36.8
Ernakulam	47.2	12.4	34.8	47.6	11.5	36.1	9.1	6.9	2.2	6.8	3.2	3.6	43.7	80.7	-37.0	45.6	85.3	-39.7
Idukki	50.6	21.0	29.6	46.5	11.7	34.8	8.0	7.8	0.2	6.5	3.0	3.5	41.4	71.2	-29.8	47.0	85.3	-38.3
Kottayam	45.6	10.4	35.2	44.2	10.0	34.2	7.2	3.7	3.5	5.7	2.4	3.3	47.2	85.9	-38.7	50.1	87.6	-37.5
Alappuzha	37.3	12.8	24.5	45.2	14.7	30.5	11.4	7.3	4.1	6.8	5.8	1.0	51.3	79.9	-28.6	48.0	79.5	-31.5
Pathanamthitta	38.7	8.9	29.8	37.7	9.9	27.8	9.3	4.5	4.8	6.8	2.1	4.7	52.0	86.6	-34.6	55.5	88.0	-32.5
Kollam	38.0	13.0	25.0	42.9	10.8	32.1	10.3	4.3	6.0	6.6	2.8	3.8	51.7	82.7	-31.0	50.5	86.4	-35.9
Trivandrum	39.3	9.4	29.9	44.2	12.5	31.7	12.5	4.6	7.9	6.7	2.6	4.1	48.2	86.0	-37.8	49.1	84.9	-35.8
Kerala	41.0	10.8	30.2	44.5	10.6	33.9	9.2	5.1	4.1	6.3	2.9	3.4	49.8	84.1	-34.3	49.2	86.5	-37.3

Note: M-Male; F-Female; Gap-Gender Gap
Source: Census of India, 2001, Kerala

As regards the percentage of marginal workers in the rural area, the highest male-female percentage is in Wayanad (13.0 and 9.9 respectively). The lowest percentage of marginal workers is in Thrissur (6.9) for males and in Malappuram (2.4) for females. Thus, in the rural area, the lowest percentages in both the categories are from Malappuram district except for the male percentage in marginal workers. In rural area, gender gaps in main and marginal workers is highest in Kottayam and Thiruvananthapuram districts respectively.

In urban area also, in the category of marginal workers, male-female percentage is highest in Wayanad (48.1 per cent and 15.9 per cent respectively), while the male-female percentage is the lowest in Malappuram district (37.2 per cent and 4.7 per cent respectively). The position of marginal workers is also same as in the rural area. The highest male-female percentage is for Wayanad (9.2 per cent and 8.2 per cent respectively). The lowest rank for males goes to Thrissur (4.8 per cent) and for females goes to Malappuram (1.6 per cent). In urban area, the gender gap in main and marginal workers is highest in Kozhikode.

The number of work seekers in different districts of Kerala also reveals the disparity in employment as shown in Table 3.3. In southern districts, female work seekers are higher than male work seekers while the reverse is the case in northern districts. The gender gap in the number of work seekers is only nominal.

Thiruvananthapuram district ranks first in the number of work seekers, both males and females, with 14.4 per cent male work seekers and 15.6 female work seekers. The second largest number of work seekers is from Kollam district. The lowest number is in Wayanad with 2.3 per cent male work seekers and 1.9 per cent female work seekers.

Table 3.3: District wise Percentage Distribution of Work Seekers in Kerala: 2002-2003

Districts/State	2002			2003		
	Male	Female	Gender Gap	Male	Female	Gender Gap
Kasargod	2.7	2.1	0.6	2.7	2.2	0.5
Kannur	6.0	5.7	0.3	6.1	5.9	0.2
Wyanad	2.3	1.9	0.4	2.3	1.9	0.4
Kozhikkode	9.5	9.2	0.3	9.5	9.2	0.3
Malappuram	7.1	5.7	1.4	7.0	5.5	1.5
Palakad	7.3	5.8	1.5	7.9	6.3	1.6
Thrissur	8.9	10.3	-1.4	8.0	9.8	-1.8
Ernakulam	10.4	9.8	0.6	10.1	9.6	0.5
Idukki	3.2	3.3	-0.1	3.3	3.2	0.1
Kottayam	6.4	6.6	-0.2	6.4	6.5	-0.1
Alappuzha	3.7	4.2	-0.5	9.0	9.3	-0.3
Pathanamthitta	8.9	9.5	-0.6	3.6	4.1	-0.5
Kollam	10.5	11.5	-1.0	9.8	10.9	-1.1
Thiruvananthapuram	13.1	14.5	-1.4	14.4	15.6	-1.2
Kerala	44.0	56.0	-12.0	43.0	57.0	-14.0

Source: Economic Review (2003), p.371.

The district wise position of employees in public and private sector in Kerala also reveals gender disparity (Table 3.4).

Thiruvananthapuram district provides the highest percentage of public sector employment both for males and females (22.1 and 19.7 respectively). In the private sector, highest percentage of female employment is in Idukki (14.8) and highest percentage of male employment is in Ernakulam district (15.7). The lowest position for males and females in the public sector (1.0 per cent and 0.6 per cent respectively) and private sector (2.2 per cent and 2.3 per cent respectively) goes to Wayanad district. Gender gap in public and private sectors are highest in Ernakulam district both in 2001 and 2002.

Table 3.4: Gender Wise Percentage Distribution of Employed in Public and Private Sectors -2001-2002

Districts/State	2001						2002					
	Public			Private			Public			Private		
	M	F	G	M	F	G	M	F	G	M	F	G
Kasargod	3.9	3.8	0.1	3.0	10.7	-7.7	3.0	4.1	-1.1	3.0	10.6	-7.6
Kannur	7.4	5.8	1.6	10.2	8.0	2.2	5.7	5.9	-0.2	10.3	8.0	2.3
Wyanad	2.7	1.6	1.1	2.8	3.8	-1.0	1.0	0.6	0.4	2.2	2.3	-0.1
Kozhikkode	9.8	6.0	3.8	10.5	6.2	4.3	7.4	6.1	1.3	9.5	6.1	3.4
Malappuram	7.5	6.2	1.3	5.7	4.9	0.8	5.7	6.1	-0.4	5.5	5.0	0.5
Palakad	11.6	5.2	6.4	6.1	3.9	2.2	9.1	5.5	3.6	6.0	3.8	2.2
Thrissur	9.6	9.9	-0.3	9.9	9.5	0.4	7.5	9.9	-2.4	9.4	9.7	-0.3
Ernakulam	20.7	11.0	9.7	14.9	7.7	7.2	15.7	10.7	5.0	15.7	7.8	7.9
Idukki	3.5	2.2	1.3	11.6	13.9	-2.3	2.8	2.2	0.6	13.1	14.8	-1.7
Kottayam	6.7	5.7	1.0	6.1	3.2	2.9	5.2	5.8	-0.6	6.1	3.2	2.9
Alappuzha	4.9	4.8	0.1	2.7	2.5	0.2	3.8	4.8	-1.0	2.6	2.5	0.1
Pathanamthitta	6.1	6.0	0.1	5.3	3.9	1.4	4.8	6.0	-1.2	5.2	3.9	1.3
Kollam	7.8	12.7	-4.9	4.4	13.2	-8.8	6.1	12.7	-6.6	4.1	13.5	-9.4
Thiruvananthapuram	27.8	19.2	8.6	6.8	8.5	-1.7	22.1	19.7	2.4	7.3	8.8	-1.5
Kerala	69.9	30.0	39.9	51.0	49.0	2.0	69.7	30.3	39.4	50.9	49.0	1.9

Note: M-Male; F-Female; G-Gender Gap
Source: Economic Review 2003, p.S320.

The existence of wage discrimination is a common feature for all the districts in Kerala especially for construction workers and agricultural labourers. Wage difference among construction workers in rural and urban areas given in Table 3.5 reveals this fact. In all the districts, male wages are greater than female wages both in rural and urban areas. In the rural area, while the male wage varies from Rs.143.47 (Thiruvananthapuram) to Rs.86.53 (Palakkad), the female wage varies from Rs.130.00 (Thiruvananthapuram) to Rs.57.37 (Palakkad). In urban area also, male and female wage is highest in Thiruvananthapuram (Rs.144.42 and Rs. 135.00 respectively) and lowest in Palakkad (Rs.88.25 and Rs.66.00 respectively). In male wage, rural-urban variations are nominal but in female wage it is better in urban area compared to rural area. The gender gap is highest in

Thrissur both in rural and urban areas, while the gap is lowest in Malappuram in rural area and Kozhikode in urban area.

Table 3.5: Average Daily Wage Rates of Unskilled Workers in the Construction Sector - 1999-2000 (Rs.)

Districts/State	Rural			Urban		
	Male	Female	Gap	Male	Female	Gap
Kasargode	142.50	121.11	21.39	142.50	121.25	21.25
Kannur	122.78	95.97	26.81	136.88	104.00	32.88
Wayanad	107.50	89.03	18.47	110.00	85.00	25.00
Kozhikode	116.67	104.03	12.64	116.25	110.00	6.25
Malappuram	118.00	116.62	1.38	130.00	105.45	24.55
Palakkad	86.53	57.37	29.16	88.25	66.00	22.25
Thrissur	140.00	98.82	41.18	134.75	98.25	36.50
Ernakulam	120.00	94.28	25.72	130.00	106.12	23.88
Idukki	128.75	101.79	26.96	128.75	96.75	32.00
Kottayam	130.37	103.34	27.03	122.83	108.89	13.94
Alappuzha	124.17	106.30	17.87	126.92	107.00	19.92
Pathanamthitta	125.00	100.00	25.00	130.00	110.00	20.00
Kollam	122.50	117.50	5.00	130.00	120.00	10.00
Thiruvananthapuram	143.47	130.00	13.47	144.42	135.00	9.42
Kerala	123.45	102.59	20.86	126.54	105.27	21.27

Source: Economic Review 2001, p.S-329 – S-332.

3.2.3 Sex Ratio

The rural-urban break-up of sex ratio of total population and sex ratio of the population in the age group 0 - 6 in the districts of Kerala is given in Table 3.6. Sex ratio favours females in all districts except Idukki. Sex ratio is highest in Pathanamthitta (1094) and lowest in Idukki (993). Sex ratio in urban area (1014) is higher than sex ratio in rural area (991) in Idukki, which is contrary to the trends in Kerala, where urban sex ratio is slightly less than the rural sex ratio.

Sex ratio of 0 - 6 population is less than unity in all the districts both in rural and urban areas except in urban Kasaragod. Sex ratio of child population is the highest in Kasargode district (984), where the urban sex ratio of 0 – 6 population is 1004 which is higher than total and rural, 0 – 6 sex ratio of the

district and the state. Sex ratio of child population is lowest in Ernakulam district (948). Sex ratio of child population is greater than the state average in five districts and equal to the state average in one district (Palakkad) and less than the stage average in eight districts.

Table 3.6: District Wise Sex Ratio of Rural and Urban Areas in Kerala-2001

State/Districts	Total population			Age - 0 to 6		
	Total	Rural	Urban	Total	Rural	Urban
Kasargod	1047	1042	1071	984	979	1004
Kannur	1090	1068	1113	956	957	954
Wyanad	1000	1000	993	954	952	990
Kozhikkode	1058	1059	1056	966	962	973
Malappuram	1063	1063	1061	979	983	940
Palakad	1068	1069	1057	963	965	955
Thrissur	1092	1097	1080	953	949	965
Ernakulam	1017	1012	1023	948	944	953
Idukki	993	991	1014	970	970	978
Kottayam	1025	1023	1038	957	954	968
Alappuzha	1079	1087	1060	962	962	961
Pathanamthitta	1094	1097	1075	968	968	967
Kollam	1070	1076	1042	961	964	944
Thiruvananthapuram	1058	1068	1039	955	960	945
Kerala	1058	1059	1058	963	964	958

Source: Census of India 2001

3.2.4 Literacy and Education

Rural-urban break up of literacy rates achieved by the districts of Kerala are shown in Table 3.7. In all the districts, both in rural and urban areas, male literacy rates are greater than female literacy rates. Literacy rates are highest in Kottayam district for rural and urban areas, which are higher than the state averages. Kottayam also achieved the highest literacy rate for males and females in rural area (97.41 and 94.45 respectively) and in urban area (93.7 and 94.42 respectively). Palakkad reported the lowest rate of 89.73 per cent and 79.31 per cent respectively for males and females in rural area and 89.09 per cent and 78.34 per cent respectively for males and females in urban area. In

Palakkad, rural- urban and male-female rates are lower than the state average. Gender gaps in rural, urban and total areas are the highest in Kasargode district.

Table 3.7: Literacy Rates by Residence and Sex –2001

State/Districts	Rural			Urban			Total		
	M	F	Gap	M	F	Gap	M	F	Gap
Kasargod	90.84	79.80	11.04	90.09	78.77	11.32	93.98	83.99	9.99
Kannur	96.38	89.57	6.81	95.50	87.39	8.11	97.27	91.66	5.61
Wyanad	90.28	80.80	9.48	90.21	80.71	9.50	92.12	83.04	9.08
Kozhikkode	96.30	88.86	7.44	95.90	87.43	8.47	96.95	91.17	5.78
Malappuram	91.46	85.96	5.50	91.10	85.67	5.43	94.76	88.68	6.08
Palakad	89.73	79.31	10.42	89.09	78.34	10.75	93.67	85.41	8.26
Thrissur	95.47	89.94	5.53	94.95	88.96	5.99	96.76	92.45	4.31
Ernakulam	95.95	90.96	4.99	95.38	89.69	5.69	96.59	92.34	4.25
Idukki	92.11	85.04	7.07	91.93	84.70	7.23	95.58	91.23	4.35
Kottayam	97.41	94.45	2.96	97.37	94.42	2.95	97.62	94.58	3.04
Alappuzha	96.42	91.14	5.28	96.29	91.12	5.17	96.71	91.20	5.51
Pathanamthitta	96.62	93.71	2.91	96.56	93.59	2.97	97.12	94.78	2.34
Kollam	94.63	88.60	6.03	94.71	88.46	6.25	94.29	89.24	5.05
Thiruvananthapuram	92.68	86.26	6.42	91.84	84.53	7.31	94.27	89.65	4.62
Kerala	94.20	87.86	6.34	93.54	86.79	6.75	96.07	90.87	5.20

Source: Census of India –2001

Enrolment of students revealed in Table 3.8 shows that the percentage of girls enrolled is less than the boys enrolled in all the districts.

Table 3.8: District-wise Enrolment of Students in Schools in Percentage – 2002-03

District/State	Boys	Girls	Gender Gap
Kasargode	51.46	48.54	2.92
Kannur	51.28	48.72	2.56
Wayanad	51.13	48.87	2.26
Kozhikode	51.28	48.72	2.56
Malappuram	51.33	48.67	2.66
Palakkad	50.88	49.12	1.76
Thrissur	50.83	49.17	1.66
Ernakulam	50.47	49.53	0.94
Idukki	51.86	48.14	3.72
Kottayam	50.74	49.26	1.48
Alappuzha	51.13	48.87	2.26
Pathanamthitta	51.01	48.99	2.02
Kollam	50.77	49.23	1.54
Thiruvananthapuram	50.09	49.91	0.18
Kerala	50.97	49.03	1.94

Source: Economic Review 2003, p.S-201.

But, all districts have reached near equality, with Idukki having the highest gender gap. The highest enrolment of boys is in Idukki (51.86), while the highest enrolment of girls is in Thiruvananthapuram (49.91).

3.2.5 Health

District wise analysis of the health indicator, infant mortality rate given in Table 3.9, shows that IMR is less for females compared to males except in the districts of Kasargode, Malappuram, Pathanamthitta and Thiruvananthapuram. IMR rates are the highest for males and females in Wayanad (72) and Idukki (60) respectively. It is the lowest in Palakkad (26) and Alapuzha and Kozhikode (22) for males and females respectively for the year 1991. The highest gender gap is in Wayanad. The rates for Kerala are 45 and 41 during the same year.

Table 3.9: Infant Mortality in Rate in Districts in Kerala –1991

Districts/State	Total	Male	Female	Gender Gap
Kasargod	34	32	36	-4
Kannur	34	40	30	10
Wyanad	54	72	36	36
Kozhikkode	37	39	35	4
Malappuram	35	33	37	-4
Palakad	31	34	29	5
Thrissur	29	30	27	3
Ernakulam	32	34	31	3
Idukki	57	65	60	5
Kottayam	28	34	27	7
Alappuzha	25	27	22	5
Pathanamthitta	27	26	30	-4
Kollam	25	27	22	5
Thiruvananthapuram	38	36	40	-4
Kerala	42	45	41	4

Source: Kerala State District Profile, 1991, Census of India 1991

Aging is also an important problem faced by Kerala. District wise analysis shows that female elderly outnumber males in all districts except Idukki (Table 3.10). The gender gap is lowest in Pathanamthitta and highest in Kannur in 1998.

Table 3.10: Elderly Women by Districts in Kerala

District/State	Proportion of Female Elderly (Per Cent)					
	1991 Census 60+ Years			1998 KMS 60+ Years		
	Male	Female	Gender Gap	Male	Female	Gender Gap
Kasargod	6.97	7.14	-0.17	8.63	8.03	0.60
Kannur	7.85	8.97	-1.12	10.23	8.67	1.56
Wyanad	6.10	6.30	-0.20	7.58	7.36	0.22
Kozhikkode	7.78	8.88	-1.10	11.05	10.05	1.00
Malappuram	6.22	6.81	-0.59	7.73	7.85	-0.12
Palakad	8.39	9.42	-1.03	11.30	11.72	-0.42
Thrissur	9.26	10.71	-1.45	12.03	10.53	1.50
Ernakulam	8.66	10.15	-1.49	13.26	12.09	1.17
Idukki	6.87	6.80	0.07	6.05	8.85	-2.80
Kottayam	10.26	11.00	-0.74	12.64	12.75	-0.11
Alappuzha	10.35	11.77	-1.42	13.04	13.86	-0.82
Pathanamthitta	11.97	12.11	-0.14	13.73	17.53	-3.80
Kollam	8.51	9.27	-0.76	11.99	10.74	1.25
Thiruvananthapuram	8.00	8.96	-0.96	11.14	10.64	0.50
Kerala	8.37	9.32	-0.95	11.03	10.73	0.30

Source: (i) Population Census 1991, (ii) Kerala Migration Survey (KMS)1998.

Age at marriage for males and females in districts of Kerala is quite above the legal minimum age of marriage. In Malappuram, girls married below the age of 18 years was 36.0 per cent in 1999. This might be due to the Muslim dominance in the district. Highest CBR in the year 1999 is 21.29 in Malappuram followed by Kozhikode (20.27) (UNICEF 2001[1]). In TFR, the entire southern districts show an average of below 2.5, where as in the northern districts, it is above 3. Birth order 3 and above is highest in Malappuram (36.2 per cent) followed by Kasargode (28 per cent). Mean children ever born to a woman in the age group 40-46 is also highest in Malappuram (4.6 per cent).

3.2.6 Atrocities against Women

The incidence of violence against women in the districts of Kerala is clear from Table 3.11. Thiruvananthapuram has the first rank with 859 cases reported andKottayamhas the last rank with 280 cases reported. Highest number of rape

[1] UNICEF (2001), *District Atlas of Women and Children in Kerala,* p.42.

cases reported was from Malappuram (70). Molestation and kidnapping were highest in Thiruvananthapuram (392 and 23 respectively). Dowry deaths are very low in all districts. In six districts, when no dowry deaths were reported, four dowry death cases were reported in Thrissur during 2002.

Table 3.11: District-wise Reported Crimes Against Women – 2002

District/State	Type of Crimes								Rank
	Rape	Mole station	Kidna-pping	Eve Teasing	Dowry Death	Torture	Others	Total	
Kasargode	25	62	4	5	-	82	125	303	3
Kannur	20	90	8	7	-	199	216	540	8
Wayanad	29	46	1		1	59	154	290	2
Kozhikode	50	141	5	11	-	322	277	806	12
Malappuram	70	96	3	12	3	388	270	842	13
Palakkad	48	126	5	4	-	193	48	424	7
Thrissur	26	193	7	12	4	180	308	730	11
Ernakulam	29	170	8	5	1	177	282	672	9
Idukki	27	152	8	19	-	135	-	341	6
Kottayam	25	125	9	10	2	104	5	280	1
Alappuzha	13	149	6	2	2	159	4	335	4
Pathanamthitta	56	295	11	1	1	283	36	683	10
Kollam	13	153	8	4	-	136	22	336	5
Thiruvananthapuram	52	392	23	17	1	288	86	859	14
Kerala	483	2190	106	109	15	2705	1833	7441	

Source: Economic Review, p.S324.

3.2.7 Political Participation

Poor political participation of women in higher level bodies is clear from participation of men and women in Kerala Legislative Assembly (Table 3.12). Representation of women Legislative Assembly is highest in Thiruvananthapuram and lowest in Wayanad. Thiruvananthapuram and Ernakulam have the highest male representation while Alappuzha and Palakkad have the highest female representation. From seven districts, there are no women representatives. Gender gap is highest in Thiruvananthapuram and Ernakulam while it is lowest in Wayanad.

Table 3.12: Number of Members in the Kerala Legislative Assembly – 2001

Districts/State	Male	Female	Total	Gender Gap
Kasargode	5	-	5	5
Kannur	9	1	10	8
Wayanad	2	-	2	2
Kozhikode	12	-	12	12
Malappuram	12	-	12	12
Palakkad	10	2	12	8
Thrissur	13	1	14	12
Ernakulam	14	-	14	14
Idukki	5	-	5	5
Kottayam	9	1	10	8
Alappuzha	9	2	11	7
Pathanamthitta	5	1	6	4
Kollam	13	-	13	13
Thiruvananthapuram	14	-	14	14
Kerala	132	8	140	124

Source: Economic Review 2001, p.S349

3.3 Gender Disparity Index

In this section, an attempt is made to calculate Gender Disparity Index (GDI) for the districts of Kerala using the methodology adopted by National Human Development Report 2001. GDI (also termed as Gender Equality Index – GEI) is used to measure the inequality in attainments on human development indicators between females and males. The index has been presented as a ratio of attainments for females to that of males. Theoretically, the index can take values between zero and infinity, with a value of unity reflecting an absolute equality in the respective attainments of males and females. A value higher than unity would imply that females have better attainments than males. However, in reality, the

index is likely to take a value between zero and unity (Planning Commission 2002[2]).

The method of calculating GDI is same as calculating Human Development Index. It is a composite index of economic, educational and health attainments. In estimating GDI, the economic attainments for males and females have been captured by taking the respective worker-population ratio, unlike the use of per capita monthly expenditure in the HDI. Educational and health attainments have been captured using the same set of indicators as in the case of HDI. Thus,

$$GDI_j = 1/3 * \Sigma_i (X_i)$$

Where,
GDI = Gender Disparity Index; which is for j^{th} district , i goes from 1 to 3; and

$$X_i = (X_{ij} - X_i^*) / X_i^{**} - X_i^*)$$

Where X_{ij} refers to attainment of the j^{th} district on the i^{th} indicator; X_i^{**} and X_i^* are the scaling maximum and minimum norms, such that:

X_1= Worker-population ratio

X_2= Composite indicator on educational attainment

X_3= Composite indicator on health attainment.

Where,

$$X_2 = [(e_1 * 0.35) + (e_2 * 0.65)]$$

where, e_1 is the literacy rate for the age group 7 years and above, and e_2 is adjusted intensity of formal education.

$$X_3 = [(h_1 * 0.65) + (h_2 * 0.35)]$$

where, h_1 is the life expectancy at age one, and h_2 is the infant mortality rate. In case of IMR, the reciprocal of the indicator has been used.

With the scaling norms as,

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[2] Planning Commission (2002), *National Human Development Report 2001,* Government of India, Oxford University Press, New Delhi, p.26.

For worker-population ratio with 0 as minimum and 100 as maximum value, for literacy rate with 0 as minimum and 100 as maximum value, for adjusted intensity of formal education (estimated) with 0 as minimum and 7 as maximum, for life expectancy at age one with 50 years as minimum and 80 years as maximum and for infant mortality rate 20 per 1000 as minimum value.

Appropriate statistical adjustments were made in the calculation of the index, where district wise data were not available. The results of the Gender Disparity Index calculated are given in Table 3.13.

Table 3.13: District-wise Gender Disparity Index

Districts/State	WPR		Educational Attainment		Health Attainment		Total Attainment		GDI	RANK
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F		
Kasargode	0.493	0.208	0.543	0.481	0.461	0.587	0.499	0.425	0.853	6
Kannur	0.500	0.152	0.506	0.495	0.475	0.577	0.494	0.408	0.826	9
Kozhikode	0.488	0.081	0.531	0.482	0.473	0.585	0.497	0.383	0.770	14
Wayanad	0.557	0.228	0.523	0.517	0.531	0.587	0.537	0.444	0.827	8
Malappuram	0.428	0.066	0.482	0.515	0.463	0.589	0.457	0.390	0.853	7
Palakkad	0.522	0.211	0.503	0.492	0.464	0.575	0.497	0.426	0.857	4
Thrissur	0.509	0.151	0.520	0.499	0.457	0.571	0.495	0.407	0.822	11
Ernakulam	0.554	0.171	0.533	0.509	0.464	0.578	0.517	0.419	0.811	12
Idukki	0.583	0.281	0.498	0.534	0.519	0.629	0.533	0.481	0.903	1
Kottayam	0.524	0.138	0.554	0.563	0.464	0.571	0.514	0.424	0.825	10
Alappuzha	0.497	0.202	0.557	0.527	0.452	0.563	0.502	0.430	0.858	3
Pathanamthitta	0.476	0.133	0.565	0.583	0.450	0.577	0.497	0.431	0.867	2
Kollam	0.485	0.166	0.533	0.531	0.452	0.563	0.490	0.420	0.857	5
Trivandrum	0.515	0.144	0.561	0.508	0.468	0.594	0.515	0.415	0.807	13
Kerala	0.504	0.153	0.529	0.506	0.484	0.596	0.505	0.418	0.827	

Note: GDI-Gender Disparity Index; M-Male; F-Female
Source: Computed by Researcher

As per the Gender Disparity Index calculated, in WPR attainment, males are far better than females in all the districts. In education attainment also, males outnumber females except in districts of Pathanamthitta, Kottayam, Idukki and Malappuram. In health attainment, females are in a better position compared to males in all the districts. In total attainment, males are better than females in every district.

As per the GDI index calculated, on the basis of these attainments, Idukki district captures the first rank followed by Pathanamthitta. The highest gender disparity is found in Kozhikode and Thiruvananthapuram (14th and 13th Rank respectively). Thrissur, our study area, has 11th place in gender disparity index.

3.4 Profile of Thrissur District

Thrissur, one of the fourteen districts of Kerala, falls in the central region of Kerala and lies between 10^0 10' and 10^0 46' North latitudes and 75^0 57' and 76^0 54' East longitudes. It came into existence on 1st July 1949. It is bounded on the north by Ponnani Taluk of Malappuram District and Ottapalam Taluk of Palakkad district, on the east by the Alathur Taluk of Palakkad District and Pollachi Taluk of Coimbatore district, on the south by Deviculam Taluk of Idukki district and Kunnathunadu, Alwaye and Parur taluks of Ernakulam district and on the west by the Lakshadweep and Arabian sea. It is known as the cultural capital of Kerala. Nair et al. (1998)[3] places Thrissur in the category of developed districts on the basis of composite rank, which include performance in agriculture, manufacturing, education and health.

The district is divided into five taluks (Thalappilly, Chavakkad, Thrissur, Kodungallur and Mukundapuram). The headquarters of taluks are at Wadakkanchery, Chavakkad, Thrissur, Kodungallur and Irinjalakkuda respectively. These taluks are further divided into 254 revenue villages (204 rural and 50 urban). The district has one corporation (Thrissur), six municipalities (Chalakudy, Kodungallur, Irinjalakkuda, Kunnamkulam, Chavakkad and Guruvayoor), 17 blocks and 92 gram panchayats (48 Special Grade Panchayats and 44 First Grade Panchayats). The district has three parliamentary constituencies and 14 assembly constituencies.

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[3] K.N.Nair, A.C. Dhas, R. Ananda Raj and R. Sanjith (1998), *Regional Disparities in Development in Kerala*, Discussion Paper, KRPLLD, CDS, Thiruvanthapuram.

3.4.1 Area and Population

Thrissur district has an area of 3032 sq.km, which is 7.8 per cent of the area of the state (38863 sq.km). The urban area of Thrissur district is 389.77 sq.km, i.e., 7.0 per cent of the area of the district, which is greater than the corresponding percentage of 4.60 at the state level.

As per the 2001 Census, Thrissur district has a population of 29.75 lakhs, which is 9.34 per cent of state's population. In the total population, 14.22 lakhs are males and 15.53 lakhs are females. The urban population of Thrissur district is 28.21 per cent (8.39 lakhs) as against 25.9 per cent at the state level, with 4.04 lakhs males and 4.36 lakhs females. On the basis of level of urbanisation, the district captures sixth place among the districts in Kerala. In the 159 towns (60 statutory towns and 99 Census towns) in Kerala, 28 towns (7 statuary towns and 21 census towns) belong to Thrissur district. The rural population of Thrissur is 71.79 per cent (21.36 lakhs) as against 74.03 per cent at the state level, in which 10.18 lakhs are males and 11.18 lakhs are females. The rural population of the district is spread over 92 gram panchayats, and the urban population is spread over, six municipalities and one corporation. The decadal growth rate of population during 1991-2001 was 8.70 per cent in Thrissur district, while it was 9.42 per cent in Kerala. Thrissur is having fourth place among the districts in the level of population.

The density of population of Thrissur district is 981 persons, per sq.km, with seventh rank in the state in 2001, which is very much higher than the state average (810 persons per sq.km). Population density in urban and rural areas is 2154 persons per sq.km. and 808 per sq.km. respectively.

3.4.2 Per Capita Income

The per capita income of the district at current prices is Rs.27871, as against Rs.25764 in Kerala in 2002-03. In per capita income, Thrissur ranks fourth among the districts of the state. The BPL families in the district (33.54 per cent) are less than that in Kerala (36.58 per cent) in 2003. The district has less BPL families in the urban area (14471) than in the rural area (225077).

3.4.3 Work Participation Rate and Employment

The WPR of Thrissur, which is 32.2 (50.84 for males and 15.06 for females), is in par with WPR of Kerala, which is 32.3 (50.4 for males and 15.33 for females). WPR for urban population is 31.9 (51.0 for males and 14.2 for females) and WPR for rural population is 32.3 (50.8 for males and 15.4 for females). Thrissur has ninth rank in total WPR, seventh rank in male WPR, ninth rank in female WPR, ninth rank in rural WPR and eighth rank in urban WPR in 2001.

Distribution of population as main and marginal workers for Kerala and Thrissur district in 2001 is given in Table 3.14. In Thrissur district, the percentage of main workers, both male and female, is greater than that in the state level. In the case of marginal workers, the rates are below the state level rates. Non-workers' percentages are same for Kerala and Thrissur district.

Table 3.14: Main and Marginal Workers in 2001 -Kerala and Thrissur

Kerala/Thrissur	Type of Work	Total	Male	Female
Kerala	Main	25.9	41.9	10.8
	Marginal	6.4	8.5	4.5
	Non-Workers	67.7	49.6	84.7
	Total	32.3	50.4	15.3
Thrissur	Main	27.2	44.5	11.4
	Marginal	5.0	6.3	3.7
	Non-Workers	67.8	49.2	84.9
	Total	32.2	50.8	15.1

Source: Census 2001.

Out of the 638008 employees of public sector in Kerala in 2003, 52632 (8.25 per cent) are in Thrissur district. Thrissur has third place in this regard. But, in 193536 women employees in public sector in Kerala, 19195 (9.92 per cent) are in Thrissur district, with fourth rank in women employees in public sector. In the private sector, out of the 575995 workers in Kerala, 55045 (9.56 per cent) belong to Thrissur district and Thrissur has third place in this regard. Out of the 232812 women employees in Kerala's private sector, 27361 (9.69 per cent) are from Thrissur district and the district has fourth rank in this respect.

As in the state, Thrissur has more female work seekers than male work seekers. Out of the 1666875 male work seekers in Kerala, 132578 (7.95 per cent) are in Thrissur district in 2003. In the 2189120 female work seekers in Kerala, Thrissur has 213736 (9.76 per cent) work seekers. Thrissur has sixth rank in number of male work seekers and third rank in number of female work seekers (State Planning Board 2003)[4].

3.4.4 Sex Ratio

Sex ratio in Thrissur district is 1092, which is above the state average (1097 in rural and 1080 in urban area) as per 2001 Census. In sex ratio, Thrissur is having second place among the districts. But, child sex ratio of Thrissur district (953) is less than the state average (963). In the rural area (949) also, it is less compared to Kerala (964). But, in the urban area (965), the child sex ratio is higher than the state level ratio (958).

3.4.5 Literacy and Education

Thrissur has sixth place in literacy with a literacy rate of 92.56 (95.47 for males and 89.94 for females), which is higher than the state level literacy rate as

[4] State Planning Board (2003), *Economic Review 2003,* Government of Kerala, p.371.

per 2001 Census. The urban and rural literacy rates of Thrissur are also higher than the state level rates. The urban literacy rate of Thrissur is 94.51 (96.76 for males and 92.45 for females) as against 93.38 (96.07 per cent for males and 90.87 per cent for females) at the state level. In the rural area, the literacy rate is 91.79 (94.95 for male and 88.96 for females) as against 90.05 (93.54 for males and 86.79 for females) at the state level.

The enrolment of students in schools is in the order of 89736 boys and 87705 girls in LP, 74571 boys and 68955 girls in UP and 71355 boys and 71327 girls in high schools in 2002-03. Except in enrolment in schools and in certain trades of technical education, the number of female students is more than male students. It can be seen that the proportion of girls is high in higher classes. There are 992 schools in Thrissur district, in which 520 are Lower Primary Schools, 226 are Upper Primary schools and 246 are High Schools. In urban area, their numbers are 54, 15 and 44 respectively. There are 85 higher secondary schools with a total of 303 batches. Thrissur also has 36 Vocational Higher Secondary Schools, 20 Arts and Science Colleges, five Teachers Training Centres, one Agriculture College, one Veterinary College, five Polytechniques, five Industrial Training Centres and three Medical Colleges (2003). Thrissur stands third in the case of enrolment of students in schools, fourth in the number of batches in Higher Secondary, third in the number of Vocational Higher Secondary Schools and third in the number of Arts and Science Colleges among the districts of Kerala. Of the total school teachers in Kerala, 67.6 per cent are women, while in Thrissur 83.82 per cent of school teachers are women.

3.4.6 Health

Birth rate, death rate and infant mortality rate for the district (17.0, 6.0 and 29.0 respectively) are less than that in Kerala (18.0, 6.2 and 42.0 and respectively).

In the whole sample area, females outnumber males except in Athirappilly panchayat. Female work participation is less than male work participation in the whole sample area. While males outnumber females in the category of main workers, females outnumber males in the case of marginal workers.

Table 3.15: Details of Selected Sample Area

Details	Rural Area			Urban Area
	Kandanassery	Pananchery	Athirapilly	Thrissur Corporation
Area (sq.km)	15.27	141.71	489.00	101.42
Density/sq.km	1378	2642	19	3130
Total Population	21037	37116	9216	317474
Male Population	9854	18283	4662	154188
Female Population	11183	18833	4554	163286
Total Literacy	91.86	87.87	76.66	95.30
Male Literacy	95.25	91.72	82.57	97.01
Female Literacy	88.91	84.17	70.12	93.69
Sex ratio	1135	1030	976	1059
Total WPR	31.43	37.16	46.83	29.40
Male WPR	46.23	5174	55.23	45.86
Female WPR	18.44	23.01	38.23	14.18
Total Main Workers	6423	12951	3475	71313
Male Main Workers	4431	9193	2109	54423
Female Main Workers	1962	3758	1366	16890
Total Marginal Workers	195	843	841	3970
Male Marginal Workers	95	267	466	2000
Female Marginal Workers	100	576	375	1970
Number of Households	5391	12786	2830	71043
Number of Wards/Division	12	18	10	50

Note: Information on Workers and Number of households of Thrissur Corporation is of Thrissur Municipality

Source: (i) Census of India 2001; (ii) Panchayat Level Statistics 2001.

3.6 Conclusion

In this chapter, inter district variations in gender disparity, gender disparity index for the districts of Kerala, profile of the study area and details of selected sample area have been discussed.

In every district, female work participation rate is less than male work participation rate both in rural and urban areas. Malappuram has the last rank in

male and female WPR both in rural and urban areas. The highest rank goes to Idukki in rural area and Wayanad in urban area in this regard. In every district, percentage of female workers in the categories of total, male and marginal workers is less than percentage of male workers in all these categories both in rural and urban areas. In rural area, in the categories of total and main workers for males and females, Idukki stands first while Malappuram stands last. In the urban area, in this regard, Wayanad stands first and Malappuram stands last. In the number of work seekers, females outnumber males in all the districts. Wage rate is lowest in Palakkad and highest in Thiruvananthapuram both for males and females among the construction workers. In all the districts, females earn less than males in this category.

Sex ratio favours females in every district except Idukki. But, sex ratio of 0 – 6 population is less than unity in the rural and urban areas of all districts except urban Kasargode. Literacy rates in Kottayam is the highest where the total, rural and urban rates are higher than the state average. In enrolment, there is near equality in all districts.

IMR for females is less than IMR for males in all districts except Kasargode, Malappuram, Pathanamthitta and Thiruvananthapuram. Aged females are greater than aged males in all districts. Gender gap is highest in Kannur in this regard. From seven districts, there are no women representatives in Kerala Legislative Assembly. Number of crimes reported is highest in Thiruvananthapuram and lowest in Kottayam. Gender gap is highest in WPR in Kozhikode, in employment in private and public sectors in Ernakulam, in literacy in Kasargode, in enrolment in Idukki, in IMR in Kannur and in political participation in Thiruvananthapuram and Ernakulam.

As per the GDI index calculated, attainments in WPR and education favours males and attainment in health favours females. Total attainments favour

males. Idukki district captures the first rank followed by Pathanamthitta in GDI. The highest gender disparity is found in Kozhikode and Thiruvananthapuram (14^{th} and 13^{th} Rank respectively). Thrissur, our study area, has 11^{th} place in gender disparity position.

SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS OF THE RESPONDENTS

T.V. Salma “Rural-urban variations in gender equity in Kerala- A case study of Thrissur district” Thesis. Department of Economics , Dr. John Matthai Centre Thrissur , University of Calicut, 2004

Chapter IV
SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS OF THE RESPONDENTS

4.1 Introduction

The documents used for analysis in the previous chapters were secondary in nature, which does not serve our purpose at a more comprehensive level. Also subjective and qualitative factors were not considered. Equality between men and women is a matter of society at large, but it begins in the family. This precisely accounts for the rationale of the case study where primary data is collected through a sample survey, which forms the main source of data for the study. This chapter looks into the socio-economic status of the respondents.

Socio-economic norms of the society influence gender identity. The socio-economic characteristics of the sample population such as age, sex, religion and caste, type of family, possession of land, income and savings, employment, health, education, marriage and family life, communication and social life and household decision-making are examined as the respondents' thinking is conditioned by their socio-economic experiences. Data on atrocities faced by women like sexual harassment, domestic violence and marital rape are also discussed. Gender equity cannot be achieved without looking into the roles, men and women play in families. So these factors will help us to understand the real situation of gender in their proper perspective. The data on the socio-economic background of the respondents have been analysed to find out the differences in the socio-economic status of men and women. There are eleven sections in this chapter including introductory and concluding parts while different socio-economic variables have been discussed in other sections.

4.2 General Particulars of Sample Households

Gender equity is associated with several characteristics including age, religion and caste. These general particulars are discussed here.

4.2.1 Population

The rural sample of 225 households has a total population of 1119 persons, of which 531 are males and 588 are females (Table 4.1). The urban sample of 75 households has a total population of 331 persons, of which 167 are males and 164 are females. On the whole the 300 households together have a total population of 1450 persons, of which 698 are males and 752 are females. Thus, the sex ratio of total sample comes to 1077. While the sex ratio of the rural sample is 1107, the sex ratio of urban sample is only 982. The average family size in rural, urban and total samples are 5.0, 4.4 and 4.8 respectively.

Table 4.1: Distribution of Sample Population by Sex

Sex	Rural	Urban	Total
Male	531 (47.5)	167 (50.5)	698 (48.1)
Female	588 (52.5)	164 (49.5)	752 (51.9)
Total	1119 (100.0)	331 (100.0)	1450 (100.0)

Note: Figures in Parentheses are percentages
Source: Survey

4.2.2 Age

Age is one of the important variables in the understanding of gender. With changes in age, women's status and role also changes. The age profile of the sample and their break up on rural-urban basis is given in Table 4.2. The proportion of female respondents in five-year age group increase from 1.0 per cent in the age group 20-24 years, to 9.7 per cent in the age group 25-29 years, to 23.3 per cent in the age group 40-44 years and then falls steadily to 16.3 per cent in the age group 45-49 years. The decline after age 40-44 reflects the normal pyramid

shape of the population's age distribution. The age distribution of female respondents in the urban and rural areas are of similar pattern with only a slightly higher proportion up to the age group 35-39 and a slightly lower proportion from the age group 40-44 in the rural area compared to urban area. The age composition of male respondents follows no discernable pattern and it follows almost similar pattern in rural and urban areas.

Table 4.2: Distribution of Sample Respondents by Age

Age Group	Rural		Urban		Total	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
20-24	-	3 (1.3)	-	-	-	3 (1.0)
25-29	2 (0.9)	26 (11.6)	1 (1.3)	3 (4.0)	3 (1.0)	29 (9.7)
30-34	24 (10.7)	40 (17.8)	2 (2.7)	3 (4.0)	26 (8.7)	43 (14.3)
35-39	37 (16.4)	38 (16.9)	3 (4.0)	9 (12.0)	40 (13.3)	47 (15.7)
40-44	47 (20.9)	48 (21.3)	5 (6.7)	22 (29.3)	52 (17.3)	70 (23.3)
45-49	31 (13.8)	34 (15.1)	19 (25.3)	15 (20.0)	50 (16.7)	49 (16.3)
50-54	42 (18.7)	16 (7.1)	22 (29.3)	15 (20.0)	64 (21.3)	31 (10.3)
55-59	15 (6.7)	12 (5.3)	12 (16.0)	6 (8.0)	27 (9.0)	18 (6.0)
60-65	27 (12.0)	8 (3.6)	11 (14.7)	2 (2.7)	38 (12.7)	10 (3.3)
Total	225 (100.0)	225 (100.0)	75 (100.0)	75 (100.0)	300 (100.0)	300 (100.0)

Note: Figures in Parentheses are percentages
Source: Survey

4.2.3 Religion and Caste

Religion and caste are important and universal bases of social stratification. It is a potential factor in influencing social values and attitudes. Community of Hindus dominates in the total sample (59.0 per cent) followed by Christians (23.7 per cent) and Muslims (17.3 per cent), which is in accordance with the state

pattern (Table 4.3). Hindu are higher in urban area (76.0 per cent) than in rural area (53.3 per cent), whereas Muslims are higher in rural area (19.6 per cent) than in urban area (10.6 per cent). Christians are higher in rural area (27.1 per cent) compared to the urban area (13.3 per cent).

Data related to the caste of the sample show that 45.3 per cent of households belong to Other Backward Classes (OBC), 7.6 per cent belong to Schedule Castes (SC) and 4.7 per cent belong to Schedule Tribes (ST). The caste wise distribution shows that other backward classes are more than the forward castes both in total and rural areas. In the urban sample forward caste forms the majority (61.3 per cent).

Table 4.3: Distribution of sample households by religion and caste

Religion/Caste	Category	Rural	Urban	Total
Religion	Hindu	120 (53.3)	57 (76.0)	177 (59.0)
	Muslim	44 (19.6)	8 (10.6)	52 (17.3)
	Christian	61 (27.1)	10 (13.3)	71 (23.7)
Caste	SC	20 (8.9)	2 (2.6)	22 (7.6)
	ST	14 (6.2)	-	14 (4.7)
	OBC	109 (48.4)	27 (36.0)	136 (45.3)
	Others	82 (36.4)	46 (61.3)	128 (42.7)
Total		225 (100.0)	75 (100.0)	300 (100.0)

Note: Figures in Parentheses are percentages
Source: Primary Data

4.2.4 Type and Size of Family

For the purpose of this study, families were classified into nuclear and joint. It was found that both in the rural and urban sample, a greater percentage of households belonged to nuclear family. Traditional joint family system is breaking

down in modern times and nuclear family organisation is coming up. More than half per cent of households belong to nuclear family in the total sample and the percentage is as high as 82.6 in the urban sample. Joint family system is organised on the principle of subordination of all members to the head of the family and not on the principle of co-ordination and equality. Urbanisation and migration, spreading the urge for independence, set a trend towards nuclear family organisation, which leads to more gender equity.

The average family size of Kerala according to 2001 census is 4.9. In our sample, in the urban area 64.0 per cent and in the rural area 34.7 per cent of the families have only up to 4 members. In majority of families (55.5 per cent), the number of members varies between 5 and 6 in the rural sample. In the urban area, due to high cost of living children are considered as a liability rather than an asset.

Table 4.4: Distribution of the Sample on the Basis of Type of Family and Number of Members in the Family

	Rural	Urban	Total
Type of family			
Nuclear	107 (47.6)	62 (82.6)	169 (56.3)
Joint	118 (52.4)	13 (17.3)	131 (43.7)
Number of members in the family			
Up to 4	78 (34.7)	48 (64.0)	126 (42.0)
5 to 6	125 (55.5)	26 (34.6)	151 (50.3)
Above 6	22 (9.8)	1 (1.3)	23 (7.7)
Total	225 (100.0)	75 (100.0)	300 (100.0)

Note: Figures in Parentheses are percentages
Source: Survey

4.2.5 Housing

Housing details of the sample households are given in Table 4.5. A significant proportion of the respondents (94.7 per cent) live in own houses. The proportion is marginally less in urban area (92.0 per cent) compared to rural area (95.5 per cent). High land price, building cost and breakdown of joint family system may be the reasons for this.

The sample households have mainly, houses with concrete roof (76.3 per cent) followed by tiled roof (23.7 per cent). In rural area, the concrete roof houses (69.8 per cent) are less compared to urban area (94.6 per cent). While 100 per cent urban houses are electrified, 4.9 per cent rural houses are not yet electrified.

Table 4.5: Distribution of Respondents by Selected Variables Related to Housing

Selected Variables	Rural		Urban		Total	
Ownership						
Own	215	(95.5)	69	(92.0)	284	(94.7)
Rented	10	(4.5)	6	(8.0)	16	(5.3)
Roof of House						
Tiles	68	(30.2)	4	(5.3)	71	(23.7)
R C	157	(69.8)	71	(94.6)	229	(76.3)
Source of Drinking Water						
Own well	157	(69.8)	18	(24.0)	175	(58.3)
Public well	10	(4.4)	2	(2.7)	12	(4.0)
Own tap	39	(17.3)	53	(70.7)	92	(30.7)
Public tap	8	(3.6)	2	(2.7)	10	(3.3)
Others	11	(4.9)		-	11	(3.7)
Electrification						
Electrified	214	(95.1)	75	(100.0)	289	(96.3)
Not electrified	11	(4.9)		-	11	(3.7)
Type of Fuel						
Wood	143	(63.6)	2	(2.7)	145	(48.3)
Kerosene	3	(1.3)	2	(2.7)	5	(1.7)
Gas	79	(35.1)	73	(97.3)	152	(50.7)
Total	225	(100.0)	75	(100.0)	300	(100.0)

Note: Figures in Parentheses are percentages
Source: Survey

We still depend on traditional sources of drinking water. Majority of rural households (69.8 per cent) use their own well for drinking water. But in urban area

majority of households (70.7 per cent) depend on own tap. This may be due to the shortage of land for digging wells for individual households in the urban area.

Also rural respondents pursue traditional means of fuel. In the rural sample, 63.6 per cent use firewood as fuel. This may be due to the easy availability of firewood and convenience in handling. But in the urban area, 97.3 per cent use cooking gas as fuel. In the total sample also, majority (50.7 per cent) use gas followed by wood (48.3 per cent).

4.2.6 Monthly Income Position of Households

Economic status of the households in terms of monthly income level is presented in Table 4.6. It is evident that the monthly income of 48.0 per cent of the sample households is below Rs.5000. This category is 62.2 per cent among the rural households and 5.3 per cent among the urban households. 50.6 per cent of the urban households have a family income above Rs.20000/- and only 2.7 per cent of rural households belong to this category, which reveals the rural-urban disparity in income.

Table 4.6: Monthly Income Position of Sample Households

Income	Rural	Urban	Total
Below 5000	140 (62.2)	4 (5.3)	144 (48.0)
5000-10000	60 (26.7)	11 (14.6)	71 (23.7)
10000-15000	11 (4.9)	10 (13.3)	21 (7.0)
15000-20000	8 (3.6)	12 (16.0)	20 (6.7)
Above 20000	6 (2.7)	38 (50.6)	44 (14.7)
Total	225 (100.0)	75 (100.0)	300 (100.0)

Note: Figures in Parentheses are percentages
Source: Survey

4.3 Employment

Economic status is one of the most important variables determining gender status. The best proximate indicator of economic status is the individual level of economic participation in recorded employment. The opportunities provided by the experiences of employment and the income obtained from it strengthens the position of women and helps to achieve a more equitable role distribution between the two sexes in the family.

4.3.1 Employment Status

Employment status of respondents in Table 4.7 reveals that there is acute sex based variation as regards employment in the total, rural and urban sample. There are more unemployed women than employed, both in rural and urban areas. The male female differences are also acute. While 63.3 per cent of females are unemployed only 5.3 per cent males fall in this category. Unemployment rates for males and females are marginally lower in urban area (4.0 and 58.7 respectively) than in rural area (5.8 and 64.9 respectively).

Table 4.7: Distribution of Respondents According to Employment

Employment	Rural		Urban		Total	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Unemployed	13 (5.8)	146 (64.9)	3 (4.0)	44 (58.7)	16 (5.3)	190 (63.3)
Employed	212 (94.2)	79 (35.1)	72 (96.0)	31 (41.3)	284 (94.7)	110 (36.7)
Total	225 (100.0)	225 (100.0)	75 (100.0)	75 (100.0)	300 (100.0)	300 (100.0)

Note: Figures in Parentheses are percentages
Source: Survey

4.3.2 Activity Status

On the basis of activity status, sample is divided into six groups. The activity status of husband and wife is given in Table 4.8. While majority of males and females (41.04 per cent and 63.29 per cent respectively) in the rural sample

are coolies, this is only a very small proportion in the urban area. Majority of urban males and females (50.0 per cent and 80.65 per cent respectively) are in the service sector. No females both in the rural and urban sample belong to the categories of agriculture, business and NRI.

Table 4.8: Distribution of Employed Respondents by Type of Activities

Activity	Rural		Urban		Total	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Agriculture	10 (4.72)	-	2 (2.78)	-	12 (4.23)	
Coolie	87 (41.04)	50 (63.29)	1 (1.39)	1 (3.23)	88 (30.99)	51 (46.36)
Service	39 (18.40)	21 (26.58)	36 (50.00)	25 (80.65)	75 (26.41)	46 (41.82)
Business	31 (14.62)	-	16 (22.22)	-	47 (16.55)	-
NRI	17 (8.02)	-	8 (11.11)	-	25 (8.80)	-
Skilled labour	27 (12.74)	6 (7.59)	2 (2.78)	-	29 (10.21)	6 (5.45)
Professional	1 (0.47)	2 (2.53)	7 (9.72)	5 (16.13)	8 (2.82)	7 (6.36)
Total	212 (100.00)	79 (100.00)	72 (100.00)	31 (100.00)	284 (100.00)	110 (100.00)

Note: Figures in Parentheses are percentages
Source: Survey

4.3.3 Employment Details

Employment details of respondents are revealed in Table 4.9. On the basis of the sector of employment, respondents are classified into three groups, viz., government, quasi government and private. More employed women (77.3 per cent) are concentrated in private sector jobs when compared to males (73.6 per cent). Employed females working in private sector (92.4 per cent) are higher than employed males working in this sector (83.5 per cent) in rural area. In the urban area, males outnumber females in private sector. Government sector provides the second largest employment to both men and women, with 18.2 per cent of total

employed females and 23.9 per cent of employed males, engaged in this sector. Both in rural and urban areas, employed males working in government sector is higher than employed females working in government sector. It is noteworthy that rural-urban differences in women working in government sector are very striking (5.1 per cent 51.6 per cent respectively).

Table 4.9: Distribution of Employed Respondents by Selected Variables related to Employment

Selected Variables	Rural		Urban		Total	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Sector						
Government	29 (13.7)	4 (5.1)	39 (54.2)	16 (51.6)	68 (23.9)	20 (18.2)
Quasi-Government	6 (2.8)	2 (2.5)	1 (1.4)	3 (9.7)	7 (2.5)	5 (4.5)
Private	177 (83.5)	73 (92.4)	32 (44.4)	12 (38.7)	209 (73.6)	85 (77.3)
Nature of job						
Permanent	60 (28.3)	14 (17.7)	54 (75.0)	29 (93.5)	114 (40.1)	43 (39.1)
Temporary	152 (71.7)	65 (82.3)	18 (25.0)	2 (6.5)	170 (59.9)	67 (60.9)
Category						
Full-time	84 (39.6)	19 (24.1)	65 (90.3)	28 (90.3)	149 (52.5)	47 (42.7)
Part-time	128 (60.4)	60 (75.9)	7 (9.7)	3 (9.7)	135 (47.5)	63 (57.3)
Monthly Income						
Below 5000	145 (68.4)	71 (89.9)	6 (8.3)	4 (12.9)	151 (53.2)	75 (68.2)
5000-10000	48 (22.6)	7 (8.9)	14 (19.4)	7 (22.6)	62 (21.8)	14 (12.7)
10000-15000	14 (6.6)	-	19 (26.4)	6 (19.4)	33 (11.6)	6 (5.5)
15000-20000	3 (1.4)	1 (1.3)	17 (23.6)	11 (35.5)	20 (7.0)	12 (10.9)
Above 20000	2 (.9)	-	16 (22.2)	3 (9.7)	18 (6.3)	3 (2.7)
Total	212 (100.)	79 (100.0)	72 (100.0)	31 (100.0)	284 (100.0)	110 (100.0)

Note: Figures in Parentheses are percentages
Source: Survey

While 28.3 per cent of employed males are permanent, only 17.7 per cent of employed females are permanent in rural sector. In urban area, females outnumber males in this regard. Full-time male employees are more than full time female employees in rural area (39.6 per cent and 24.1 per cent respectively). But, in the urban area, 90.3 per cent of both employed males and females are full-time workers. Thus, urban area is more conducive to women regarding employment.

Employment improves the status of women at home as per Table 4.10. Job status enhances the status at home for 58.2 per cent of rural and 83.9 per cent of urban respondents. But, this is not the case for 41.8 per cent of rural and 16.1 per cent of urban female respondents.

A working woman has to bear the double role of an employee and housewife. Majority, both in rural and urban areas (74.7 per cent and 87.1 per cent respectively), find it very difficult to carry this double role. But, 25.3 per cent of the rural females and 12.9 per cent of the urban females do not find it difficult.

Table 4.10: Distribution of Female Employed Respondents

Selected Variables	Rural		Urban		Total	
Status at home						
Enhanced	46	(58.2)	26	(83.9)	72	(65.5)
Not enhanced	33	(41.8)	5	(16.1)	38	(34.5)
Difficulty in double role						
Difficult	59	(74.7)	27	(87.1)	86	(78.2)
Not difficult	20	(25.3)	4	(12.9)	24	(21.8)
Total	79	(100.0)	31	(100.0)	110	(100.0)

Note: Figures in Parentheses are percentages
Source: Survey

The age at which the respondents started working by rural urban break up is given in Table 4.11. In the rural area, 25.47 per cent males and 36.7 per cent females were going for work before the age of 18, while only 13.89 per cent and 3.2 per cent males and females respectively fall in this category in urban area.

Majority of males and females in the rural area and females in the urban area got employment between 18 and 24 years of age. But majority of males in the urban area got employment between the age group of 24 to 30 years. As per the table, females who reside far away from workplace is less when compared to males who reside far away from workplace, without any rural-urban difference. In the category of 6 kilometres and above, gender gap is marginal in the rural areas. But, urban females compared to rural females travel long distance for doing work.

Table 4.11: Details of Employment of Respondents

Selected Variables	Rural		Urban		Total	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Age at first appointment						
Below 18	54 (25.47)	29 (36.7)	10 (13.89)	1 (3.2)	64 (22.54)	30 (27.3)
18-24	142 (66.98)	35 (44.3)	27 (37.50)	18 (58.1)	169 (59.51)	53 (48.2)
24-30	16 (7.55)	12 (15.2)	30 (41.67)	11 (35.5)	46 (16.20)	23 (20.9)
Above 30	-	3 (3.8)	5 (6.94)	1 (3.2)	5 (1.76)	4 (3.6)
Distance to workplace						
1-3	86 (40.57)	59 (74.68)	18 (25.00)	13 (41.94)	104 (36.62)	72 (65.45)
4-6	101 (47.64)	11 (13.92)	20 (27.78)	8 (25.81)	121 (42.61)	19 (17.27)
Above 6	25 (11.79)	9 (11.39)	34 (47.22)	10 (32.26)	59 (20.77)	19 (17.27)
Additional job						
Doing	27 (12.74)	3 (3.80)	2 (2.78)	1 (3.23)	29 (10.21)	4 (3.64)
Not doing	185 (87.26)	76 (96.20)	70 (97.22)	30 (96.77)	255 (89.79)	106 (96.36)
Job worth qualification						
Worth	177 (83.49)	72 (91.13)	60 (83.33)	29 (93.54)	237 (83.45)	101 (91.81)
Not worth	35 (16.50)	7 (8.86)	12 (16.6)	2 (6.45)	47 (16.54)	9 (8.18)
Total	212 (100.0)	79 (100.0)	72 (100.0)	31 (100.0)	284 (100.0)	110 (100.0)

Note: Figures in Parentheses are percentages
Source: Survey

More males are doing additional job compared to females both in the rural and urban area. The female respondents doing additional job are nearly 3.0 per cent both in rural and urban areas. Male-female difference is more pronounced in rural area, where 12.74 per cent of male respondents do some additional job. Only 2.7 per cent of urban males fall in this category.

There is much gender inequity in the case of job worth qualification. In the rural and urban areas, 83.0 per cent are doing jobs worth their qualification. But, 91.13 per cent females in the rural area and 93.54 per cent females in the urban area fall in this category.

4.3.4 Employed Women and Housework

The details regarding the persons who help the employed women in household activities are shown in Table 4.12. Men's lack of support for women results in a disproportionate share of responsibility of family care falling on women. The burden of nursing the aged and sick, duties of cooking, cleaning, washing, fetching water and nurturing children falls on the shoulders of women.

Table 4.12: Employed Women and Arrangement for Housework

Arrangements	Rural	Urban	Total
Spouse	10 (12.7)	1 (3.2)	11 (10.0)
Children	8 (10.1)	2 (6.5)	10 (9.1)
Servant	2 (2.5)	25 (80.6)	27 (24.5)
Other members	39 (49.4)	-	39 (35.5)
Nobody	20 (25.3)	3 (9.7)	23 (20.9)
Total	79 (100.0)	31 (100.0)	110 (100.0)

Note: Figures in Parentheses are percentages
Source: Survey

Servants help 80.6 per cent of the urban employed females in household activities followed by children (6.5 per cent). In the rural sample majority (49.4 per cent) gets help from other members and only 2.5 per cent have servants. Of the rural employed, 25.3 per cent and of the urban employed 9.7 per cent do all the household work themselves without help from anybody.

4.3.5 Equity in Employment

Classification of respondents by equity in employment given in Table 4.13 shows that majority of the respondents have no gender equity in all aspects of employment like salary, physical facilities, promotion chances, leisure, acquiring additional qualification and recognition at work.

Table 4.13: Classification of Respondents by Equity in Employment

Gender Equity	Rural			Urban			Total		
	Yes	No	Total	Yes	No	Total	Yes	No	Total
Salary	20 (25.3)	59 (74.7)	79 (100.0)	28 (90.3)	3 (9.7)	31 (100.0)	48 (43.6)	62 (56.4)	110 (100.0)
Physical facilities	19 (24.1)	60 (75.9)	79 (100.0)	29 (93.5)	2 (6.5)	31 (100.0)	48 (43.6)	62 (56.4)	110 (100.0)
Promotion chances	18 (22.8)	61 (77.2)	79 (100.0)	28 (90.3)	3 (9.7)	31 (100.0)	46 (41.8)	64 (58.2)	110 (100.0)
Leisure	18 (22.8)	61 (77.2)	79 (100.0)	27 (87.1)	4 (12.9)	31 (100.0)	45 (40.9)	65 (59.1)	110 (100.0)
Acquiring additional qualification	14 (17.7)	65 (82.3)	79 (100.0)	25 (80.6)	6 (19.4)	31 (100.0)	39 (35.5)	71 (64.5)	110 (100.0)
Recognition at work	17 (21.5)	62 (78.5)	79 (100.0)	24 (77.4)	7 (22.6)	31 (100.0)	41 (37.3)	69 (62.7)	110 (100.0)

Note: Figures in Parentheses are percentages
Source: Survey

Majority have gender equity in all these aspects in urban area compared to rural area. In rural area maximum gender equity is in salary (25.3 per cent) and in urban area the maximum gender equity is in physical facilities (93.5 per cent) enjoyed. In rural area, gender equity is least in the case of acquiring additional

qualification during employment (17.7 per cent) and in urban area gender equity is least in getting same recognition at work place (71.4 per cent).

4.3.6 Details of Unemployed Respondents

Both in the rural and urban sample, more unemployed males are interested to go for a job rather than unemployed females (Table 4.14). In the rural area there is only marginal difference in the proportion of males and females interested in employment. But in the urban area there is much gender gap. While 100.0 per cent unemployed males are interested in employment, only 47.72 unemployed females are interested in employment.

In the rural unemployed, 90.41 per cent of females compared to 69.23 per cent males and in the urban unemployed, 77.27 per cent of females compared to 66.66 per cent of males did not get unemployment benefits.

Table 4.14: Details of Unemployed Respondents

Selected variables	Rural		Urban		Total	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Interest in employment						
Interested	10 (76.92)	116 (79.45))	3 (100.0)	21 (47.72))	13 (81.25)	137 (72.10)
Not interested	3 (23.07)	30 (20.54))	-	23 (52.27)	3 (18.75)	53 (27.89)
Unemployment benefits						
Receives	4 (30.76)	14 (9.58)	1 (33.33)	10 (22.72)	5 (31.25)	24 (12.63)
Not receives	9 (69.23)	132 (90.41)	2 (66.66)	34 (77.27)	11 (68.75)	166 (87.36)
Difficulty to get money from spouse						
Difficult	1 (7.7)	121 (82.9)	-	14 (31.8)	1 (6.3)	135 (71.1)
Not difficult	12 (92.3)	25 (17.1)	3 (100.0)	30 (68.2)	15 (93.7)	55 (28.9)
Total	13 (100.0)	146 (100.0)	3 (100.0)	44 (100.0)	16 (100.0)	190 (100.0)

Note: Figures in Parentheses are percentages
Source: Survey

While males did not find it difficult to get money from spouse, both rural and urban females (82.9 per cent and 31.8 per cent respectively) find it very difficult to get money from spouse, for their personal needs.

4.4 Income, Saving and Asset Holding

Economic independence of women contributes much towards gender equity. Despite undertaking a heavier workload than men, women's income constitutes a small percentage compared to men. In our sample, while 68.2 per cent employed women earn less than Rs.5,000 as monthly income, only 53.2 per cent males belong to this category (Table 4.15). In all the other higher categories of income, males outnumber females, except in the category Rs.15,000 to Rs.20,000. There are no females in the rural area with a monthly income above Rs.20,000. In the urban area, the situation is better with 22.2 per cent males and 9.7 per cent females earning above Rs.20,000.

Table 4.15: Distribution of Employed Respondents by Monthly Income

Monthly Income (Rs.)	Rural		Urban		Total	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Below 5000	145 (68.4)	71 (89.9)	6 (8.3)	4 (12.9)	151 (53.2)	75 (68.2)
5000-10000	48 (22.6)	7 (8.9)	14 (19.4)	7 (22.6)	62 (21.8)	14 (12.7)
10000-15000	14 (6.6)	-	19 (26.4)	6 (19.4)	33 (11.6)	6 (5.5)
15000-20000	3 (1.4)	1 (1.3)	17 (23.6)	11 (35.5)	20 (7.0)	12 (10.9)
Above 20000	2 (.9)	-	16 (22.2)	3 (9.7)	18 (6.3)	3 (2.7)
Total	212 (100.)	79 (100.0)	72 (100.0)	31 (100.0)	284 (100.0)	110 (100.0)

Note: Figures in Parentheses are percentages
Source: Survey

There is disagreement in money matters between husband and wife in 36.4 per cent of the rural and 20.0 per cent of the urban households as per Table 4.16.

While 47.6 per cent of female respondents entrust the family income with spouse only 28.0 per cent of the urban respondents fall in this category.

Table 4.16: Distribution of Households by Disagreement in Money Matters and Entrusting Income with Spouse

	Rural	Urban	Total
Disagreement			
Yes	82 (36.4)	15 (20.0)	97 (32.3)
No	143 (63.6)	60 (80.0)	203 (67.7)
Entrusting income			
Entrust	107 (47.6)	21 (28.0)	128 (42.7)
Not Entrust	118 (52.4)	54 (72.0)	172 (57.3)
Total	225 (100.0)	75 (100.0)	300 (100.0)

Note: Figures in Parentheses are percentages
Source: Survey

Savings indicate economic well being which is a main indicator of equity. While 83.6 per cent males have savings, only 44.6 per cent females have savings as per Table 4.17. Saving habit is more among urban males and females (94.6per cent and 69.3 per cent respectively) compared to the rural males and females (80.0 per cent and 36.4 per cent respectively). The gender gap in savings is also less in the urban area.

While 89.0 per cent males have bank account, only 42.3 per cent females have the same. This gender disparity in bank account is true both in the rural and urban sample and the gender gap in bank account is more pronounced in the rural sample.

While 72.0 per cent males in rural area have self bank accounts only 19.1 per cent females in the rural area have the same. The situation is better in urban area where 93.3 per cent males and 65.3 per cent females have self bank accounts. Regarding joint accounts, there is not much gender difference in the rural sector,

but in the urban sector more females have joint accounts. While 81.8 per cent respondents in rural area think that their income is essential for the maintenance of the family, only 50.7 per cent urban female respondents fall in this category. In this case the rural-urban difference for males is marginal.

Table 4.17: Distribution of Respondents by Selected Variables Related to Saving

Selected Variables	Rural		Urban		Total	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Monthly Savings						
Save	180 (80.0)	82 (36.4)	71 (94.6)	52 (69.3)	251 (83.6)	134 (44.6)
Do not save	45 (20.0)	143 (63.6)	4 (5.4)	23 (30.7)	49 (16.4)	166 (55.4)
Bank Account						
Have Bank Account	191 (84.8)	70 (31.1)	75 (100.0)	57 (76.0)	266 (89.0)	127 (42.3)
Do not have Bank Account	34 (15.2)	155 (68.9)	-	18 (24.0)	34 (11.0)	173 (57.7)
Nature of Bank Account						
Self	162 (72.0)	43 (19.1)	70 (93.3)	49 (65.3)	232 (77.3)	92 (30.7)
Joint	29 (12.9)	27 (12.0)	5 (6.7)	8 (10.7)	34 (11.3)	35 (11.7)
Nil	34 (15.1)	155 (68.9)	-	18 (24.0)	34 (11.3)	173 (57.7)
Income Essential for Maintenance of Family						
Essential	217 (96.4)	184 (81.8)	74 (98.7)	38 (50.7)	291 (97.0)	222 (74.0)
Not essential	8 (3.6)	41 (18.2)	1 (1.3)	37 (49.3)	9 (3.0)	78 (26.0)
Total	225 (100.0)	225 (100.0)	75 (100.0)	75 (100.0)	300 (100.0)	300 (100.0)

Note: Figures in Parentheses are percentages
Source: Survey

Husbands own an overwhelming majority of houses, the percentage being 65.3 and 61.3 in rural and urban areas respectively (Table 4.18). Wife is the owner of 25.3 per cent of houses in urban area and 6.2 per cent houses in rural area. In rural area, parents own 20.0 per cent of houses since there are more joint families in rural area.

Table 4.18: Ownership of Houses

Ownership	Rural	Urban	Total
Husband	147 (65.3)	46 (61.3)	193 (64.3)
Wife	14 (6.2)	19 (25.3)	33 (11.0)
Both	19 (8.4)	7 (9.3)	26 (8.7)
Parents	45 (20.0)	3 (4.0)	48 (16.0)
Total	225 (100.0)	75 (100.0)	300 (100.0)

Note: Figures in Parentheses are percentages
Source: Survey

In both regions, ownership of property shows the male domination. This could be explained in terms of disappearance of the matrilineal practices and the rise in dowry system, where women are provided with dowry as their share in family property.

It is revealed from Table 4.19 that a significant proportion (59.7 per cent) of the females have no land of their own, while only 18.4 per cent males have no land. The gender difference is noticeable in the case of ownership of vehicles. Only a small per cent of females (7.0 per cent) own vehicles, while 43.6 per cent males own vehicles. The proportion is still low in rural area (2.2 per cent) compared to urban area (21.3 per cent) in the case of women.

Table 4.19: Distribution of Respondents by Asset Ownership

Ownership	Rural		Urban		Total	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Ownership of land						
Yes	174 (77.3)	72 (32.0)	71 (94.6)	49 (65.3)	245 (81.6)	121 (40.3)
No	51 (22.7)	153 (68.0)	4 (5.4)	26 (34.7)	55 (18.4)	179 (59.7)
Ownership of vehicle						
Yes	76 (33.7)	5 (2.2)	55 (73.3)	16 (21.3)	131 (43.6)	21 (7.0)
No	149 (66.3)	220 (97.8)	20 (26.7)	59 (78.7)	169 (56.4)	279 (93.0)
Total	225 (100.0)	225 (100.0)	75 (100.0)	75 (100.0)	300 (100.0)	300 (100.0)

Note: Figures in Parentheses are percentages
Source: Survey

4.5 Education

Difference in the male-female education profile is one of the different aspects of the broader phenomenon of gender-based inequality. At a very general level, the data on education favour the females.

The educational status of the respondents is reflected in Table 4.20. An important thing noted here is the presence of illiterate males and females in a state, which excels all other states in the country, in the matter of literacy.

In total sample, 13.3 per cent males and 7.0 per cent females are illiterate. Those who have reached up to Post Graduate (2.3 per cent males and 2.0 per cent females) seems to be very low. Technical education too has not attracted many especially females.

Table 4.20: Distribution of Respondents by Education

Education	Rural		Urban		Total	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Illiterate	38 (16.9)	21 (9.3)	2 (2.7)	-	40 (13.3)	21 (7.0)
LP	42 (18.7)	44 (19.6)	1 (1.3)	-	43 (14.3)	44 (14.7)
UP	29 (12.9)	40 (17.8)	1 (1.3)	4 (5.3)	30 (10.0)	44 (14.7)
HS	77 (34.2)	79 (35.1)	16 (21.3)	18 (24.0)	93 (31.0)	97 (32.3)
PDC	19 (8.4)	18 (8.0)	10 (13.3)	13 (17.3)	29 (9.7)	31 (10.3)
Degree	14 (6.2)	16 (7.1)	18 (24.0)	20 (26.7)	32 (10.7)	36 (12.0)
PG	-	1 (0.4)	7 (9.3)	5 (6.7)	7 (2.3)	6 (2.0)
Professional	5 (2.2)	6 (2.7)	18 (24.0)	15 (20.0)	23 (7.7)	21 (7.0)
Technical	1 (0.4)	-	2 (2.7)	-	3 (1.0)	-
Total	225 (100.0)	225 (100.0)	75 (100.0)	75 (100.0)	300 (100.0)	300 (100.0)

Note: Figures in Parentheses are percentages
Source: Survey

The demarcation or separation of gender identities in all aspects regarding education is revealed in Table 4.21. While majority of respondents are Malayalam medium educated, English medium educated males are greater than English medium educated females, both in rural and urban areas. When it comes to co-education, males outnumber females, whether it is rural or urban area.

Table 4.21: Distribution of Respondents by Selected Variables Related to Education

Selected Variables	Rural		Urban		Total	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Medium of Education						
English	5 (2.2)	3 (1.3)	14 (18.6)	5 (6.6)	19 (6.4)	8 (2.6)
Malayalam	220 (97.7)	222 (99.0)	61 (81.3)	70 (93.3)	28 (93.6)	292 (97.3)
Type of Education						
Co-Education	198 (88.0)	152 (67.5)	70 (93.3)	46 (61.3)	268 (89.3)	198 (66.0)
No	27 (12.0)	73 (32.5)	5 (6.7)	29 (38.7)	32 (10.7)	102 (34.0)
Stopping Education due to Family Problems						
Stopped	99 (44.0)	112 (49.7)	2 (2.6)	16 (21.3)	101 (33.7)	128 (42.7)
Not Stopped	126 (56.0)	113 (50.3)	73 (97.4)	59 (78.7)	199 (66.3)	172 (57.3)
Helping in Children's Education						
Help	19 (8.4)	151 (67.1)	23 (30.6)	66 (88.0)	42 (14.0)	217 (72.3)
Not Help	206 (91.6)	74 (32.9)	52 (69.4)	9 (12.0)	258 (86.0)	83 (27.7)
Total	225 (100.0)	225 (100.0)	75 (100.0)	75 (100.0)	300 (100.0)	300 (100.0)

Note: Figures in Parentheses are percentages
Source: Survey

Family problems affected the studies of both males and females more in rural area than in the urban area. Here also females (42.7 per cent) are more affected than males (34.0 per cent). Men are minimally involved in the studies of their children and only 8.4 per cent rural males help their children in their studies. The percentage is higher in the case of urban males (30.6). But, 67.1 per cent of

rural females and 88.0 per cent of urban females help their children in their studies.

Gender Equity in Education

Gender equity in education is examined in Table 4.22. Opportunity provided, encouragement received, family problems affecting studies, gender equity experienced in school, participation in cultural activities, expenditure on education and facilities provided are considered here. In the total sample, only 32.7 per cent had equal chances and equal encouragement from their parents in education. Family problems affected the studies of girls than boys in 71.3 per cent households. In schools and colleges, 95.3 per cent did not experience gender equity. Compared to boys, 75.0 per cent girls did not actively participate in sports and cultural activities. Same education expenditure for their son and daughter is not incurred by 66.7 per cent of parents. Equal facilities for education for their son and daughter are provided by 45.7 per cent of parents. Considering these factors, urban area is better, as regards equity in education, when compared to rural area.

Table 4.22: Classification of Respondents by Equity in Education

Gender Equity	Rural			Urban			Total		
	Yes	No	Total	Yes	No	Total	Yes	No	Total
Opportunity	58 (25.8)	167 (74.2)	225 (100.0)	40 (53.3)	35 (46.7)	75 (100.0)	98 (32.7)	202 (62.7)	300 (100.0)
Encouragement	57 (25.3)	168 (74.7)	225 (100.0)	41 (54.7)	34 (45.3)	75 (100.0)	98 (32.7)	202 (62.7)	300 (100.0)
Family problems affecting studies	48 (21.3)	177 (78.7)	225 (100.0)	38 (50.7)	37 (49.3)	75 (100.0)	86 (28.7)	214 (71.3)	300 (100.0)
In school	11 (4.9)	214 (95.1)	225 (100.0)	3 (4.0)	72 (96.0)	75 (100.0)	14 (4.7)	286 (95.3)	300 (100.0)
Cultural activities	44 (19.6)	181 (80.4)	225 (100.0)	31 (41.3)	44 (58.7)	75 (100.0)	75 (25.0)	225 (75.0)	300 (100.0)
Expenditure	60 (26.7)	165 (73.3)	225 (100.0)	40 (53.3)	35 (46.7)	75 (100.0)	100 (33.3)	200 (66.7)	300 (100.0)
Facilities	93 (41.3)	132 (58.7)	225 (100.0)	44 (58.7)	31 (41.3)	75 (100.0)	137 (45.7)	163 (54.3)	300 (100.0)

Note: Figures in Parentheses are percentages
Source: Survey

4.6 Marriage and Family Life

Information on age at first marriage is provided in Table 4.23. The Child Marriage Restraint Act of 1978 fixed the minimum age at marriage for women in India as 18 years and for men in India as 21 years. But, data show that girls and boys, who are getting married before the legal minimum age, are not still uncommon both in rural and urban areas of Kerala. However, very early ages of marriage are relatively rare. In rural and urban areas, 14.5 per cent and 8.0 per cent females respectively got married before the age of 18. In the case of males, 3.0 per cent got married below the legally prescribed age of 21, with 3.5 per cent in rural area and 1.3 per cent in urban area. Majority of females (40.3 per cent) got married between the age of 21 and 25 and majority of males (45.3 per cent) got married between the age of 26 and 30.

Table 4.23: Distribution of Respondents According to Age of Marriage

Age	Rural		Urban		Total	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Below 18	-	33 (14.5)	-	6 (8.0)	-	39 (13.0)
18 –20	8 (3.5)	101 (44.9)	1 (1.3)	14 (18.6)	9 (3.0)	115 (38.3)
21-25	94 (41.7)	78 (34.1)	11 (4.6)	43 (57.3)	105 (35.2)	121 (40.3)
26-30	90 (40.0)	12 (5.4)	46 (61.8)	12 (6.0)	136 (45.3)	24 (8.0)
31-35	30 (13.3)	1 (.4)	16 (21.3)	-	46 (15.4)	1 (.3)
36-40	3 (1.3)	-	1 (1.3)	-	4 (1.3)	-
Total	225 (100.0)	225 (100.0)	75 (100.0)	75 (100.0)	300 (100.0)	300 (100.0)

Note: Figures in Parentheses are percentages
Source: Survey

In the rural households, 80.4 per cent and in the urban households 74.7 per cent are satisfied with their family life (Table 4.24). So better living conditions in the urban area is not a pre condition for a better family life. When there is family problems majority of the rural respondents (35.1 per cent) first approach their

parents but majority of the urban respondents (73.3 per cent) discuss it with their spouse. In the urban area only 1.3 per cent approach their parents. This may be because in the urban area there are more nuclear families.

Table 4.24: Distribution of Respondents by Variables Related to Family Life

Selected Variables	Rural	Urban	Total
Satisfaction			
Satisfied	181 (80.4)	56 (74.7)	237 (79.0)
Not Satisfied	44 (19.6)	19 (25.3)	63 (21.0)
Approaches with Family Problems			
Parents	79 (35.1)	1 (1.3)	80 (26.7)
Spouse	75 (33.3)	55 (73.3)	130 (43.3)
Other family members	52 (23.1)	5 (6.7)	57 (19.0)
Friends	19 (8.4)	14 (18.7)	33 (11.0)
Total	225 (100.0)	75 (100.0)	300 (100.0)

Note: Figures in Parentheses are percentages
Source: Survey

4.6.1 Preference for Marriage and Education

The data provided in Table 4.25 suggest that educational aspirations of parents for girl children are very low in Kerala. In the total sample, only 17.0 per cent households preferred education than marriage for their daughter.

Table 4.25: Distribution of Respondents by Preference for Marriage and Education

Preference	Rural	Urban	Total
Prefer Education	21 (9.3)	30 (40.0)	51 (17.0)
Prefer Marriage	204 (90.7)	45 (60.0)	249 (83.0)
Total	225 (100.0)	75 (100.0)	300 (100.0)

Note: Figures in Parentheses are percentages
Source: Survey

In the urban area while 40.0 per cent preferred education, in the rural area only 9.3 per cent preferred it. Thus, the urban households give more importance to female education than the rural households.

4.6.2 Attitude Towards Dowry

The respondents' views about the dowry system are given in Table 4.26. In the sample, more males (71.3 per cent) support dowry system than females (48.0). In the urban sample only less males and females support dowry system (45.3 per cent and 41.3 per cent respectively) when compared to rural sample (80.0 per cent and 50.2 per cent respectively). While 87.0 per cent males contributed to their own marriage, only 5.7 per cent females contributed to their own marriage.

Table 4.26: Distribution of Respondents According to Supporting Dowry System

Selected Variables	Rural		Urban		Total	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Supporting dowry system						
Support	180 (80.0)	113 (50.2)	34 (45.3)	31 (41.3)	214 (71.3)	144 (48.0)
Do Not support	45 (20.0)	112 (49.8)	41 (54.7)	44 (58.7)	86 (28.7)	156 (52.0)
Contribution to own marriage						
Contributed	190 (84.4)	16 (7.1)	71 (94.7)	1 (1.3)	261 (87.0)	17 (5.7)
Not contributed	35 (15.6)	209 (92.9)	4 (5.3)	74 (98.7)	39 (13.0)	283 (94.3)
Total	225 (100.0)	225 (100.0)	75 (100.0)	75 (100.0)	300 (100.0)	300 (100.0)

Note: Figures in Parentheses are percentages
Source: Survey

Majority of female respondents (82.7 per cent) received dowry from their parents as revealed from Table 4.27. This is higher in rural area (85.8 per cent) than in urban area (73.3 per cent). In rural area, 92.0 per cent are willing to give dowry and 80.4 per cent are willing to take dowry, while only 77.3 per cent are willing to give dowry and 69.3 per cent are willing to take dowry in urban area.

Table 4.27: Classification of Respondents By Attitude Towards Dowry

Attitude	Rural			Urban			Total		
	Yes	No	Total	Yes	No	Total	Yes	No	Total
Parents given dowry	193 (85.8)	32 (14.2)	225 (100.0)	55 (73.3)	20 (26.7)	75 (100.0)	248 (82.7)	52 (17.3)	300 (100.0)
Willing to give dowry	207 (92.0)	18 (8.0)	225 (100.0)	58 (77.3)	17 (22.7)	75 (100.0)	265 (88.3)	35 (11.7)	300 (100.0)
Willing to take dowry	181 (80.4)	44 (19.6)	225 (100.0)	52 (69.3)	23 (30.7)	75 (100.0)	233 (77.7)	67 (22.3)	300 (100.0)

Note: Figures in Parentheses are percentages
Source: Survey

4.7 Health

Health is an important indicator of male and female social status. Gender discrimination prevails in intra-household allocation of resources such as food and health care. Due to differentiation in access to education, employment, income and expenditure, women posses less opportunity to enjoy good health.

In the rural sample, more females (5.3 per cent) are mentally or physically handicapped than males (4.9 per cent) as per Table 4.28. In the urban sample, there is no gender difference in this regard.

There is much gender inequity in adopting family planning measures. The onus of birth control is mainly on women, when men are equally responsible for reproduction. In total, rural and urban samples, more females have adopted family planning measures than males. In urban area, while 80.0 per cent females adopted family planning measures, only 8.0 per cent males adopted it showing a high level of gender inequity. These percentages are 77.3 and 10.7 respectively for females and males in rural area.

Males and females having permanent health problems are almost equal in the total sample. In rural area females (18.2 per cent) outnumber males (14.7 per

cent) and in urban area males (30.7 per cent) outnumber females (17.3 per cent) in this matter.

Table 4.28: Distribution of Respondents by Selected Variables Related to Health

Selected Variables	Rural		Urban		Total	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Mental or physical handicap						
Handicapped	11 (4.9)	12 (5.3)	3 (4.0)	3 (4.0)	14 (4.7)	15 (5.0)
Not handicapped	214 (95.1)	213 (94.7)	72 (96.0)	72 (96.0)	286 (95.3)	285 (95.0)
Family planning measures						
Yes	24 (10.7)	174 (77.3)	6 (8.0)	60 (80.0)	30 (10.0)	234 (78.0)
No	201 (89.3)	51 (22.7)	69 (92.0)	15 (20.0)	270 (90.0)	66 (22.0)
Permanent health problems						
Yes	33 (14.7)	41 (18.2)	23 (30.7)	13 (17.3)	56 (18.7)	54 (18.0)
No	192 (85.3)	184 (81.8)	52 (69.3)	62 (82.7)	244 (81.3)	246 (82.0)
Doing exercise or yoga						
Yes	69 (30.7)	12 (5.3)	31 (41.3)	15 (20.0)	100 (33.3)	27 (9.0)
No	156 (69.3)	213 (94.7)	44 (58.7)	60 (80.0)	200 (66.7)	273 (91.0)
Total	225 (100.0)	225 (100.0)	75 (100.0)	75 (100.0)	300 (100.0)	300 (100.0)

Note: Figures in Parentheses are percentages
Source: Survey

In the total sample, only 33.3 per cent males and 9.0 per cent females take regular exercise. Only less rural males (30.7 per cent) and females (5.3 per cent) take regular exercise compared to urban males (41.3 per cent) and females (20.0 per cent). Females are far behind males in taking exercise but there is more equity in urban area in this matter.

Gender Equity in Health

Gender equity in different aspects of health is shown in Table 4.29. In the total sample, 77.0 per cent female members get same health care as male

members. In the sample households, 83.0 per cent females when compared to males take enough food. In the total sample, 74.3 per cent females are as energetic as other male members in the family. Of the total female respondents, 66.7 per cent take nutritious food and health tonics taken by other male members in the family.

Table 4.29: Classification of Respondents by Equity in Health

Gender Equality	Rural			Urban			Area		
	Yes	No	Total	Yes	No	Total	Yes	No	Total
Health Care	160 (71.1)	65 (28.9)	225 (100.0)	71 (94.7)	4 (5.3)	75 (100.0)	231 (77.0)	69 (23.0)	300 (100.0)
Taking Food	176 (78.2)	49 (21.8)	225 (100.0)	73 (97.3)	2 (2.7)	75 (100.0)	249 (83.0)	51 (17.0)	300 (100.0)
Energy	166 (73.8)	59 (26.2)	225 (100.0)	57 (76.0)	18 (24.0)	75 (100.0)	223 (74.3)	77 (25.7)	300 (100.0)
Tonics	130 (57.8)	95 (42.2)	225 (100.0)	70 (93.3)	5 (6.7)	75 (100.0)	200 (66.7)	100 (33.3)	300 (100.0)
Immuni-sation	200 (88.9)	25 (11.1)	225 (100.0)	75 (100.0)	-	75 (100.0)	275 (91.7)	25 (8.3)	300 (100.0)
Method of treatment	179 (79.6)	46 (20.4)	225 (100.0)	74 (98.7)	1 (1.3)	75 (100.0)	253 (84.3)	47 (15.7)	300 (100.0)
Medical check up	164 (72.9)	61 (27.1)	225 (100.0)	71 (94.7)	4 (5.3)	75 (100.0)	235 (78.3)	65 (21.7)	300 (100.0)

Note: Figures in Parentheses are percentages
Source: Survey

Immunisation for both son and daughter is given by 91.7 per cent parents. The method of treatment is same for 84.3 per cent of husbands and wives. Majority of wives (78.3 per cent) go for medical check up as frequently as their husbands. As regards all the above factors, urban area is ahead of rural area. Thus there is more gender equity in health in the urban area compared to the rural area.

4.8 Communication and Social Life

Information on exposure to different television programmes is given in Table 4.30. Present day television serials and cinema do not portray self-confident forward-looking women. Majority of the respondents (60.7 per cent) are interested in viewing serials in television. This is true in the rural (57.8 per cent) and urban

(69.3 per cent) area, the percentage being higher in the urban area. The second place goes to cinema (30.7 per cent) and the last place goes to news and other educative programmes (8.0 per cent). Only 0.3 per cent are not exposed to television and cent per cent urban respondents are viewers of television.

Table 4.30: Distribution of Respondents by Type of Programme Viewed in Television

Type of Programmes	Rural	Urban	Total
News	17 (7.6)	7 (9.3)	24 (8.0)
Cinema	76 (33.8)	16 (21.3)	92 (30.7)
Serial	130 (57.8)	52 (69.3)	182 (60.7)
Nothing	2 (0.9)	-	2 (0.7)
Total	225 (100.0)	75 (100.0)	300 (100.0)

Note: Figures in Parentheses are percentages
Source: Survey

More males than females (97.3 per cent and 94.2 per cent respectively) have good relationship with neighbours in the rural sample (Table 4.31). In the urban area, 93.3 per cent males and 94.7 per cent males have good relationship with neighbours.

There is much gender difference in encouraging enhanced role of women in social activities. More females (41.0 per cent) than males (33.7 per cent) encourage enhanced role of women in social activities. Males and females encouraging women in social activities (24.0 per cent and 28.9 per cent respectively) are less in rural area compared to urban area (62.7 per cent and 77.3 per cent respectively). In urban area, all males and females did not justify portraying women in bad lights. In the rural sample 5.3 per cent males and 1.3 per cent females justify this.

Only 30.0 per cent males and 17.0 per cent females are members in social organisations. Males and females who are members in social organisations are 26.7 per cent and 16.0 per cent in the urban area and 40.0 per cent and 20.0 per cent in the rural area respectively. Thus, only a small percentage of females compared to males are members in social organisations both in rural and urban areas.

Table 4.31: Distribution of Respondents by Variables Related to Social Life

Selected Variables	Rural		Urban		Total	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Relationship with neighbours						
Good	219 (97.3)	212 (94.2)	70 (93.3)	71 (94.7)	289 (96.3)	283 (94.3)
Bad	6 (2.7)	13 (5.8)	5 (6.7)	4 (5.3)	11 (3.7)	17 (5.7)
Role of women in social activities						
Encourages	54 (24.0)	65 (28.9)	47 (62.7)	58 (77.3)	101 (33.7)	123 (41.0)
Not encourages	171 (76.)	160 (71.1)	28 (37.3)	17 (22.7)	199 (66.3)	177 (59.0)
View on portraying women in bad lights						
Justified	12 (5.3)	3 (1.3)	-	-	12 (4.0)	3 (1.0)
Not justified	213 (94.0)	222 (98.7)	75 (100.0)	75 (100.0)	288 (96.0)	297 (99.0)
Membership in social organisations						
Member	60 (26.7)	36 (16.0)	30 (40.0)	15 (20.0)	90 (30.0)	51 (17.0)
Not member	165 (73.3)	189 (84.0)	45 (60.0)	60 (80.0)	210 (70.0)	249 (83.0)
Membership in library						
Member	30 (13.3)	33 (14.7)	26 (34.7)	21 (28.0)	56 (18.7)	54 (18.0)
Not member	195 (86.7)	192 (85.3)	49 (65.3)	54 (72.0)	244 (81.3)	246 (82.0)
Total	225 (100.0)	225 (100.0)	75 (100.0)	75 (100.0)	300 (100.0)	300 (100.0)

Note: Figures in Parentheses are percentages
Source: Survey

Without any gender difference very few of the sample population (18.0 per cent) have membership in any library. More persons in rural area are library

members compared to urban area and rural females (14.7 per cent) outnumber males (13.3 per cent) in this matter. Awareness of respondents about social welfare departments is explained in Table 4.32. Only 38.0 per cent of the total, 31.1 per cent of the rural, 58.7 per cent of the urban respondents are aware of social welfare departments. So the situation is somewhat better in urban area.

Table 4.32: Distribution of Population According to Awareness of Social Welfare Departments

Awareness	Rural	Urban	Total
Aware	70 (31.1)	44 (58.7)	114 (38.0)
Not Aware	155 (68.9)	31 (41.3)	186 (62.0)
Total	225 (100.0)	75 (100.0)	300 (100.0)

Note: Figures in Parentheses are percentages
Source: Survey

Gender equity in social life is discussed in Table 4.33. Only 9.0 per cent have the same role expectations for their male and female children. Only few of the female respondents (5.0 per cent) get the same encouragement as got by their husbands from their family members to participate in social life.

Table 4.33: Distribution of Respondents by Equity in Communication and Social Life

Gender Equity	Rural			Urban			Total		
	Yes	No	Total	Yes	No	Total	Yes	No	Total
Role expectation	12 (5.3)	213 (94.7)	225 (100.0)	15 (20.0)	60 (80.0)	75 (100.0)	27 (9.0)	273 (91.0)	300 (100.0)
Encouragement for social life	10 (4.4)	215 (95,6)	225 (100.0)	5 (6.7)	70 (93.3)	75 (100.0)	15 (5.0)	285 (95.0)	300 (100.0)
Reading	82 (36.4)	143 (63.5)	225 (100.0)	35 (46.7)	40 (53.3)	75 (100.0)	117 (39.00	183 (61.0)	300 (100.0)
Treatment of society	6 (2.7)	219 (97.3)	225 (100.0)	2 (2.7)	73 (97.3)	75 (100.0)	8 (2.7)	292 (97.3)	300 (100.0)
Social relations	16 (7.1)	209 (92.8)	225 (100.0)	10 (13.3)	65 (86.7)	75 (100.0)	26 (8.7)	274 (91.3)	300 (100.0)
Spatial mobility	3 (1.3)	222 (98.6)	225 (100.0)	4 (5.3)	71 (94.7)	75 (100.0)	7 (2.3)	293 (97.7)	300 (100.0)
Treating son and daughter	48 (21.3)	177 (78.6)	225 (100.0)	30 (40.0)	45 (60.0)	75 (100.0)	78 (26.0)	222 (74.0)	300 (100.0)

Note: Figures in Parentheses are percentages
Source: Survey

Among the female respondents, 39.0 per cent read newspapers and magazines as regularly as their husband. Both in rural and urban areas, only 2.7 per cent female respondents believe that society is treating them as fairly as they treat the opposite gender. Only 8.7 per cent have the same social relations as their husband.

In terms of spatial mobility, the attitude of society is to put a lot of restrictions on women. So females, in general, end up with very limited social and cultural opportunities and that will definitely act to restrict their personal traits and competence. Same spatial mobility as their male counterparts is enjoyed by only 2.3 per cent of female respondents. Only 26.0 per cent treat their son and daughter equally. In all these matters rural percentage is still low and urban percentage is slightly higher than the total percentage.

4.9 Decision Making

Women do not play any active role in the decision making process, be in the public or in the family. Female participation in decision-making process of organisations is very low (10.7 per cent) especially in urban area (8.0 per cent), when compared to rural area (11.6 per cent) as per Table 4.34. Males who participate in decision making process of organisations in total, rural and urban sample are 22.7 per cent, 20.9 per cent and 28.0 per cent respectively.

While 96.7 per cent males have the ability to take independent decisions in issues, only 13.0 per cent females have this ability. In the rural area, persons taking independent decisions are less among males (96.0 per cent) and females (8.4 per cent) compared to urban males (98.7 per cent) and females (26.7 per cent). Urban population has more equity in this case.

Table 4.34: Distribution of Respondents by Variables Related to Decision-making

Selected Variables	Rural		Urban		Total	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Decision making in organisations						
Participates	47 (20.9)	26 (11.6)	21 (28,0)	6 (8.0)	68 (22.7)	32 (10.7)
Not participates	178 (79.1)	199 (88.4)	54 (72.0)	69 (92.0)	232 (77.3)	268 (89.3)
Taking independent decision in issues						
Able	216 (96.)	19 (8.4)	74 (98.7)	20 (26.7)	290 (96.7)	39 (13.0)
Not able	9 (4.0)	206 (91.6)	1 (1.3)	55 (73.3)	10 (3.3)	261 (87.0)
Decision making power in voting						
Yes	221 (98.0)	165 (73.3)	75 (100.0)	69 (92.0)	296 (98.7)	234 (78.0)
No	4 (1.8)	60 (26.7)	-	6 (8.0)	4 (1.3)	66 (22.0)
Total	225 (100.0)	225 (100.0)	75 (100.0)	75 (100.0)	300 (100.0)	300 (100.0)

Note: Figures in parentheses are percentages
Source: Survey

In the total sample, 78.0 per cent of female respondents and 98.7 per cent of male respondents are voting as per their own decisions. This shows that decision in exercising the political right of voting is still regarded as a male reserve for some females. Here also, urban area has more equity with cent per cent males and 92.0 per cent females taking independent decision in exercising their voting power, compared to rural area, where only 98.2 per cent males and 73.3 per cent females take independent decision in this regard.

Decision-making in the family is a critical element in the status of family members, since it involves the allocation of resources and the distribution of roles within the family. The extent of decision making power by respondents is presented in Table 4.35.

It is inferred from the table that with respect to family budget 52.0 per cent females have same decision-making power as their husband. Again 52.7 per cent

wives are equally involved in decision-making with their husbands regarding rearing children like schooling, career and marriage. Decisions regarding number and age difference of children and sterilization are made jointly by 51.7 per cent. Decisions regarding purchase of real estate and durable assets are taken equally with their husbands only by 33.3 per cent of females.

Table 4.35: Classification of Respondents by Equity in Decision-Making

Gender Equity	Rural			Urban			Total		
	Yes	No	Total	Yes	No	Total	Yes	No	Total
Family budget	96 (42.7)	129 (57.3)	225 (100.0)	60 (80.0)	15 (20.0)	75 (100.0)	156 (52.0)	144 (48.0)	300 (100.0)
Schooling, career and marriage of children	98 (43.6)	127 (53.8)	225 (100.0)	60 (80.0)	15 (20.0)	75 (100.0)	158 (52.7)	142 (47.3)	300 (100.0)
Number and age gap of children	89 (39.6)	136 (60.4)	225 (100.0)	66 (88.0)	9 (12.0)	75 (100.0)	155 (51.7)	145 (48.3)	300 (100.0)
Purchase of assets and durables	53 (23.6)	172 (76.4)	225 (100.0)	47 (88.0)	28 (37.3)	75 (100.0)	100 (33.3)	200 (66.6)	300 (100.0)
Savings and investment	51 (22.7)	174 (77.3)	225 (100.0)	47 (62.7)	28 (37.3)	75 (100.0)	98 (32.7)	202 (67.3)	300 (100.0)
Selecting spouse	36 (16.0)	189 (84.0)	225 (100.0)	16 (21.3)	59 (78.6)	75 (100.0)	52 (17.3)	248 (82.6)	300 (100.0)

Note: Figures in Parentheses are percentages
Source: Survey

Savings and investments decisions are taken jointly by 32.7 per cent of couples. This clearly indicates that, though there is some change in decision-making power, men come to hold more authority in decision-making with respect to financial matters. This can be best interpreted in terms of the prevailing norms, which hold men as mostly responsible for finance of the family. Only 17.3 per cent females have the same decision-making power as their brothers in selecting their spouse. There are sharp differences by residence in the proportion of men and women participating equally in the different types of decisions. In all the spheres except selecting their spouse the percentages in urban area is more than double compared to that in rural area. As regards selecting their spouse gender equity was enjoyed only by 16.0 per cent and 21.3 per cent of female respondents in rural and

urban samples. This may be because, in Kerala, where marriage continues to be a commercial deal, exclusively within a person's caste and religion, individuals are not expected to choose their life partners.

4.10 Atrocities Against Women

There is a culture of silence surrounding the topic of atrocities faced by women that makes the collection of data on this sensitive topic particularly difficult. Every woman, who wants to speak about her experience of atrocities, may find it difficult because of feeling of shame or fear.

The different types of atrocities faced by women are presented in Table 4.36. In the total sample, 72.0 per cent female respondents opined that women receive same respect and justice as men from the society. In rural and urban areas, 63.1 per cent and 98.7 per cent of the females have the same opinion. Only 54.0 per cent are able to discuss about their sexual issues frankly with their partner and get co-operation. In the rural, urban and total respondents, 61.8 per cent, 93.3 per cent and 69.7 per cent respectively agree to the suggestion that it needs mental preparation for women in the matter of conceiving and delivery. Of the total respondents, 60.0 per cent are of the view that women and men involved in sex work should be equally treated and punished. More urban respondents (93.3 per cent) than rural respondents (48.9 per cent) are of this view. Others believe that men can be excused.

Though 74.0 per cent do not have the feeling that men will attack them, 26.0 per cent of the respondents fears attack by men, mentioning that they used to hear that such atrocities are increasing now a days. This fear is high for the urban respondents (34.7 per cent) compared to the rural respondents (23.1 per cent).

Table 4.36: Distribution of Respondents by Selected Variables Related to Atrocities Against Women

Selected Variables	Rural		Urban		Total	
Women getting justice and respect as men						
Gets	142	(63.1)	74	(98.7)	216	(72.0)
Not gets	83	(36.9)	1	(1.3)	84	(28.0)
Discusses sexual issues frankly						
Discusses	102	(45.3)	60	(80.0)	162	(54.0)
Not Discusses	123	(54.7)	15	(20.0)	138	(46.0)
Mental preparation for conceiving and delivery						
Needed	139	(61.8)	70	(93.3)	209	(69.7)
Not needed	86	(38.2)	5	(6.7)	91	(30.3)
Treatment towards women and men engaged in sex work						
Equal	110	(48.9)	70	(93.3)	180	(60.0)
Not equal	115	(51.1)	5	(6.7)	120	(40.0)
Feeling of attack by men at any time						
Yes	52	(23.1)	26	(34.7)	78	(26.0)
No	173	(76.9)	49	(65.3)	222	(74.0)
Security in society						
Increased	97	(43.1)	11	(14.7)	108	(36.0)
Not increased	128	(56.9)	64	(85.3)	192	(64.0)
Worry about critical life situations						
Worried	106	(47.1)	36	(48.0)	142	(47.3)
Not worried	119	(52.9)	39	(52.0)	158	(52.7)
Preventing physical attack						
Can prevent	24	(10.7)	1	(1.3)	25	(8.3)
Can not prevent	201	(89.3)	74	(98.7)	275	(91.7)
Scare in telling issues with public						
Sacred	207	(92.0)	59	(78.7)	266	(88.7)
Not scared	18	(8.0)	16	(21.3)	34	(11.3)
Scare in travelling during night						
Sacred	222	(98.7)	73	(97.3)	295	(98.3)
Not scared	3	(1.3)	2	(2.7)	5	(1.7)
Existing legal system						
Sufficient	36	(16.0)	6	(8.0)	42	(14.0)
Not sufficient	189	(84.0)	69	(92.0)	258	(86.0)
Harassment is a fate						
Yes	48	(21.3)	12	(16.0)	60	(20.0)
No	177	(78.7)	63	(84.0)	240	(80.0)
Bearing tensions						
Duty	47	(20.9)	12	(16.0)	59	(19.7)
Not duty	178	(79.1)	63	(84.0)	241	(80.3)
Total	225	(100.0)	75	(100.0)	110	(100.0)

Note: Figures in Parentheses are percentages
Source: Survey

It is believed by 36.0 per cent respondents that security is increasing in our society. While 43.1 per cent of the rural respondents are of this view, only 14.7 per cent of the urban respondents agree with this.

Almost 48.0 per cent of the rural, urban and total population is worried about critical life situations like disease and aging. Only 8.3 per cent of the respondents have a feeling that they can physically prevent the attack from others. While 10.7 per cent of rural sample have this courage, only 1.3 per cent of urban females have this. Out of the female respondents, 88.7 per cent are scared about discussing the issues that they face. In the rural area, 92.0 per cent and in the urban area, 78.7 per cent females are scared in this regard.

Almost 98 per cent of the respondents without any rural- urban difference are scared of travelling alone during night. Only 14.0 per cent of the respondents think that the existing legal system is sufficient to secure them from atrocities. This percentage is 8.0 in urban and 16.0 in rural areas.

While facing harassment and violence, only 20.0 per cent of the female respondents think that it is their fate. While 21.3 per cent of the rural respondents agree with this view, only 16.0 per cent of urban respondents agree with this. In the total sample, 80.3 per cent of the respondents go against the common notion that it is the duty of women to bear tensions. Females who think that it is duty of women to bear tensions is less in urban area (16.0 per cent) compared to rural area (20.9 per cent).

In the case of atrocities faced by women, there is not much rural-urban difference and in some aspects urban females are more affected compared to rural females (Table 4.37).

Table 4.37: Classification of Respondents by Atrocities Faced

Atrocities	Rural			Urban			Total		
	Yes	No	Total	Yes	No	Total	Yes	No	Total
Atrocities from men	145 (64.4)	80 (35.6)	225 (100.0)	55 (73.3)	20 (26.7)	75 (100.0)	200 (66.7)	100 (33.3)	300 (100.0)
Atrocities during journeys	188 (83.6)	37 (16.4)	225 (100.0)	65 (86.7)	10 (13.3)	75 (100.0)	253 (84.3)	47 (15.7)	300 (100.0)
Dowry related harassment	143 (63.6)	82 (26.4)	225 (100.0)	24 (32.0)	51 (68.0)	75 (100.0)	167 (55.7)	133 (44.3)	300 (100.0)
Sexual harassment	222 (98.7)	3 (1.3)	225 (100.0)	74 (98.7)	1 (1.3)	75 (100.0)	296 (98.7)	4 (1.3)	300 (100.0)
Harassment from in-laws	172 (76.4)	53 (23.6)	225 (100.0)	56 (74.7)	19 (25.3)	75 (100.0)	228 (76.0)	72 (24.0)	300 (100.0)
Marital rape	28 (12.4)	197 (87.6)	225 (100.0)	12 (16.0)	63 84.0)	75 (100.0)	40 (13.3)	260 (86.7)	300 (100.0)
Domestic violence	52 (23.1)	173 (76.9)	225 (100.0)	10 (13.3)	65 (86.7)	75 (100.0)	62 (20.7)	238 (79.3)	300 (100.0)

Note: Figures in Parentheses are percentages
Source: Survey

Some kind of atrocities have been experienced by 64.4 per cent of rural and 73.3 per cent of urban women. In the total sample, they are 66.7 per cent. In the urban area, 86.7 per cent and in the rural area 83.6 per cent women have experienced some atrocities during journeys. Regarding dowry related harassment rural women (63.6 per cent) are more affected than urban women (32.0 per cent). Majority of rural and urban women (98.7 per cent) had either physical or verbal sexual harassment. In the rural and urban areas, 76.4 and 74.7 per cent females respectively have faced harassment from in-laws. More urban women (16.0 per cent) have experienced marital rape compared to their rural (12.4 per cent) counterparts. As regards domestic violence urban women (13.3 per cent) are in a better position when compared to rural women (23.1 per cent). In the total sample, except in the case of marital rape and domestic violence, 55.0 per cent to 98.0 per cent women are facing harassment or atrocities.

It is astonishing to note that no man in the sample had ever experienced any sexual atrocities or harassment in their life as per the details collected.

4.11 Conclusion

Nowhere the gender differences in the status and role have been so much sharp as in the sphere of family life. Family in Kerala is still restrictive on their women like in other parts in India. The data gathered from both rural and urban areas only substantiate this reality without much variation. Modern urban families are a little bit more egalitarian.

There is acute gender inequity in employment both in rural and urban areas with a very low level of female employment. The gender gap in employment is marginally less in urban area compared to rural area. While majority of males and females work as coolie in the rural sector, majority in urban area are employed in service sector. Females who reside far away from work place are less when compared to males without any rural-urban difference. More males are doing additional jobs compared to females both in rural and urban areas. In the rural area, majority of the respondents have no gender equity in salary, physical facility, promotion chances, leisure, acquiring additional qualification and recognition at work. Majority enjoy gender equity in all these aspects in the urban area. More males receive unemployment benefit and gender gap is less in urban area in this regard. Majority of unemployed female respondents find it difficult to get money from their spouse unlike the unemployed male respondents. This situation is very common in rural area compared to urban area.

There is much gender inequity in monthly savings and bank account. Husband is the house owner in majority of households both in the rural and urban areas. Ownership of property also shows male domination in both regions.

In co-education, males outnumber females. Education of females is more affected by family problems. Majority of parents prefer marriage than education for their daughters. There is no gender equity in opportunities provided and encouragement given for education, in cultural activities, in expenditure incurred

and facilities provided for education. But, urban area is better than rural area in all the above aspects of education.

More males than females support dowry system. Majority of the female respondents have received dowry from their parents and they are willing to give and take dowry for their children. There is much gender inequity in adopting family planning, the responsibility of birth control falling mainly on women. Compared to other variables, majority enjoy gender equity in health both in rural and urban areas, urban area being better compared to rural area. There is cent per cent gender equity in immunisation in the urban area.

More females than males encourage enhanced role of women in social activities. Both in rural and urban areas, only less females compared to males are members in social organisations. Without any gender difference, a very few are members in any library. Both in rural and urban areas, gender equity is less in role expectation, encouragement in social life, reading habits, treatment from society, social relations, spatial mobility and treating own children.

Female participation in decision making process of organisations is very low both in rural and urban areas. Majority of females are not able to take independent decisions in the issues they face. Even in exercising voting power, female decisions are controlled by males. In rural area, less than half of sample have equal decision making power with their spouse in family budget, schooling career and marriage of children, number and age gap of children, purchase of assets or durables, savings and investment. In urban area, majority enjoy decision making power in all the above matters. Both in the rural and urban areas, only a very few females have equal decision making power in selecting the spouse.

In the case of atrocities faced, there is not much rural-urban difference and in some respects like atrocities from men, atrocities during journeys and marital

rape urban females are more affected than rural females. In facing physical or verbal sexual harassment and harassment from in-laws, there is no rural-urban difference. Dowry related harassment and domestic violence are more in rural than in urban area.

Thus, socio-economic factors are playing a crucial role in the discriminating construction of gender. Since the socio-economic realities are gender oppressive, women's status is subordinate in Kerala.

RURAL-URBAN VARIATIONS IN GENDER EQUITY

T.V. Salma “Rural-urban variations in gender equity in Kerala- A case study of Thrissur district” Thesis. Department of Economics , Dr. John Matthai Centre Thrissur , University of Calicut, 2004

Chapter V
RURAL-URBAN VARIATIONS IN GENDER EQUITY

5.1 Introduction

In principle, a woman has a status of equality with that of a man, but in day-to-day life it is still a far cry from the ideal and she faces multiple problems both in home and in society when compared to man as regards equity. These inequities have an uneven spread between regions – rural and urban. In this chapter, the rural-urban variations in gender equity are analysed with the help of gender indices.

This chapter is divided into six sections. The second section gives the different indices used in the study and the norms taken in preparing each index. Gender indices by socio-economic indicators and their rural-urban variations are discussed in third section. Gender status as revealed by the indices are analysed on the basis of place of residence, religion, caste, employment status of female respondent, activity of female respondent, education of female respondent, education of head of the family, activity of head of the family, size of family, number of females in the family and monthly income of family. Pearson correlations between the indices are given in fourth section. The fifth section deals with the regression models-simple and multiple, while the last section gives the conclusion.

5.2 Gender Indices

Gender status within the family of 225 sample households, selected from rural area and 75 sample households selected from urban area of Thrissur district, are compared using gender indices. Aggregate gender index is prepared considering the indicators of education, health, communication and social life,

decision-making and atrocities. Separate indices are also prepared for all these indicators for the total, rural and urban samples. Indices are constructed, normalising the values, using the formula[1]:

$$\text{Gender Index} = \frac{X_i - \text{Minimum}(X_i)}{\text{Maximum}(X_i) - \text{Minimum}(X_i)}$$

Where, X_i = actual value of the ith indicator.

The value of index ranges between 0-1. Scoring method has been used here. Scores given are 1 for 'Yes' and 0 for 'No' for the all the norms of different indicators, except atrocities. In the case of atrocities, the scores given are 0 for 'Yes' and 1 for 'No'. Seven scores each have been given for preparing education, health, communication and social life and decision-making indices and 9 scores have been given for preparing atrocities index. Thus, the total score is 37.

5.2.1 Education Index

Education index of the sample is based on the following seven norms. They are equity in: chances of education as brothers, encouragement from parents in education, family problems affecting studies, experiencing gender equity in school or college, taking part in sports and cultural activities while studying, education expenditure and providing opportunities for education of children.

5.2.2 Health Index

Seven norms are considered to prepare the health index. They are equity in: taking care of health by family members, sharing food, energetic behaviour at home, taking nutritious food and health tonics, giving immunisation, method of treatment and frequency of medical check up.

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[1] Indices are prepared using the methodology adopted by HDR 1995 for constructing Human Development Index and Gender Development Index, p.134.

5.2.3 Communication and Social Life Index

The seven attributes used to prepare the communication and social life index are equity in role expectation about male and female child, encouragement from family members in participating in social life, reading newspapers and magazines regularly, treatment by society, social relations, spatial mobility and treating genders at home.

5.2.4 Decision Making Index

Index for decision-making is determined by seven factors. They are equity in: decision-making in family budget, children's matters, number, age difference of children and sterilization, purchase of real assets and durables, savings and investment, selecting the spouse and exercising voting power.

5.2.5 Atrocities Index

The nine norms considered for atrocity index construction are experience of atrocities, scare in revealing atrocities publicly, scare in travelling during night, facing dowry related harassment, facing sexual harassment, facing harassment from in-laws, facing domestic violence, experience of marital rape and experience of atrocities during journeys.

5.2.6 Aggregate Gender Index

Aggregate Gender Index is prepared by considering all the indicators – education, health, communication and social life, decision-making and atrocities. The results obtained revealed in Table 5.1 show that for the total sample the aggregate gender index is 0.44.

The aggregate index for the urban area is 0.58 while it is 0.39 for the rural area. The highest gender index is for health (0.79) followed by decision-making (0.45), atrocities (0.37) and education (0.29). The lowest index is for social life

(0.14). This shows that in communication and social life our position is very bad as regards gender equity. The highest variation is found in decision-making (0.36) and the lowest variation is for communication and social life (0.15). The variation in the aggregate gender index among the total sample is 0.20.

Table 5.1: Aggregate Gender Index

Gender Indices	Area	Mean	Number of Observations	Standard Deviation
Education	Rural	0.24	225	0.28
	Urban	0.46	75	0.32
	Total	0.29	300	0.30
Health	Rural	0.74	225	0.34
	Urban	0.93	75	0.13
	Total	0.79	300	0.31
Communication & Social life	Rural	0.13	225	0.14
	Urban	0.18	75	0.18
	Total	0.14	300	0.15
Decision Making	Rural	0.37	225	0.34
	Urban	0.69	75	0.29
	Total	0.45	300	0.36
Atrocities	Rural	0.38	225	0.16
	Urban	0.37	75	0.16
	Total	0.37	300	0.16
Aggregate Index	Rural	0.39	225	0.18
	Urban	0.58	75	0.19
	Total	0.44	300	0.20

Source: Survey

5.3 Socio-Economic Indicators and Gender Indices

In this section, gender indices are analysed by place of residence, religion, caste, employment status of female respondent, activity of head of the family, activity of female respondent, education of head of the family, education of the female respondent, size of family, number of females in the family and monthly income of the family. Indices are prepared by all these classifications for the total, rural and urban samples. Standard deviation explains variations within each group. ANOVA (Analysis of Variance) gives the significance of variation between groups.

5.3.1 Place of Residence

Gender indices on the basis of place of residence as obtained in Table 5.2 show that aggregate gender index is high in urban area (0.58) than in rural area (0.39). Gender indices in education, health, social life and decision-making are far better in urban area compared to rural area indicating better gender status in urban area.

Table 5.2: Socio-economic Gender Indices by Place of Residence

Gender Indices	Rural			Urban			Total			ANOVA	
	Mean	N	SD	Mean	N	SD	Mean	N	SD	F	Sig.
Education	0.24	225	0.28	0.46	75	0.32	0.29	300	0.30	32.251	0.000
Health	0.74	225	0.34	0.93	75	0.13	0.79	300	0.31	22.744	0.000
Communication & Social Life	0.13	225	0.14	0.18	75	0.18	0.14	300	0.15	7.107	0.008
Decision Making	0.37	225	0.34	0.69	75	0.29	0.45	300	0.36	50.813	0.000
Atrocities	0.38	225	0.16	0.37	75	0.16	0.37	300	0.16	0.151	0.698
Aggregate Index	0.39	225	0.18	0.58	75	0.19	0.44	300	0.2	62.335	0.000

Note: N-Number; SD-Standard Deviation; F-F ratio; Sig. Significance
Source: Survey

For gender index in atrocities there is only marginal difference between rural and urban areas. Both in rural and urban areas, the highest index is for health and the lowest index is for communication and social life. Rural-urban difference is striking in the case of decision making (0.30 and 0.69 respectively). ANOVA shows significant variation in the case of all the indices except atrocities index.

5.3.2 Religion

Distribution of population on the basis of religion reveals that aggregate gender index is high among Hindus (0.47) followed by Christians (0.42) and Muslims (0.33) as shown in Table 5.3. The variations within the group are high for Hindus and Muslims (0.20) than among Christians (0.18) Gender indices in health

and decision-making are more for Hindus than for Christians. Indices of education, social life and atrocities are same for both Hindus and Christians. All the indices are lowest for Muslims. Communication and social life index is nominal for Muslims showing critical gender inequity in this matter.

In rural sample also, aggregate gender index is high among Hindus (0.41) followed by Christians (0.40) and Muslims (0.32). The variations within the group are high for Muslims (0.20) than among Hindus (0.17) and Christians (0.18). Here also gender indices in health and decision-making are more for Hindus than for Christians. Index of atrocity is same for all religions (0.38)

Table 5.3: Socio-economic Gender Indices and Religion

Gender Indices	R/U	Hindu		Muslim		Christian		Total		ANOVA	
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	F	Sig.
Education	R	0.23	0.28	0.18	0.23	0.30	0.29	0.24	0.28	2.667	0.072
	U	0.49	0.32	0.38	0.37	0.34	0.28	0.46	0.32	1.127	0.330
	T	0.31	0.32	0.21	0.26	0.31	0.29	0.29	0.30	2.362	0.096
Health	R	0.76	0.34	0.68	0.36	0.74	0.31	0.74	0.34	0.940	0.392
	U	0.95	0.08	0.84	0.19	0.87	0.18	0.93	0.13	4.412	0.016
	T	0.82	0.30	0.71	0.35	0.76	0.30	0.79	0.31	3.416	0.034
Communi-cation & Social life	R	0.13	0.15	0.08	0.14	0.15	0.13	0.13	0.14	2.896	0.057
	U	0.20	0.18	0.06	0.12	0.16	0.14	0.18	0.18	2.230	0.115
	T	0.15	0.16	0.07	0.13	0.15	0.13	0.14	0.15	4.825	0.009
Decision Making	R	0.40	0.34	0.27	0.30	0.40	0.35	0.37	0.34	2.408	0.092
	U	0.72	0.28	0.55	0.34	0.59	0.29	0.69	0.29	1.946	0.150
	T	0.50	0.36	0.32	0.32	0.42	0.35	0.45	0.36	5.981	0.003
Atrocities	R	0.38	0.15	0.38	0.19	0.38	0.17	0.38	0.16	0.003	0.997
	U	0.38	0.15	0.24	0.14	0.38	0.16	0.37	0.16	3.381	0.039
	T	0.38	0.15	0.35	0.19	0.38	0.17	0.37	0.16	0.433	0.649
Aggregate Index	R	0.41	0.17	0.32	0.20	0.40	0.18	0.39	0.18	4.203	0.016
	U	0.61	0.18	0.39	0.22	0.55	0.18	0.58	0.19	5.242	0.007
	T	0.47	0.20	0.33	0.20	0.42	0.18	0.44	0.20	10.897	0.000
N	R	120		44		61		225			
	U	57		8		10		75			
	T	177		52		71		300			

Note: R-Rural; U-Urban; T-Total; N-Number; SD-Standard Deviation
Source: Survey

In urban area, gender equity is high compared to the rural area, but the pattern is same, index being high among Hindus (0.61) followed by Christians (0.55) and Muslims (0.39). In all the indices the same pattern as in rural area is followed in urban area. All these indices are low for Muslims compared to the

other two castes both in rural and urban areas. Communication and social life index is nominal for Muslims regardless of area. Rural-urban differences in aggregate index are highest for Hindus (0.41 and 0.61 respectively) and lowest for Muslims (0.32 and 0.39 respectively).

There is significant variation between groups in education, communication and social life, decision-making and aggregate gender index in the rural area as per ANOVA table. Variation between groups is significant in urban area for health, atrocities and aggregate gender indices. In the total sample there is significant variation in all the indices except atrocities.

5.3.3 Caste

Aggregate gender index for forward castes (0.49) is greater than the index for backward castes as depicted in Table 5.4. This is true for all the indices except atrocity index where the difference is only marginal. For SC and OBC the aggregate gender index is same (0.40) and for ST it is 0.38. The variation within the group is more among forward castes in education and decision making, among SC and OBC in health, among SC in social life and atrocities. Gender equity differences between SC and other castes are very high regarding communication and social life.

SC and forward castes have same gender status in the rural area (0.41). OBC (0.37) has less gender status than ST (0.38). In rural area, education status is high for forward castes (0.29), health status is high for ST (0.82), social life status is high for SC (0.17) and in decision-making status there is only marginal difference.

In the urban sample there are no ST. Here, aggregate gender index and all the other indices are higher for forward castes than for backward castes. The indices for all the indicators are lowest for SC. So compared to rural population,

SC is lagging behind OBC and other castes in gender status in the urban area. Variations within the group are greater for OBC (0.19). Rural-urban variation in aggregate gender status is highest for forward caste (0.41 and 0.62 respectively) and lowest for SC (0.41 and 0.30 respectively).

Table 5.4: Socio-economic Gender Indices and Castes

Gender Indices	R/U	SC		ST		OBC		Others		Total		ANOVA	
		M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	F	Sig.
Education	R	0.20	0.26	0.13	0.20	0.21	0.26	0.29	0.30	0.24	0.28	2.246	0.084
	U	0.36	0.10	-	-	0.40	0.37	0.49	0.30	0.46	0.32	0.735	0.483
	T	0.21	0.26	0.13	0.20	0.25	0.29	0.37	0.31	0.29	0.30	5.307	0.001
Health	R	0.79	0.34	0.82	0.30	0.70	0.36	0.77	0.31	0.74	0.34	0.976	0.405
	U	0.79	0.30	-	-	0.92	0.14	0.94	0.11	0.93	0.13	1.608	0.207
	T	0.79	0.33	0.82	0.30	0.75	0.34	0.83	0.27	0.79	0.31	1.696	0.168
Communi-cation & Social life	R	0.17	0.22	0.07	0.08	0.12	0.14	0.13	0.14	0.13	0.14	1.454	0.228
	U	0.06	0.08	-	-	0.14	0.15	0.21	0.19	0.18	0.18	1.552	0.219
	T	0.16	0.22	0.07	0.08	0.12	0.14	0.16	0.16	0.14	0.15	2.316	0.076
Decision Making	R	0.34	0.32	0.40	0.30	0.36	0.34	0.39	0.36	0.37	0.34	0.196	0.899
	U	0.50	0.51	-	-	0.68	0.31	0.70	0.27	0.69	0.29	0.439	0.646
	T	0.35	0.33	0.40	0.30	0.43	0.35	0.50	0.36	0.45	0.36	1.713	0.164
Atrocities	R	0.39	0.17	0.38	0.13	0.37	0.17	0.38	0.16	0.38	0.16	0.133	0.940
	U	0.11	0.16	-	-	0.32	0.16	0.41	0.14	0.37	0.16	5.999	0.004
	T	0.36	0.18	0.38	0.13	0.36	0.17	0.39	0.16	0.37	0.16	0.807	0.094
Aggregate Index	R	0.41	0.15	0.38	0.14	0.37	0.19	0.41	0.18	0.39	0.18	1.072	0.362
	U	0.30	0.13	-	-	0.54	0.19	0.62	0.18	0.58	0.19	3.763	0.028
	T	0.40	0.15	0.38	0.14	0.40	0.20	0.49	0.21	0.44	0.20	4.599	0.004
N	R	20		14		109		82		225			
	U	2		-		27		46		75			
	T	22		14		136		128		300			

Note: R-Rural; U-Urban; T-Total; N-Number of Observations; M-Mean; SD-Standard Deviation
Source: Survey

ANOVA shows significant variation between groups in education, communication and social life indices and aggregate gender index in the sample. In rural area, variation in education index is significant at 10 per cent level. Between groups, atrocities index and aggregate gender index has significant variation in the urban area.

5.3.4 Employment Status of Female Respondent

Aggregate gender index as per the employment status of the female respondent (Table 5.5) shows that employed females enjoy high gender status (0.49) when compared to the unemployed females (0.41). Variation within the

group is same for both employed and unemployed (0.20). Gender status in social life (0.16) and decision-making (0.57) are high for the employed when compared to the unemployed (0.12 and 0.38 respectively). Differences in equity in education, health and atrocities are only nominal between the employed and unemployed.

Table 5.5: Socio-economic Gender Indices and Employment Status of Female Respondent

Gender Indices	R/U	Unemployed		Employed		Total		ANOVA	
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	F	Sig.
Education	R	0.25	0.29	0.22	0.24	0.24	0.28	0.407	0.524
	U	0.46	0.32	0.45	0.33	0.46	0.32	0.007	0.935
	T	0.29	0.31	0.29	0.29	0.29	0.30	0.062	0.804
Health	R	0.76	0.32	0.71	0.36	0.74	0.34	0.912	0.341
	U	0.93	0.15	0.94	0.10	0.93	0.13	0.234	0.630
	T	0.80	0.30	0.78	0.32	0.79	0.31	0.280	0.597
Communication & Social life	R	0.12	0.15	0.14	0.13	0.13	0.14	0.854	0.356
	U	0.14	0.19	0.23	0.14	0.18	0.18	0.167	0.026
	T	0.12	0.16	0.16	0.14	0.14	0.15	4.817	0.029
Decision Making	R	0.32	0.33	0.48	0.34	0.37	0.34	12.318	0.001
	U	0.60	0.31	0.81	0.20	0.69	0.29	10.506	0.002
	T	0.38	0.35	0.57	0.34	0.45	0.36	21.186	0.000
Atrocities	R	0.38	0.16	0.36	0.17	0.38	0.16	0.932	0.335
	U	0.36	0.18	0.38	0.11	0.37	0.16	0.171	0.680
	T	0.38	0.17	0.37	0.15	0.37	0.16	0.429	0.513
Aggregate Index	R	0.37	0.19	0.41	0.16	0.39	0.18	2.076	0.151
	U	0.51	0.20	0.68	0.13	0.58	0.19	17.508	0.000
	T	0.41	0.20	0.49	0.20	0.44	0.20	11.601	0.001
Number of Observations	R	146		79		225			
	U	44		31		75			
	T	90		110		300			

Note: R-Rural; U-Urban; T-Total; N-Number; SD-Standard Deviation
Source: Survey

Both in the rural and urban area, employed class have high gender status compared to the unemployed. Decision-making index for the employed and unemployed in the rural area are 0.32 and 0.48 respectively when compared to these indices in the urban area (0.60 and 0.81 respectively). Thus, in decision-making employed is in better position than unemployed and urban area is better

than rural area. Atrocities index shows only marginal difference between employed and unemployed and between rural and urban area. Rural-urban difference in aggregate index is high when females are employed (0.41 and 0.68 respectively) rather than when females are unemployed (0.37 and 0.51 respectively).

ANOVA shows significant variation between groups in communication and social life, decision-making and aggregate gender indices in the total sample. There is significant variation between groups in decision-making index both in rural and urban areas. In the urban area, aggregate gender index shows significant variation between groups.

5.3.5 Activity of Female Respondent

Gender status according to activity of female respondent is shown in Table 5.6. Aggregate gender index is high for the professionals (0.65) followed by service sector (0.0.61), skilled labour (0.51), unemployed (0.41) and coolies (0.36). Gender status is high for professionals in education (0.49), for skilled labour in health (0.95) for service sector in social life (0.23) for professionals in decision-making (0.86) and for unemployed and service sector in atrocities (0.38). Rural-urban difference in aggregate gender index is high, when the female respondents are professionals (0.46 and 0.73 respectively).

Aggregate gender index is high for skilled labour (0.51) in the rural area but there are no skilled labourers in the urban sample. In the urban sample this place goes to professionals and their index is 0.73. Both in rural and urban areas coolies have the lowest gender index (0.36 and 0.39 respectively).

Table 5.6: Socio-economic Gender Indices and Activity of Female Respondent

Gender Indices	Area	Unemployed		Coolie		Service		Skilled Labour		Professional		Total		ANOVA	
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	F	Sig
Education	R	0.25	0.29	0.21	0.24	0.21	0.27	0.24	0.12	0.57	0.20	0.24	0.28	0.922	0.452
	U	0.47	0.32	0.29	-	0.45	0.35	-	-	0.46	0.29	0.46	0.32	0.111	0.954
	T	0.29	0.31	0.21	0.24	0.34	0.34	0.24	0.12	0.49	0.26	0.29	0.30	1.997	0.095
Health	R	0.76	0.32	0.67	0.38	0.76	0.32	0.95	0.12	0.57	0.61	0.74	0.34	1.308	0.268
	U	0.93	0.14	0.57	-	0.95	0.08	-	-	0.91	0.07	0.93	0.13	0.030	0.035
	T	0.79	0.30	0.67	0.38	0.87	0.24	0.95	0.12	0.82	0.31	0.79	0.31	3.133	0.015
Communication & Social life	R	0.12	0.15	0.11	0.09	0.19	0.19	0.17	0.06	0.13	0.00	0.13	0.14	1.532	0.194
	U	0.13	0.19	0.13	-	0.25	0.14	-	-	0.23	0.19	0.18	0.18	2.638	0.056
	T	0.12	0.16	0.11	0.09	0.23	0.17	0.17	0.09	0.20	0.16	0.14	0.15	5.190	0.000
Decision Making	R	0.32	0.33	0.43	0.32	0.56	0.42	0.57	0.29	0.64	0.10	0.37	0.34	3.824	0.005
	U	0.60	0.32	0.86	-	0.77	0.20	-	-	0.94	0.07	0.69	0.29	4.061	0.010
	T	0.38	0.34	0.44	0.33	0.68	0.33	0.57	0.29	0.86	0.17	0.45	0.36	10.277	0.000
Atrocities	R	0.38	0.16	0.37	0.18	0.36	0.14	0.37	0.19	0.28	0.07	0.38	0.16	0.316	0.867
	U	0.36	0.18	0.22	-	0.39	0.11	-	-	0.36	0.14	0.37	0.16	0.492	0.689
	T	0.38	0.17	0.36	0.18	0.38	0.12	0.37	0.19	0.33	0.13	0.37	0.16	0.812	0.948
Aggregate Index	R	0.38	0.19	0.36	0.15	0.50	0.14	0.51	0.07	0.46	0.30	0.39	0.18	3.355	0.011
	U	0.51	0.20	0.39	-	0.68	0.12	-	-	0.73	0.13	0.58	0.19	7.202	0.000
	T	0.41	0.20	0.36	0.15	0.61	0.16	0.51	0.07	0.65	0.21	0.44	0.20	15.584	0.000
Number of Observations	R	146		50		21		6		2		225			
	U	44		1		25		-		5		75			
	T	190		51		46		6		7		300			

Note: R-Rural; U-Urban; T-Total; SD-Standard Deviation
Source: Survey

Activity wise distribution of population also reveals that urban area has higher indices for all the categories. Education index is high for professionals (0.57) in the rural area and for unemployed (0.47) in the urban area. Regarding health, skilled labour has the highest index (0.95) both in rural and urban areas. Communication and social life index is the highest for the service sector both in rural (0.19) and urban (0.25) samples.

Both in rural and urban areas, decision- making equity is highest for professionals (0.64 and 0.94 respectively). Highest atrocity index shows only marginal rural-urban difference, 0.38 for the unemployed and 0.39 for service sector respectively. Variation within the group is high for professionals (0.30) in the rural area and for unemployed in the urban area (0.20).

ANOVA shows significant variation between groups for all the indices except atrocities index in the total sample. There is significant variation between groups in decision-making and aggregate gender index in rural area, while all the other indices except education and atrocities indices show significant variation between groups in the urban area.

5.3.6 Education of the Head of the Family

Classification of population on the basis of education of head of the family is revealed in Table 5.7. Gender status is high when the head of the family is post graduate (0.73) followed by professionals and the last place goes to illiterates (0.34). Health index is the highest when head of the family is post graduate (0.92) and lowest when head of the family is with upper primary education (0.64). In the case of social life, technically qualified and postgraduates are in the forefront (0.25) while illiterates and pre degree qualified lag behind.

Table 5.7: Socio-economic Gender Indices and Education of the Head of the Family

Gender Indices	R/U	Illiterate		LP		Upper Primary		High School		Pre Degree		Degree		Post Graduation		Professional		Technical		Total		ANOVA	
		M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	F	Sig
Education	R	0.12	0.15	0.18	0.20	0.28	0.27	0.31	0.33	0.23	0.27	0.26	0.32	-	-	0.05	0.13	0.86	-	0.24	0.28	2.778	0.006
	U	0.86	0.20	0.14	-	0.29	-	0.35	0.32	0.54	0.31	0.46	0.33	0.31	0.38	0.53	0.30	0.50	0.10	0.46	0.32	1.203	0.311
	T	0.12	0.15	0.18	0.19	0.28	0.27	0.32	0.33	0.34	0.32	0.37	0.34	0.31	0.38	0.43	0.34	0.62	0.22	0.29	0.30	3.498	0.000
Health	R	0.79	0.31	0.74	0.35	0.65	0.36	0.77	0.33	0.77	0.36	0.87	0.18	-	-	0.34	0.33	0.29	-	0.74	0.34	1.935	0.056
	U	0.98	0.00	0.98	-	0.57	-	0.87	0.20	0.97	0.09	0.94	9.9e	0.92	0.07	0.97	0.07	0.93	0.10	0.93	0.13	2.156	0.042
	T	0.79	0.31	0.75	0.35	0.64	0.35	0.78	0.31	0.84	0.31	0.91	0.14	0.92	0.07	0.83	0.31	0.71	0.38	0.79	0.31	1.729	0.020
Communi-cation & Social life	R	0.07	0.09	0.15	0.10	0.13	0.11	0.14	0.18	0.05	0.08	0.16	0.17	-	-	0.15	0.22	0.25	-	0.13	0.14	1.619	0.121
	U	0.19	0.08	0.13	-	0.13	-	0.16	0.24	0.13	0.10	0.17	0.15	0.25	0.16	0.22	0.20	0.25	0.18	0.18	0.18	0.431	0.898
	T	0.07	0.09	0.15	0.10	0.13	0.11	0.15	0.19	0.08	0.09	0.16	0.16	0.25	0.16	0.20	0.21	0.25	0.13	0.14	0.15	2.318	0.016
Decision Making	R	0.22	0.24	0.35	0.31	0.42	0.34	0.40	0.36	0.32	0.37	0.52	0.36	-	-	0.40	0.42	0.29	-	0.37	0.34	1.705	0.099
	U	0.50	0.51	0.71	-	0.86	-	0.55	0.36	0.59	0.33	0.67	0.23	0.92	0.7	0.79	0.23	0.79	0.10	0.69	0.29	1.735	0.107
	T	0.22	0.24	0.36	0.31	0.44	0.35	0.43	0.36	0.41	0.37	0.60	0.30	0.92	0.7	0.70	0.31	0.62	0.30	0.45	0.36	6.231	0.000
Atrocities	R	0.42	0.18	0.37	0.14	0.32	0.17	0.39	0.17	0.37	0.16	0.38	0.13	-	-	0.33	0.14	0.22	-	0.38	0.16	1.276	0.257
	U	0.56	0.00	0.22	-	0.22	-	0.35	0.19	0.36	0.16	0.35	0.16	0.41	0.08	0.38	0.16	0.39	0.07	0.37	0.16	0.723	0.671
	T	0.42	0.18	0.36	0.14	0.31	0.17	0.39	0.17	0.37	0.16	0.36	0.14	0.41	0.08	0.37	0.16	0.33	0.11	0.37	0.16	0.979	0.458
Aggregate Index	R	0.34	0.15	0.37	0.14	0.35	0.18	0.42	0.19	0.36	0.22	0.54	0.19	-	-	0.33	0.24	0.21	-	0.39	0.18	2.245	0.025
	U	0.55	0.07	0.43	-	0.39	-	0.47	0.22	0.53	0.19	0.57	0.14	0.73	0.13	0.67	0.20	0.68	0.05	0.58	0.19	2.224	0.035
	T	0.34	0.15	0.37	0.14	0.35	0.18	0.43	0.19	0.42	0.22	0.56	0.17	0.73	0.13	0.59	0.25	0.52	0.27	0.44	0.20	7.751	0.000
N	R	38		42		29		77		19		14		-		5		1		225			
	U	2		1		1		16		10		18		7		18		2		75			
	T	40		43		30		93		29		32		7		23		3		300			

Note: R-Rural; U-Urban; T-Total; N-Number of observations; SD-Standard Deviation
Source: Survey

In decision making, post graduates have more equity (0.91) and the illiterates have least equity (0.22). Regarding atrocities there are not much differences between different categories. Rural-urban variation in gender equity is high when the head of the family is technically educated (0.21 and 0.68 respectively).

As per the education of head of the family also, indices are high in urban area indicating high gender status there. Aggregate gender status is high when the head of the family is postgraduate both in rural (0.54) and urban (0.73) areas. In rural sample, gender status is very low, when head of the family is professional or technically qualified (0.33 and 0.22 respectively). But, in urban sample they have a very high index (0.69 and 0.68 respectively). Education index is high for professionals (0.53) in rural area and for technically qualified (0.86) in urban area. Even if the head of the family is illiterate the decision making equity is high for them in the rural area (0.60) but it is high for professionals (0.78) in the urban area. Atrocity index is high among illiterates both in rural (0.42) and urban (0.56) areas. ANOVA shows significant variation between groups in education, communication and social life, decision-making and aggregate gender indices in the total sample. There is significant variation between groups in education index in the rural area.

5.3.7 Education of the Female Respondent

Aggregate index (0.71), education (0.60), decision making (0.90) and communication and social life (0.25) indices are the highest in those families where the female respondent is a post graduate (Table 5.8). Lowest aggregate index (0.29), decision making (0.22) and communication and social life (0.10) indices are for illiterates.

Table 5.8: Socio-economic Gender Indices and Education of the Female Respondent

Gender Indices	R/U	Illiterate		Lower Primary		Upper Primary		High School		Pre Degree		Degree		Post Graduation		Professional		Total		ANOVA	
		M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	F	Sig.
Education	R	0.20	0.19	0.17	0.21	0.24	0.28	0.27	0.32	0.24	0.28	0.27	0.29	0.43	-	0.19	0.28	0.24	0.28	0.750	0.630
	U	-	-	-	-	0.39	0.43	0.34	0.34	0.65	0.18	0.50	0.30	0.63	0.36	0.32	0.32	0.46	0.32	2.520	0.810
	T	0.20	0.19	0.17	0.21	0.25	0.30	0.29	0.32	0.41	0.32	0.40	0.31	0.60	0.33	0.29	0.31	0.30	0.30	0.790	0.100
Health	R	0.71	0.34	0.71	0.37	0.74	0.32	0.78	0.33	0.73	0.34	0.79	0.31	0.43	-	0.60	0.38	0.74	0.34	0.530	0.020
	U	-	-	-	-	0.82	0.21	0.88	0.19	0.97	0.09	0.96	0.08	0.94	0.08	0.94	0.09	0.93	0.12	1.680	0.530
	T	0.71	0.34	0.71	0.37	0.74	0.31	0.80	0.31	0.83	0.29	0.89	0.23	0.86	0.22	0.84	0.26	0.79	0.31	1.480	0.000
Communi-cation & Social life	R	0.09	0.08	0.09	0.10	0.12	0.13	0.14	0.17	0.07	0.08	0.21	0.21	0.12	-	0.17	0.13	0.13	0.14	1.750	0.040
	U	-	-	-	-	0.13	0.00	0.11	0.16	0.23	0.24	0.14	0.12	0.28	0.19	0.25	0.19	0.18	0.18	1.860	0.150
	T	0.10	0.09	0.10	0.10	0.12	0.12	0.14	0.17	0.14	0.18	0.17	0.16	0.25	0.18	0.23	0.18	0.14	0.15	2.530	0.110
Decision Making	R	0.22	0.17	0.34	0.32	0.29	0.33	0.44	0.36	0.31	0.29	0.50	0.41	0.86	-	0.55	0.32	0.37	0.34	2.410	0.050
	U	-	-	-	-	0.68	0.36	0.55	0.35	0.60	0.29	0.72	0.22	0.91	0.08	0.80	0.23	0.69	0.29	2.420	0.560
	T	0.22	0.17	0.34	0.32	0.33	0.35	0.46	0.36	0.43	0.32	0.62	0.33	0.90	0.07	0.73	0.27	0.45	0.35	8.230	0.000
Atrocities	R	0.38	0.15	0.30	0.16	0.40	0.19	0.39	0.16	0.33	0.17	0.35	0.14	0.11	-	0.33	0.14	0.38	0.16	0.870	0.000
	U	-	-	-	-	0.44	0.20	0.32	0.19	0.37	0.15	0.36	0.16	0.44	0.08	0.39	0.13	0.37	0.16	0.790	0.170
	T	0.38	0.15	0.36	0.16	0.40	0.19	0.38	0.17	0.35	0.16	0.36	0.15	0.39	0.15	0.37	0.13	0.37	0.16	0.390	0.020
Aggregate Index	R	0.29	0.15	0.34	0.16	0.36	0.18	0.43	0.18	0.35	0.17	0.50	0.17	0.39	-	0.48	0.25	0.39	0.18	3.490	0.000
	U	-	-	-	-	0.54	0.15	0.42	0.19	0.59	0.21	0.60	0.14	0.77	0.09	0.70	0.15	0.58	0.19	6.250	0.910
	T	0.29	0.15	0.34	0.16	0.38	0.18	0.43	0.18	0.45	0.22	0.56	0.16	0.71	0.18	0.63	0.20	0.44	0.20	12.230	0.000
N	R	21		44		4		79		18		16		1		6		225			
	U	-		-		44		18		13		20		5		15		75			
	T	21		44		40		97		31		36		6		21		300			

Note: R-Rural; U-Urban; T-Total; N-Number of Observations; M-Mean; SD-Standard Deviation
Source: Survey

Gender equity in health status is highest if the female respondent is a graduate (0.89) and lowest for LP and illiterates (0.71). Atrocity index is highest in families where the female respondents are with UP education (0.40) and lowest in families where female respondents are with pre degree education (0.35). Variations among the groups are high in those families where the female respondents are with pre degree qualification (0.22).

In rural area, education index is high (0.43) if the female respondent is a post graduate and lowest if the educational qualification of the female respondent is LP. In the urban area, the highest and lowest education indices are for females with pre degree (0.65) and professional qualifications (0.32). Health indices and educational qualifications have no specific relation in rural and urban areas. It is highest when female educational qualification is degree (0.79) and lowest for postgraduate (0.43) in rural area, while it is highest for pre degree (0.97) and lowest for UP (0.82) in the urban area. In decision making, both in rural and urban areas, the indices are highest when the female respondent is a post graduate (0.86 and 0.91 respectively). The lowest indices are for illiterates (0.22) in rural area and for high school qualified (0.55) in the urban area.

Rural-urban differences are the highest in the families with female respondents having UP qualification (0.36 and 0.54 respectively) and it is marginal in the category where female respondents are high school educated (0.43 and 0.42 respectively). ANOVA shows significant variation between the groups in health, decision making, atrocities and aggregate index in total and rural samples.

5.3.8 Activity of the Head of the Family

Activity of head of the family, as depicted in Table 5.9, shows that aggregate gender index is high for professionals (0.68) and low for unemployed

(0.37). All the other indices are also highest for professionals. In the case of health index, highest position is shared by those who are in service sector. Indices are lowest for unemployed in education (0.20), health (0.42), decision making (0.21) and atrocities (0.28). In communication and social life, business people have the lowest index (0.11). Variations within the group are highest for unemployed (0.40). Rural-urban difference in gender equity is very high for the unemployed with aggregate indices of 0.18 and 0.93 for rural and urban areas respectively. In the case of coolies, there are no differences in gender equity between rural and urban areas (0.39).

In rural area, gender status is highest if head of the family is businessman (0.41) and in urban area it is highest when head of the family is professional (0.67). It is lowest if family head is unemployed both in the rural (0.17) and urban (0.12) areas. Education index is highest if the activity of the head of the family is agriculture both in rural (0.30) and urban (0.57) areas. Gender equity in education is lowest if the head is non-resident Indian (0.12) in rural area and if coolie or skilled labour (0.29) in the urban area. Gender equity in health is highest, if the head is coolie (0.79) in rural area and if the head is unemployed or agriculturist (0.98) in urban area. In rural area, social life index is highest if head of the family is professional (0.50) and in urban area it is highest if head of the family is unemployed (0.75). Decision making index is same (0.98) and highest for unemployed and professionals in rural and urban areas.

ANOVA shows significant variation in health, decision making and aggregate index between groups. In rural area, variation between groups are significant for health and decision making indices while in urban area, it is significant for decision making index and aggregate gender index.

Table 5.9: Socio-economic Gender Indices and Activity of the Head of the Family

Gender Indices	R/U	Unemployed		Agriculture		Coolie		Service		Business		NRI		Skilled Labour		Professional		Total		ANOVA	
		M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	F	Sig.
Education	R	0.14	0.25	0.30	0.33	0.25	0.28	0.29	0.31	0.18	0.25	0.13	0.18	0.24	0.30	0.00	-	0.24	0.28	0.812	0.606
	U	0.57	-	0.57	0.40	0.29	-	0.48	0.32	0.33	0.31	0.48	0.34	0.29	0.20	0.49	0.36	0.46	0.32	0.877	0.541
	T	0.25	0.29	0.35	0.34	0.25	0.28	0.38	0.33	0.23	0.28	0.24	0.29	0.25	0.29	0.43	0.37	0.29	0.30	1.067	0.113
Health	R	0.33	0.08	0.76	0.32	0.79	0.33	0.77	0.34	0.78	0.31	0.58	0.33	0.75	0.34	0.14	-	0.74	0.34	2.187	0.024
	U	0.98	-	0.98	0.00	0.57	-	0.95	0.09	0.88	0.16	0.91	0.20	0.93	0.10	0.96	0.11	0.93	0.13	1.721	0.110
	T	0.50	0.34	0.80	0.31	0.79	0.33	0.86	0.26	0.81	0.27	0.69	0.33	0.76	0.33	0.86	0.31	0.79	0.31	2.047	0.034
Communi-cation & Social life	R	0.04	0.07	0.13	0.16	0.12	0.15	0.12	0.16	0.11	0.16	0.10	0.09	0.19	0.12	0.50	-	0.13	0.14	1.660	0.100
	U	0.75	-	0.13	0.00	0.13	-	0.19	0.15	0.11	0.17	0.19	0.19	0.13	0.00	0.23	0.25	0.18	0.18	1.951	0.067
	T	0.22	0.36	0.13	0.14	0.12	0.15	0.15	0.16	0.11	0.16	0.13	0.13	0.18	0.11	0.27	0.25	0.14	0.15	1.429	0.175
Decision Making	R	0.33	0.46	0.27	0.36	0.34	0.32	0.34	0.37	0.40	0.33	0.35	0.30	0.40	0.31	0.98	-	0.37	0.34	2.433	0.012
	U	0.98	-	0.14	0.00	0.86	-	0.75	0.25	0.51	0.33	0.71	0.17	0.79	0.10	0.82	0.20	0.69	0.29	2.919	0.007
	T	0.50	0.50	0.25	0.33	0.34	0.32	0.54	0.38	0.43	0.33	0.47	0.31	0.42	0.31	0.84	0.19	0.45	0.36	4.436	0.000
Atrocities	R	0.33	0.11	0.41	0.13	0.40	0.16	0.34	0.17	0.39	0.20	0.35	0.13	0.36	0.11	0.56	-	0.38	0.16	1.023	0.422
	U	0.56	-	0.33	0.00	0.22	-	0.37	0.16	0.34	0.19	0.36	0.14	0.33	0.16	0.38	0.13	0.37	0.16	0.725	0.669
	T	0.39	0.14	0.40	0.12	0.40	0.16	0.36	0.16	0.38	0.19	0.35	0.13	0.36	0.11	0.40	0.13	0.37	0.16	0.608	0.790
Aggregate Index	R	0.18	0.16	0.39	0.22	0.39	0.15	0.39	0.23	0.41	0.21	0.32	0.16	0.40	0.16	0.75	-	0.39	0.18	1.299	0.239
	U	0.93	-	0.38	0.07	0.39	-	0.64	0.17	0.46	0.20	0.56	0.22	0.54	0.15	0.67	0.18	0.58	0.19	2.568	0.017
	T	0.37	0.40	0.39	0.20	0.39	0.15	0.51	0.23	0.43	0.21	0.40	0.21	0.41	0.16	0.68	0.17	0.44	0.20	3.448	0.000
N	R	13		10		87		39		31		17		27		1		225			
	U	3		2		1		36		16		8		2		7		75			
	T	16		12		88		75		47		25		29		8		300			

Note: R-Rural; U-Urban; T-Total; N-Number of observations; M-Mean; SD-Standard Deviation; NRI-Non Resident Indian
Source: Survey

5.3.9 Size of Family

Distribution of sample according to size of family (Table 5.10) reveals that there is an inverse relation between size of family and gender status in the rural area, highest aggregate gender index for small families (0.41) and lowest aggregate index for big families (0.39). This is true for education, health and decision making indices. The social life (0.15) and atrocities indices (0.59) are highest for the biggest family size. There are more variations from the average (0.22) for small families. Rural-urban difference in aggregate gender index is highest for big families.

While aggregate gender index is high in small families in rural area (0.41), opposite is the case in urban area, where big families have the highest index (0.66). Aggregate index is low in medium families both in rural and urban areas (0.38 and 0.57 respectively). While small families have the highest (0.39) and medium families have the lowest education index (0.21) in the rural area, it is just inverse in the urban area with medium families having highest index (0.49) and small families having lowest index (0.12). Both in rural and urban areas, health index is high in small families (0.80 and 0.98 respectively) and low in big families (0.73 and 0.86 respectively). But in communication and social life, both in rural and urban areas, it is high in big families (0.14 and 0.22 respectively) and low in small families (0.09 and 0.10 respectively).

Education index is high among small families (0.39) in rural area and among medium families in urban area (0.49). It is high in small families and low in big families both in rural and urban areas. Regarding decision making, the index is high in medium and small families in rural and urban areas respectively (0.39 and 0.88 respectively). It is low in big and medium families in rural and urban areas (0.33 and 0.66 respectively). Atrocity index is high in big families

both in rural and urban areas (0.39 and 0.57 respectively). It is low in small families in the rural area (0.35) and medium families in the urban area (0.34).

ANOVA shows significant variation between groups in education index in the rural area and education and atrocities index in the urban area.

Table 5.10: Socio-economic Gender Indices and Size of Family

Gender Indices		Up to3		Between 4 & 5		Above 5		Total		ANOVA	
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	F	Sig.
Education	R	0.39	0.31	0.21	0.27	0.27	0.27	0.24	0.28	4.318	0.014
	U	0.12	0.17	0.49	0.31	0.46	0.35	0.46	0.32	3.867	0.025
	T	0.32	0.30	0.29	0.31	0.30	0.28	0.29	0.30	0.182	0.834
Health	R	0.80	0.31	0.74	0.34	0.73	0.33	0.74	0.34	0.262	0.770
	U	0.98	0.05	0.94	0.12	0.86	0.20	0.93	0.13	1.972	0.147
	T	0.84	0.28	0.79	0.31	0.75	0.32	0.79	0.31	0.880	0.416
Communication & Social life	R	0.09	0.17	0.12	0.14	0.14	0.16	0.13	0.14	0.687	0.504
	U	0.10	0.12	0.18	0.17	0.22	0.27	0.18	0.18	0.803	0.452
	T	0.09	0.16	0.14	0.15	0.15	0.18	0.14	0.15	1.044	0.353
Decision Making	R	0.34	0.41	0.39	0.33	0.33	0.35	0.37	0.34	0.631	0.533
	U	0.88	0.05	0.66	0.29	0.71	0.34	0.69	0.29	1.661	0.197
	T	0.48	0.42	0.47	0.34	0.39	0.37	0.45	0.36	0.402	0.248
Atrocities	R	0.35	0.11	0.37	0.15	0.39	0.21	0.38	0.16	0.426	0.654
	U	0.39	0.17	0.34	0.15	0.51	0.13	0.37	0.16	4.691	0.012
	T	0.36	0.13	0.36	0.15	0.41	0.20	0.37	0.16	1.753	0.175
Aggregate Index	R	0.41	0.23	0.38	0.17	0.39	0.20	0.39	0.18	0.124	0.884
	U	0.62	0.12	0.57	0.20	0.66	0.18	0.58	0.19	0.989	0.377
	T	0.46	0.22	0.44	0.20	0.43	0.21	0.44	0.20	0.278	0.757
N	R	17		152		56		225			
	U	6		60		9		75			
	T	23		212		65		300			

Note: R-Rural; U-Urban; T-Total; N-Number of observations; SD-Standard Deviation
Source: Survey

5.3.10 Number of Females

Education, health, decision-making, atrocities and aggregate gender indices are high for families, where number of females is less and vice versa in the total sample as shown in Table 5.11.

Aggregate gender index is more when the number of females is less in the family, both in rural (0.40) and urban (0.59) areas. Both in rural and urban areas, health (0.78 and 0.94 respectively) and atrocity (0.39 and 0.37 respectively) indices are highest in those families where the number of females is less.

Education index is highest, when number of females is less than three in the family, in rural area (0.25) and when number of females is more than three in the family, in urban area (0.46). Both in rural and urban areas, social life (0.13 and 0.18 respectively) and decision-making (0.38 and 0.70 respectively) indices are highest in those families where the number of females is high. Variations within the groups are highest (0.21) in families with less than three females. Rural-urban differences in aggregate gender index are nominal between the two categories.

Table 5.11: Socio-economic Gender Indices and Number of Females in the Family

Gender Indices	R/U	Less than 3		3 and Above		Total		ANOVA	
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	F	Sig.
Education	R	0.26	0.28	0.21	0.28	0.24	0.28	1.461	0.228
	U	0.45	0.31	0.46	0.36	0.46	0.32	0.010	0.921
	T	0.32	0.30	0.25	0.31	0.29	0.30	3.576	0.060
Health	R	0.78	0.30	0.71	0.36	0.74	0.34	2.608	0.108
	U	0.94	0.13	0.92	0.13	0.93	0.13	0.463	0.498
	T	0.83	0.27	0.74	0.35	0.79	0.31	6.232	0.013
Communication & Social life	R	0.11	0.13	0.14	0.16	0.13	0.14	1.768	0.185
	U	0.18	0.19	0.18	0.16	0.18	0.18	0.003	0.955
	T	0.13	0.15	0.15	0.16	0.14	0.15	0.408	0.524
Decision Making	R	0.37	0.36	0.38	0.32	0.37	0.34	0.017	0.898
	U	0.68	0.28	0.70	0.32	0.69	0.29	0.090	0.765
	T	0.47	0.36	0.43	0.34	0.45	0.36	0.912	0.340
Atrocities	R	0.39	0.17	0.36	0.16	0.38	0.16	1.141	0.287
	U	0.37	0.16	0.35	0.14	0.37	0.16	0.244	0.623
	T	0.38	0.17	0.36	0.15	0.37	0.16	1.193	0.276
Aggregate Index	R	0.40	0.19	0.38	0.18	0.39	0.18	0.884	0.348
	U	0.59	0.20	0.56	0.18	0.58	0.19	0.250	0.619
	T	0.46	0.21	0.41	0.19	0.44	0.20	5.061	0.025
N	R	113		112		225			
	U	53		22		75			
	T	166		134		300			

Note: R-Rural; U-Urban; T-Total; N-Number of observations; SD-Standard Deviation
Source: Survey

ANOVA shows significant variation between groups in education, health and aggregate indices in the total sample.

5.3.11 Monthly Income of the Family

When the population is classified as per monthly income, aggregate gender index and all the other indices except atrocity index are highest for the highest income group (0.63) as shown in Table 5.12. Indices are lowest for the income group 10000-15000 in education (0.23), for the income group below 5000 and for the income group 5000-10000 in health (0.76), for the income group below 5000 in decision making (0.37), for the income group 15000-20000 in atrocities (0.32) and social life (0.08).

Aggregate gender index is highest for the income group 10000-15000, in rural area (0.47) but it is highest for the income group above 20000, in the urban area (0.66). The index is lowest for the income group 15000-20000, in rural area (0.35) but it is lowest for the income group below 5000, in the urban area (0.43). In the rural area education status (0.30) is highest for the income group 15000-20000 and health status is highest for the lowest income group below 5000. The lowest health index (0.54) is for the highest income group. But, in urban area, both education (0.69) and health (0.96) indices are highest for the income group 5000-10000. Both in rural and urban areas, social life (0.21 and 0.23 respectively) and decision making (0.64 and 0.77 respectively) indices are the highest for the higher income groups. Also the atrocity index is highest for the income group 10000-15000 both in rural (0.42) and urban (0.40) areas. Variation within the group is highest for the income category 15000 – 20000 (0.21). Rural-urban variation in gender equity is more in the income group 5000 – 10000.

ANOVA shows significant variation between groups in education, communication and social life, decision-making and aggregate gender indices in the total sample. There are significant variations between groups in education, communication and social life and aggregate gender indices in the urban area.

Table 5.12: Socio-economic Gender Indices and Classification of Monthly Income

Gender Indices	R/U	Less than 5000		5000 - 10000		10000-15000		15000-20000		Above 20000		Total		ANOVA	
		M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	F	Sig.
Education	R	0.25	0.27	0.23	0.31	0.17	0.27	0.30	0.22	0.07	0.12	0.24	0.28	0.86	0.49
	U	0.46	0.39	0.69	0.22	0.31	0.23	0.27	0.29	0.48	0.33	0.46	0.32	3.31	0.11
	T	0.25	0.27	0.31	0.34	0.24	0.26	0.29	0.26	0.43	0.34	0.29	0.30	3.04	0.02
Health	R	0.76	0.32	0.73	0.36	0.68	0.35	0.70	0.35	0.55	0.42	0.74	0.34	0.81	0.52
	U	0.82	0.18	0.96	0.06	0.94	0.12	0.94	0.11	0.93	0.14	0.93	0.13	0.90	0.47
	T	0.76	0.32	0.76	0.34	0.80	0.29	0.84	0.26	0.88	0.24	0.79	0.31	1.38	0.24
Communi-cation & Social life	R	0.13	0.14	0.11	0.16	0.15	0.16	0.09	0.13	0.21	0.10	0.13	0.14	0.96	0.43
	U	0.16	0.06	0.10	0.11	0.19	0.21	0.07	0.09	0.24	0.19	0.18	0.18	2.89	0.03
	T	0.13	0.14	0.11	0.15	0.17	0.18	0.08	0.11	0.23	0.18	0.14	0.15	6.25	0.00
Decision Making	R	0.36	0.34	0.36	0.34	0.52	0.40	0.27	0.34	0.64	0.31	0.37	0.34	1.72	0.15
	U	0.68	0.36	0.64	0.31	0.60	0.34	0.52	0.32	0.77	0.23	0.69	0.29	2.31	0.07
	T	0.37	0.34	0.40	0.35	0.56	0.36	0.42	0.35	0.76	0.24	0.45	0.36	12.45	0.00
Atrocities	R	0.38	0.16	0.36	0.18	0.42	0.15	0.31	0.16	0.31	0.16	0.38	0.16	1.05	0.39
	U	0.25	0.06	0.33	0.13	0.40	0.23	0.33	0.20	0.39	0.13	0.37	0.16	1.19	0.32
	T	0.38	0.16	0.36	0.18	0.41	0.19	0.32	0.16	0.38	0.13	0.37	0.16	1.11	0.35
Aggregate Index	R	0.39	0.16	0.36	0.21	0.47	0.19	0.35	0.19	0.45	0.23	0.39	0.18	1.22	0.30
	U	0.43	0.08	0.51	0.16	0.53	0.21	0.50	0.21	0.66	0.17	0.58	0.19	3.95	0.01
	T	0.39	0.16	0.38	0.21	0.50	0.20	0.44	0.21	0.63	0.19	0.44	0.20	16.49	0.00
N	R	140		60		11		8		6		225			
	U	4		11		10		12		38		75			
	T	144		71		21		20		44		300			

Note: R-Rural; U-Urban; T-Total; N-Number of observations; M-Mean; SD-Standard Deviation
Source: Survey

5.4 Correlation between the Gender Indices

To analyse the relationship between the different indices, Pearson correlation between the indices has been calculated. Correlations are calculated for the total, rural and urban sample.

5.4.1 Correlation between Gender Indices in Total Sample

In the total sample, Pearson correlation between education index and health, communication and social life and decision-making indices are significant at 1 per cent level (Table 5.13). Communication and social life index and decision-making and atrocities indices are also significantly correlated. There is a positively significant relation between aggregate gender index and all the indices in the model. In the sample, correlation between health index and communication and social life index is significant at 5 per cent level.

Table 5.13: Correlation between Gender Indices in Total Sample

Gender Index		Gender Indices					
		Education	Health	Communication & Social life	Decision Making	Atrocities	Aggregate Index
Education	PC	1.000	**0.255	**0.150	**0.167	-0.026	0.299
	Sig.		0.000	0.009	0.004	0.649	0.000
Health	PC		1.000	*0.115	0.068	0.102	0.512
	Sig.			0.046	0.242	0.078	0.000
Communi-cation & Social life	PC			1.000	**0.441	**0.237	0.632
	Sig.				0.000	0.000	0.000
Decision Making	PC				1.000	0.059	0.719
	Sig.					0.310	0.000
Atrocities	PC					1.000	0.395
	Sig.						0.000
Aggregate Index	PC						1.000
	Sig.						.

Note: N=300; *-Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2 tailed); **- Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2 tailed); PC-Pearson Correlation; Sig.- Significance (2-tailed); N-Number of Observations

Source: Survey

5.4.2 Correlation between Gender Indices in Rural Area

In rural sample, Pearson correlation between education index and health index, between communication and social life index and decision-making and atrocities indices are positively significant at 1 per cent level (Table 5.14). Aggregate gender index and all the other indices in the model are also significantly correlated at 1 per cent level.

Table 5.14: Correlation between Gender Indices in Rural Area

Gender Index		Gender Indices					
		Education	Health	Communication & Social life	Decision Making	Atrocities	Aggregate Index
Education	PC	1.000	**0.202	0.118	0.071	-0.056	0.228
	Sig.		0.002	0.079	0.287	0.408	0.001
Health	PC		1.000	0.101	-0.044	0.131	0.520
	Sig.			0.129	0.512	0.050	0.000
Communi-cation & Social life	PC			1.000	**0.405	**0.172	0.589
	Sig.				0.000	0.010	0.000
Decision Making	PC				1.000	0.007	0.644
	Sig.					0.921	0.000
Atrocities	PC					1.000	0.383
	Sig.						0.000
Aggregate Index	PC						1.000
	Sig.						

Note: N=225; **- Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2 tailed); (iii) PC-Pearson Correlation; Sig.- Significance (2-tailed); N-Number of Observations

Source: Survey

5.4.3 Correlation between Gender Indices in Urban Area

Pearson correlation for the urban areas reveals that communication and social life index and decision-making and atrocities indices are significantly correlated at 1 per cent level (Table 5.15). Correlation between decision-making and atrocities index is also significant at 1 per cent level. There is a positive significant correlation between aggregate gender index and communication and social life, decision-making and atrocities indices in the urban area.

Both in the rural and urban sample correlation between communication and social life index and decision-making and atrocities indices are positively significant. Aggregate gender index and all the other indices in the model are significantly correlated at 1 per cent level in the rural sample. But in the urban sample correlation is significant between aggregate gender index and communication and social life, decision-making and atrocities indices only. While education index and health index have a significantly positive correlation in urban area this is not so in rural area.

Table 5.15: Correlation between Gender Indices in Urban Area

Gender Index		Gender Indices					
		Education	Health	Communication & Social life	Decision Making	Atrocities	Aggregate Index
Education	PC	1.000	0.197	0.093	0.005	0.076	0.118
	Sig.		0.090	0.430	0.964	0.519	0.313
Health	PC		1.000	-0.023	0.006	0.000	0.217
	Sig.			0.846	0.960	0.997	0.061
Communi-cation & Social life	PC			1.000	**0.481	**0.434	0.737
	Sig.				0.000	0.000	0.000
Decision Making	PC				1.000	**0.323	0.756
	Sig.					0.005	0.000
Atrocities	PC					1.000	0.632
	Sig.						0.000
Aggregate Index	PC						1.000
	Sig.						

Note: (i) N=75

(ii) **- Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2 tailed)

(iii) PC-Pearson Correlation; Sig.- Significance (2-tailed); N-Number of Observations

Source: Survey

5.5 Regression Models

In this section, simple and multiple regression models are calculated by taking gender equity as the dependent variable and the different socio-economic variables as independent variables.

5.5.1 Variables Used in the Models and their Explanation

The variables used and their corresponding values given in the regression models are given as follows.

EDU_F	=	Education of Female Respondent
EMP_F	=	Employment of Female Respondent
EDU_H	=	Education of Male Respondent
EMP_H	=	Activity of Head of the Family
SIZE_FAM	=	Number of Family Members
SIZE_F	=	Number of Female Members in the family
TYPE_FAM	=	Type of Family
INC_F	=	Monthly Income of Female Respondent
INC_FAM	=	Monthly Income of Family
AREA	=	Place of Residence
SEC_F	=	Sector of Job of Female
U	=	Random Error Term

By giving values for,

EDU_F = 0 – Illiterate; 1 – Lower Primary; 2 – Upper Primary; 3 – High School; 4 – Pre Degree; 5 – Degree; 6 – Post Graduate;7 – Professional

EMP_F = 0 – Unemployed; 1 – Coolie; 2 – Skilled Labour; 3 – Service; 4 – Professional

EDU_H = 0 – Illiterate; 1 – Lower Primary; 2 – Upper Primary; 3 – High School; 4 – Pre Degree; 5 – Degree; 6 – Post Graduate; 7 – Professional/Technical

EMP_H = 0 – Unemployed; 1- Coolie; 2- Skilled Labour; 3 – Agriculture; 4 – Business; 5- Service; 6- Professional; 7- NRI

AREA = 0 – Rural; 1 Urban

TYPE_FAM = 0 – Joint Family; 1 – Nuclear Family

SEC_F = 0 – Unemployed; 1 – Private; 2 – Quasi Government; 3 – Government

5.5.2 Simple Regression Models

In this section, simple regression between the dependent variable as gender equity and independent variables as place of residence, education of female respondent, employment of female respondent, income of female respondent, number of members in the family, monthly income of the family, number of females, type of family, education of the head of the family, sector of job of female and activity of head of the family are calculated for the total, rural and urban samples separately. Gender equity is measured by using aggregate gender index. The computation of aggregate gender index is explained in the Section 5.2. The value of aggregate gender index ranges from 0 to 1.

In the total sample, area, education of female respondent, employment of female respondent, income of female respondent, monthly income of the family, education of head of the family, sector of job of female, activity of head of the family and gender status are positively related at 1 per cent level of significance. Size of family, number of females and gender equity are negatively related at 5 per cent level of significance (Table 5.16). Type of family is positively related with gender status but not statistically significant.

Table 5.16: Simple Regression between Gender Status (y) and Socio-Economic Characteristics (x) in Total Sample

Variables	B Constant	B Coefficient
AREA	0.387 (31.311)	0.195000 (7.895)*
EDU_F	0.278 (13.581)	0.052190 (9.008)*
EMP_F	0.389 (29.836)	0.061900 (6.735)*
INC_F	0.399 (34.294)	0.000019 (8.038)*
SIZE_FAM	0.548 (10.462)	-0.023310 (-2.202)**
INC_FAM	0.359 (24.236)	0.000007 (7.628)*
SIZE_F	0.512 (15.602)	-0.030310 (-2.472)**
TYPE_FAM	0.417 (23.475)	0.033910 (1.433)
EDU_H	0.319 (16.554)	0.039620 (7.296)*
SEC_F	0.396 (30.039)	0.076680 (5.665)*
EMP_H	0.380 (17.909)	0.017440 (3.170)*

Note: Number of observations=300; *Significant at 1 per cent level; ** Significant at 5 per cent level; Figures in the parenthesis are t values

Source: Survey

In the rural sample, the education of female respondent, employment of female respondent, income of female respondent and gender equity are positively and significantly related at 1 per cent level (Table 5.17). Education of the head of the family, sector of job of female and gender equity are positively related and statistically significant at 5 per cent level. Size of family, number of females, type of family, activity of head of the family and gender equity are negatively related but not statistically significant. Monthly income of the family and gender equity are positively related, but not statistically significant.

Table 5.17: Simple Regression between Gender Status (y) and Socio-Economic Characteristics (x) in Rural Sample

Variables	B Constant	B Coefficient
EDU_F	0.311 (13.861)	0.030600 (4.000)
EMP_F	0.366 (26.258)	0.036040 (2.912)*
INC_F	0.369 (28.401)	0.000020 (3.417)*
SIZE_FAM	0.424 (7.823)	-0.007401 (-0.696)
INC_F	0.380 (22.439)	0.000001 (0.601)
SIZE_F	0.420 (12.272)	-0.012440 (-1.014)
TYPE_FAM	0.389 (23.095)	-0.004379 (-0.179)
EDU_H	0.350 (16.779)	0.015910 (2.153)**
SEC_F	0.370 (25.605)	0.043770 (2.185)**
EMP_H	0.391 (19.194)	-0.001271 (-0.213)

Note: Number of Observations =225; *Significant at 1 per cent level; ** Significant at 5 per cent level; Figures in the parentheses are t values
Source: Survey

In urban area, education of female respondent, employment of female respondent, income of female respondent, monthly income of family, education of head of family, sector of job of females and gender equity are positively and significantly related (Table 5.18). Number of members, number of females, type of family and gender equity are negatively related and statistically insignificant. Activity of head of family and gender status is positively related but statistically insignificant.

In the total sample, effect on gender status is highest by the variable education of female respondent, followed by income of female respondent. All the variables considered, except type of family have a statistically significant relation with gender equity.

Table 5.18: Simple Regression between Gender Status (y) and Socio-Economic Characteristics (x) in Urban Sample

Variables	B Constant	B Coefficient
EDU_F	0.300 (4.773)	0.060730 (4.738)*
EMP_F	0.506 (19.495)	0.057870 (4.569)*
INC_F	0.519 (20.778)	0.000012 (4.302)*
SIZE_FAM	0.605 (4.992)	-0.005137 (-0.190)*
INC_FAM	0.427 (10.007)	0.000007 (4.146)*
SIZE_F	0.631 (8.841)	-0.022030 (-0.711)
TYPE_FAM	0.668 (12.606)	-0.103000 (-1.770)
EDU_H	0.375 (6.213)	0.042820 (3.655)*
SEC_F	0.528 (20.594)	0.061980 (3.619)*
EMP_H	0.505 (6.812)	0.016340 (1.087)

Note: Number of Observations=75; *Significant at 1 per cent level; Figures in the parentheses are t values

Source: Survey

Further, all variables except size of family and number of females have a positive relation between gender equity. Both in rural and urban areas, the main effect on gender equity is by education of female respondent. Income of female respondent, employment of female respondent, education of head of family and sector of job are positively related and statistically significant at 1 per cent level irrespective of rural and urban areas. Size of family, number of females and type of family are negatively related and not statistically significant, both in rural and urban area. Monthly income and activity of the head of the family are positively related but statistically insignificant in the rural and urban areas respectively.

5.5.3 Multiple Regression Models

In this section, five multiple regression analysis are also carried out separately for place of residence, religion, caste, activity of the female respondent and activity of head of the family, to identify the factors that influence the gender equity. Total number of observations in the analysis is 300. The description of the corresponding values of independent variables has been given in Section 5.5.1.

Methodology

Gender equity is measured by using aggregate gender index. The computation of aggregate gender index is explained in the Section 5.1. The value of aggregate gender index ranges from 0 to 1.

The theoretical relation between explanatory variables and dependent variable is summarised as follows. In general, educational attainment of female respondent is found to increase gender status. When the female respondent is educated, there is chance for better health, better employment, better social life and better education for children, especially female children. Hence, we hypothesise a positive relation between female education and gender equity.

The influence of female employment on gender status is direct. Economic independence helps women to move to higher gender equity. In general, employment increases gender status. Hence, we hypothesise a positive relation between employment of female respondent and gender equity.

Education of the head of family provides better educational, health and other facilities for the children and family irrespective of gender. So gender equity is high when the head of the family is educated. Hence, it is hypothesised that the relation between education of the head of the family and gender equity is positive.

When the number of members increases, it is difficult to provide all facilities like education and health to every member in many families. Usually,

females are deprived of many facilities when size of the family is big. So the gender equity will be low in such families. Hence, we hypothesise a negative relation between size of the family and gender equity.

Monthly income of the family is another important variable that affects gender status. Income represents the economic status of the family. As a result, individuals, both males and females from rich families have more access to many facilities. Hence, we hypothesise a positive relation between monthly income of the family and gender equity.

Residential status has a strong bearing on gender equity. It is assumed that because of better educational, employment and health facilities and also change in attitudes, gender status is high in urban area. Hence, we hypothesise that gender equity will improve when we move to urban area.

Religion bears an influential role as regards gender equity. Compared to Hindus and Christians, Muslim women lag behind in education, economic and social life. Hence, it is hypothesised that religion has a significant influence on gender equity.

In a country like India, caste plays a dominant role with respect to gender equity. Despite the policies of reservation to promote backward castes, they are far behind forward castes in terms of education, employment, income and other facilities. Hence, we hypothesise a shift in gender status, when we move from backward castes to forward castes.

Activity of the head of the family is another important variable affecting gender status. When the head of the family is employed, especially in higher status jobs, gender equity increases. So, it is hypothesised that the influence of the activity of the head of the family on gender status is positive.

Empirical Results

This section discusses the empirical results of the models. The extent of the influence of explanatory variables is examined by using multiple regression models.

Place of Residence:

The following two multiple regression analyses are carried out to examine the influence of socio-economic variables with special impact of the variable AREA on gender equity.

$$GE = a_0 + a_1\,EDU\_F + a_2\,EMP\_F + a_3\,EDU\_H + a_4\,SIZE\_FAM + a_5\,INC\_FAM + a_6\,AREA + U_1 \ldots\ldots \text{(i)}$$

$$GE = b_0 + b_1\,EDU\_F + b_2\,EMP\_F + b_3\,EDU\_H + b_4\,SIZE\_FAM + b_5\,INC\_FAM + b_6\,AREA + U_2 \ldots\ldots \text{(ii)}$$

Where,
Equations (i) and (ii) show the influence of the socio-economic variables on gender equity where we analyse the comparative influence of the variable AREA which is taken as dummy variable with the values like Rural – 1 if Rural, Zero Otherwise [Eqn. (i)] and Urban – 1 if Urban, Zero otherwise [Eqn.(ii)].

The results of the determinants of gender equity in rural and urban areas are given in Table 5.19. The joint effects of explanatory variables account for 28.10 per cent each in rural and urban area. Education of female respondent and employment of female respondent are observed to be statistically significant at 1 per cent level and positively related with gender equity both in rural and urban areas. Education of head of family and monthly income of the family are positively related with gender equity both in rural and urban areas and this relationship is statistically significant at 10 per cent level. Size of family is negatively related to gender status both in rural and urban areas. So, increase in the size of the family decreases gender equity and vice versa. The relationship between size of the family and gender status is not significant statistically. Place

of residence and gender status are statistically significant at 1 per cent level, but the negative coefficient of AREA in Eqn.(i) implies that gender equity and residence in rural area are inversely related.

Table 5.19: Gender Equity and Place of Residence

Variables	Rural =1; Else=0	Urban=1; Else=0
(Constant)	0.4230000000 (7.381)	0.3190000 (6.129)
EDU_F	0.0267400000 (2.580)*	0.0267400 (2.580)*
EMP_F	0.0300200000 (2.998)*	0.0300200 (2.998)*
EDU_H	0.0017030000 (0.197)***	0.0017030 (0.197)***
SIZE_FAM	-0.0043320000 (-0.455)	-0.0043320 (-0.455)
INC_FAM	0.0000002627 (0.183)***	0.0000002 (0.183)***
AREA	-0.104 (-3.187)*	0.1040000 (3.187)*
R^2	0.281	0.281

Note: *Significant at 1 per cent level; ** Significant at 5 per cent level; ***Significant at 10 per cent level; Figures in the parentheses are t values

Source: Survey

The overall picture that emerges from the multiple regression analysis is that the factors mostly likely to determine gender equity in rural and urban areas are education of female respondent and employment of female respondent. In addition to this, education of head of the family and monthly income of the family and gender equity are positively related and statistically significant (10 per cent level). Size of family and gender equity are inversely related both in rural and urban areas. So the results confirm the theoretical relation between gender equity and place of residence.

Religion:

The following three multiple regression analysis are carried out to find out the relative importance of the variable RELIGION among other socio economic variables on gender equity.

$$GE = a_0 + a_1 EDU\_F + a_2 EMP\_F + a_3 EDU\_H + a_4 SIZE\_FAM + a_5 INC\_FAM + a_6 AREA + a_7 RELIGION + U_1 \ldots . (i)$$

$$GE = b_0 + b_1 EDU\_F + b_2 EMP\_F + b_3 EDU\_H + b_4 SIZE\_FAM + b_5 INC\_FAM + b_6 AREA + b_7 RELIGION + U_2 \ldots . (ii)$$

$$GE = c_0 + c_1 EDU\_F + c_2 EMP\_F + c_3 EDU\_H + c_4 SIZE\_FAM + c_5 INC\_FAM + c_6 AREA + c_7 RELIGION + U_3 \ldots .. (iii)$$

Where,
Equations (i) to (iii) show the influence of the socio-economic variables on gender equity where we analyse the comparative influence of the variable RELIGION which is taken as dummy variable with the values like Hindu – 1 if Hindus, Zero Otherwise [Eqn. (i)]; Muslim – 1 if Muslim, Zero otherwise [Eqn. (ii)]; Christian – 1 if Christian, Zero otherwise [Eqn. (iii)].

Determinants of gender equity in different religions are given in Table 5.20. The joint effect of explanatory variables in the model accounts for 30.0 per cent, 32.5 per cent and 28.2 per cent respectively for Hindus, Muslims and Christians. Education of the female respondent has a positive relation with gender equity in all religions and the relation is also statistically significant at 1 per cent level. Employment of female respondent and gender equity are positively related and significant at 1 per cent level in Hindus and Christians and at 10 per cent level in Muslims. Education of head of the family, monthly income of the family and gender equity, though not statistically significant shows a positive relation. There is a strong relation between place of residence and gender equity among Christians (at 1 per cent level) and among Hindus and Muslims (at 5 per cent level). Size of family and gender equity is negatively related but the relation

is not significant in all religions. The negative coefficient of RELIGION in Eqn.(ii) shows that the gender equity is low among Muslims.

Table 5.20: Gender Equity and Religion

Variables	Hindu= Else=0	Muslim=1 Else=0	Christian Else=0
(Constant)	0.2730000 (5.062)	0.325000 (6.422)	0.3170000 (6.058)
EDU_F	0.0279200 (2.724)*	0.028630 (2.843)*	0.0267000 (2.572)**
EMP_F	0.0246300 (2.444)**	0.017310 (1.705)***	0.0298600 (2.976)*
EDU_H	0.0037230 (0.434)	0.004296 (0.510)	0.0015780 (0.182)
SIZE_FAM	-0.0028800 (-0.305)	-0.002975 (-0.321)	-0.0044660 (-0.468)
INC_FAM	0.0000005 (0.411)	0.000002 (1.090)	0.0000003 (0.220)
AREA	0.0820500 (2.472)**	0.071000 (2.179)**	0.1050000 (3.204)*
RELIGION	0.0604000 (2.827)*	-0.122000 (-4.356)*	0.0103500 (0.430)
R^2	0.300	0.325000	0.2820000

Note: *Significant at 1 per cent level; ** Significant at 5 per cent level; ***Significant at 10 per cent level; Figures in the parentheses are t values

Source: Survey

It can be concluded that education of female respondent and gender equity has a positive relationship in all religions and it is statistically significant except in the case of Christians. Employment of female respondent and gender equity is positively related and statistically significant. Hindus and Muslims have a strong relation with gender equity but the relation is positive in the case of Hindus and negative for Muslims. So, the results confirm the theoretical relation between religion and gender equity.

Caste:

The following four multiple regression analysis are carried out to find out the relative importance of the variable CASTE among other socio economic variables on gender equity.

$$GE = a_0 + a_1 EDU\_F + a_2 EMP\_F + a_3 EDU\_H + a_4 SIZE\_FAM + a_5 INC\_FAM + a_6 AREA + a_7 CASTE + U_1 \ldots\ldots \text{(i)}$$

$$GE = b_0 + b_1 EDU\_F + b_2 EMP\_F + b_3 EDU\_H + b_4 SIZE\_FAM + b_5 INC\_FAM + b_6 AREA + b_7 CASTE + U_2 \ldots\ldots \text{(ii)}$$

$$GE = c_0 + c_1 EDU\_F + c_2 EMP\_F + c_3 EDU\_H + c_4 SIZE\_FAM + c_5 INC\_FAM + c_6 AREA + c_7 CASTE + U_3 \ldots\ldots \text{(iii)}$$

$$GE = d_0 + d_1 EDU\_F + d_2 EMP\_F + d_3 EDU\_H + d_4 SIZE\_FAM + d_5 INC\_FAM + d_6 AREA + d_7 CASTE + U_4 \ldots\ldots \text{(iv)}$$

Where,
Equations (i) to (iv) show the influence of the socio-economic variables on gender equity where we analyse the comparative influence of the variable CASTE which is taken as dummy variable with the values like SC – 1 if SC, Zero Otherwise [Eqn. (i)]; ST – 1 if ST, Zero otherwise [Eqn. (ii)]; OBC – 1 if OBC, Zero otherwise [Eqn. (iii)]; FC – 1 if FC, Zero otherwise [Eqn. (iv)];

Determinants of gender equity in different castes are revealed from Table 5.21. The joint effect of explanatory variable in the model accounts for 28.2 per cent for SC, 28.41 per cent for ST, 29.60 per cent for OBC and 29.00 per cent for forward caste. There are strong positive relations between education of female respondent, employment of female respondent, place of residence and gender equity in all castes. Size of family and gender equity are negatively related while monthly income and gender equity are positively related in all castes, but the relations are not statistically significant in all castes. OBC has an inverse relation with gender equity, significant at 5 per cent level. The negative coefficient of CASTE in Eqn.(iii) shows that impact of OBC on gender status is negative. The other castes have a positive but not significant relationship with gender equity.

Table 5.21: Gender Equity and Caste

Variables	SC=1; Else=0	ST=1; Else=0	OBC=1; Else=0	Forward=1; Else=0
(Constant)	0.3170000 (6.055)	0.3130000 (5.968)	0.3480000 (6.569)	0.3110000 (5.989)
EDU_F	0.0267000 (2.573)**	0.0290200 (2.737)*	0.0276900 (2.692)*	0.0258300 (2.499)**
EMP_F	0.0299700 (2.989)*	0.0284400 (2.806)*	0.0288400 (2.901)*	0.0304200 (3.050)*
EDU_H	0.0019360 (0.223)	0.0206000 (0.238)	-0.0004557 (-0.053)	-0.0008070 (-0.093)
SIZE_FAM	-0.0043810 (-0.459)	-0.0047620 (-0.499)	-0.0051260 (-0.542)	-0.0045260 (-0.477)
INC_FAM	0.0000003 (0.223)	0.0000001 (0.137)	0.0000007 (0.516)	0.0000005 (0.393)
AREA	0.1040000 (3.171)*	0.1040000 (3.171)*	0.0936100 (2.867)*	0.0969500 (2.962)*
CASTE	0.0179800 (0.458)	0.0517600 (1.017)	-0.0501200 (-2.452)**	0.0399000 (1.863)
R^2	0.2820000	0.2840000	0.2960000	0.2900000

Note: *Significant at 1 per cent level; ** Significant at 5 per cent level; ***Significant at 10 per cent level; Figures in the parentheses are t values

Source: Survey

Thus, education of female respondent, employment of female respondent, place of residence and gender equity are positively and significantly related to gender equity while monthly income of the family is positively and not significantly related to gender equity. Size of family and gender equity are negatively and not significantly related in all castes.

Activity of Female Respondent:

The following five multiple regression analysis are carried out to find out the relative importance of the variable employment of female respondent (EMP_F) among other socio economic variables on gender equity.

$$GE = a_0 + a_1 EDU\_F + a_2 EDU\_H + a_3 SIZE\_FAM + a_4 INC\_FAM + a_5 AREA + a_6 EMP\_F + U_1 \ldots\ldots \text{(i)}$$

$$GE = b_0 + b_1 EDU\_F + b_2 EDU\_H + b_3 SIZE\_FAM + b_4 INC\_FAM + b_5 AREA + b_6 EMP\_F + U_2 \ldots\ldots \text{(ii)}$$

$$GE = c_0 + c_1 EDU\_F + c_2 EDU\_H + c_3 SIZE\_FAM + c_4 INC\_FAM + c_5 AREA + c_6 EMP\_F + U_3 \ldots\ldots \text{(iii)}$$

$$GE = d_0 + d_1 EDU\_F + d_2 EDU\_H + d_3 SIZE\_FAM + d_4 INC\_FAM + d_5 AREA + d_6 EMP\_F + U_4 \ldots\ldots (iv)$$

$$GE = e_0 + e_1 EDU\_F + e_2 EDU\_H + e_3 SIZE\_FAM + e_4 INC\_FAM + e_5 AREA + e_6 EMP\_F + U_5 \ldots\ldots (v)$$

Where,

Equations (i) to (v) show the influence of the socio-economic variables on gender equity where we analyse the comparative influence of the variable activity of female respondent (EMP_F) which is taken as dummy variable with the values like Unemployed – 1 if Unemployed, Zero Otherwise [Eqn. (i)]; Coolie – 1 if Coolie, Zero otherwise [Eqn. (ii)]; Skilled Labour – 1 if Skilled Labour, Zero otherwise [Eqn. (iii)]; Service – 1 if Service, Zero otherwise [Eqn. (iv)]; Professionals – 1 if Professional, Zero otherwise [Eqn. (v)].

The results of determinants of gender equity in different activities of female respondent are explained in Table 5.22.

The combined effect of independent variables account for 27.4 per cent in unemployed, 25.9 per cent in coolie, 26.7 per cent in skilled labour, 27.3 per cent in service sector and 26.0 per cent in professionals. Education of female respondent, place of residence and gender equity have a strong positive significant relation in all activities. While monthly income and gender equity are positively related, size of family and gender equity are negatively related in all categories of activities. But, the relations are not statistically significant. The negative coefficient of EMP_F in Eqn.(i) shows that unemployed has more impact in creating low gender equity.

Education of female respondent, place of residence and gender equity are positively and significantly related in all activities. Unemployed and Gender equity are inversely related and statistically significant at 5 per cent level.

Table 5.22: Gender Equity and Activity of Female Respondent

Variables	Unemployed=1 Else=0	Coolie=1 Else=0	Skilled Labour=1 Else=0	Service=1 Else=0	Professional=1 Else=0
(Constant)	0.3570000 (6.672)	0.323000 (5.893)	0.321000 (6.104)	0.3320000 (6.352)	0.329000 (6.239)
EDU_F	0.0333700 (3.358)*	0.037590 (3.739)*	0.037060 (3.754)*	0.0298800 (2.904)*	0.035830 (3.513)*
EDU_H	0.0011150 (0.128)	-0.002697 (-0.310)	-0.003073 (-0.358)	-0.0003200 (-0.037)	-0.002907 (-0.337)
SIZE_FAM	-0.0047690 (-0.498)	-0.006649 (-0.689)	-0.006191 (-0.645)	-0.0054930 (-0.574)	-0.006687 (-0.694)
INC_FAM	0.0000005 (0.368)	0.000001 (0.822)	0.000001 (0.887)	0.0000002 (0.138)	0.000001 (0.880)
AREA	0.1040000 (3.181)*	0.099530 (3.005)*	0.102000 (3.087)*	0.1040000 (3.168)*	0.098180 (2.963)*
EMP_F	-0.0543400 (-2.468)**	0.009984 (0.334)	0.128000 (1.761)***	0.0813200 (2.366)**	0.036830 (0.516)
R^2	0.2740000	0.259000	0.267000	0.2730000	0.260000

Note: *Significant at 1 per cent level; ** Significant at 5 per cent level; ***Significant at 10 per cent level; Figures in the parentheses are t values

Source: Survey

Activity of the Head of the Family:

The following eight multiple regression models are carried out to find out the relative importance of the variable employment of head of family (EMP_H) among other socio- economic variables on gender equity.

$$GE = a_0 + a_1 EDU\_F + a_2 EMP\_F + a_3 EDU\_H + a_4 INC\_FAM + a_5 SIZE\_FAM + a_6 AREA + a_7 EMP\_H + U_1 \ldots\ldots (i)$$

$$GE = b_0 + b_1 EDU\_F + b_2 EMP\_F + b_3 EDU\_H + b_4 INC\_FAM + b_5 SIZE\_FAM + b_6 AREA + b_7 EMP\_H + U_2 \ldots\ldots (ii)$$

$$GE = c_0 + c_1 EDU\_F + c_2 EMP\_F + c_3 EDU\_H + c_4 INC\_FAM + c_5 SIZE\_FAM + c_6 AREA + c_7 EMP\_H + U_3 \ldots\ldots (iii)$$

$$GE = d_0 + d_1 EDU\_F + d_2 EMP\_F + d_3 EDU\_H + d_4 INC\_FAM + d_5 SIZE\_FAM + d_6 AREA + d_7 EMP\_H + U_4 \ldots\ldots (iv)$$

$$GE = e_0 + e_1 EDU\_F + e_2 EMP\_F + e_3 EDU\_H + e_4 INC\_FAM + e_5 SIZE\_FAM + e_6 AREA + e_7 EMP\_H + U_5 \ldots\ldots (v)$$

$$GE = f_0 + f_1 EDU\_F + f_2 EMP\_F + f_3 EDU\_H + f_4 INC\_FAM + f_5 SIZE\_FAM + f_6 AREA + f_7 EMP\_H + U_6 \ldots\ldots (vi)$$

$$GE = g_0 + g_1 EDU\_F + g_2 EMP\_F + g_3 EDU\_H + g_4 INC\_FAM + g_5 SIZE\_FAM + g_6 AREA + g_7 EMP\_H + U_7 \ldots\ldots (vii)$$

$$GE = h_0 + h_1 EDU\_F + h_2 EMP\_F + h_3 EDU\_H + h_4 INC\_FAM + h_5 SIZE\_FAM + h_6 AREA + h_7 EMP\_H + U_8 \ldots\ldots (viii)$$

Where,

Equations (i) to (viii) show the influence of the socio-economic variables on gender equity where we analyse the comparative influence of the variable activity of head of family (EMP_H) which is taken as dummy variable with the values like Unemployed – 1 if Unemployed, Zero otherwise [Eqn. (i)]; Coolie – 1 if Coolie, Zero otherwise [Eqn. (ii)]; Skilled Labour – 1 if Skilled Labour, Zero otherwise [Eqn. (iii)]; Agriculturist – 1 if Agriculturist, Zero otherwise [Eqn. (iv)]; Business – 1 if Business, Zero otherwise [Eqn. (v)]; Service – 1 if Service, Zero otherwise [Eqn. (vi)]; Professional – 1 if Professional, zero otherwise [Eqn. (vii)]; NRI – 1 if NRI, Zero otherwise [Eqn. (viii)].

In this model, determinants of gender equity as per different activities are explained. The total effect of explanatory variables in gender equity accounts for 28.1 per cent among unemployed, 29.0 per cent for coolie, 28.2 per cent for skilled labour, 28.1 per cent for agriculturists, 28.3 per cent for business, 28.3 per cent for service sector, 28.6 per cent for professionals and 28.8 persons for NRI (Table 5.23). The relation between education of female respondent, employment of female respondent, place of residence and gender equity is very strong and positive in all activities. Employment of female respondent and gender equity among NRI show a positive relation, significant at 5 per cent level. In all activities, monthly income of the family and gender equity have a positive relation and size of family and gender equity have a negative relation, but the relationships are not significant statistically.

Table 5.23: Gender Equity and Activity of Head of Household

Variables	Unemployed = 1 Else=0	Coolie= 1 Else=0	Skilled Labour= 1 Else=0	Agriculture=1; Else=0	Business=1; Else=0	Service=1 Else=0	Professional=1 Else=0	NRI=1; Else=0
(Constant)	0.3200000 (6.102)	0.2750000 (4.839)	0.3160000 (6.007)	0.3180000 (6.085)	0.3200000 (6.138)	0.3150000 (6.025)	0.31800000 (6.126)	0.3210000 (6.183)
EDU_F	0.0267900 (2.578)*	0.0303800 (2.895)*	0.0267900 (2.581)*	0.0268500 (2.581)*	0.0277600 (2.661)*	0.0272500 (2.622)*	0.02952000 (2.806)*	0.0279000 (2.694)*
EMP_F	0.0301100 (2.992)*	0.0287400 (2.876)*	0.0294600 (2.912)*	0.0298500 (2.960)*	0.0286000 (2.819)*	0.0313100 (3.080)*	0.02931000 (2.929)*	0.0251800 (2.422)**
EDU_H	0.0015050 (0.170)	0.0036840 (0.425)	0.0018930 (0.218)	0.0017200 (0.198)	0.0016370 (0.189)	0.0028340 (0.322)	-0.00184800 (-0.206)	0.0018200 (0.211)
INC_FAM	0.0000002 (0.180)	0.0000003 (0.232)	0.0000003 (0.225)	0.0000002 (0.166)	0.0000002 (0.116)	0.0000003 (0.208)	0.00000002 (0.014)	0.0000008 (0.565)
SIZE_FAM	-0.0043120 (-0.452)	-0.0012600 (-0.201)	-0.0042080 (-0.441)	-0.0041320 (-0.429)	-0.0039490 (-0.414)	-0.0038470 -(0.403)	-0.00362300 (-0.381)	-0.0045310 (-0.477)
AREA	0.1040000 (3.177)*	0.1110000 (3.386)*	0.1040000 (3.190)*	0.1040000 (3.186)*	0.1070000 (3.256)*	0.1050000 (3.211)*	0.10300000 (3.170)*	0.0971500 (2.961)*
EMP_H	-0.0049010 (-0.105)	0.0492200 (1.910)***	0.0151300 (0.431)	-0.0083460 (-.159)	-0.0251500 (-0.885)	-0.0201900 (-0.753)	0.00987400 (1.458)	-0.0645900 (-1.664)***
R^2	0.2810000	0.2900000	0.2820000	0.2810000	0.2830000	0.2830000	0.28600000	0.2880000

Note: *Significant at 1 per cent level; ** Significant at 5 per cent level; ***Significant at 10 per cent level; Figures in the parentheses are t values
Source: Survey

Among all activities of the head of the households, education of the female respondent, employment of female respondent, place of residence and gender equity have a positive relation and strong statistical significance at 1 per cent level. In employment of female respondent and gender equity among NRI, the relationship is positive and statistically significant at 5 per cent level.

Thus, among the explanatory variables, education of female respondent, employment of female respondent and place of residence are positively related and statistically significant both in rural and urban area, in all religions and castes and in different categories of activity of female respondent and activity of head of the family. Similarly, monthly income is positively related with gender equity while size of the family is negatively related with gender equity. But, here the relationships are not statistically significant. Impact on gender equity is low in rural area in place of residence, among Muslims in religious category, in OBC in castes, in unemployed males and females in activities of the respondents, because the coefficients are negative.

It is important to note that when the number of observation is limited, the exact magnitude of the change in the dependent variable is difficult to predict with accuracy. So the above multiple linear regression models are intended to explain the nature of relationship between the variables rather than the exact magnitude of the change in the variables.

5.6 Conclusion

In this chapter, rural-urban variations in gender equity are analysed with the help of gender indices. The aggregate gender index for the whole sample is 0.44. The highest gender index is for health and the lowest index is for communication and social life. On the basis of place of residence, gender equity is better in urban area (0.58) than in rural area (0.39).

Gender index is high for Hindus, followed by Christians and Muslims. Aggregate gender index for forward castes is greater than index for backward castes. Both in rural and urban area, employed females have high gender equity compared to unemployed females. Aggregate gender index, according to activity of female respondents shows that gender index is high for professionals. On the basis of education of the head of the family, gender equity is high, when the head of the family is postgraduate. As per the activity of the head of the family, aggregate gender index is high if the head of the family is a professional and low if head of the family is unemployed. Gender equity is more, when the family size is small.

Aggregate gender index and all the other indices are high for the highest family monthly income group. In the total sample, correlation between education index and health index, communication and social life and decision making indices are significant at 1 per cent level.

In the simple regression models for the total sample, in all the variables considered, except type of family have a statistically significant relation with gender equity. Both in rural and urban areas, education, employment and income of female respondents and gender equity have a very strong positive relation.

Education and employment of female respondent have a positive and significant relation with gender equity both in rural and urban areas, in all religions, in all castes, in activities of respondents and in all activities of head of the family. Similarly, monthly income is positively related with gender equity while size of the family is negatively related with gender equity in all models, though the relationships are not statistically significant.

FACTORS DETERMINING GENDER STATUS

T.V. Salma “Rural-urban variations in gender equity in Kerala- A case study of Thrissur district” Thesis. Department of Economics , Dr. John Matthai Centre Thrissur , University of Calicut, 2004

Chapter VI
FACTORS DETERMINING GENDER STATUS

6.1 Introduction

Gender is one of the universal dimensions on which status differences are based. Gender status in a society is a significant reflection of the level of social justice in that society and involves a complex set of interrelated factors. Gender status of a society influence the social expectations regarding the behaviour of two sexes both as individuals and in relation to each other.

This chapter is divided into five sections. The second section explains the association between gender status – low and high – and socio-economic variables using chi-square test. The factors determining gender status are analysed in the third section and the fourth section evaluates the factors, which discriminate between low and high gender status. The last section gives the conclusion.

6.2 Association Between Gender Status and Socio Economic Variables

From the aggregate gender index, initially mean value is estimated. Those sample observations whose value of aggregate gender index is below the mean value are considered as low gender status group and those observations, whose value of aggregate gender index is above the mean value, are considered as high gender status group. The association between different variables and gender status is analysed by testing the hypothesis that there are no associations between gender status and different variables considered. χ^2 statistic has been used to test the hypothesis.

6.2.1 Place of Residence

In the total sample, 54.7 per cent of families belong to low gender status group while 45.3 per cent of families fall in high status group as per Table 6.1. In the rural area, 35.6 per cent of households belong to high gender status group, when 74.7 per cent of urban households belong to this group. The χ^2 value of 34.72 is significant at 1 per cent level which shows a very strong statistical association between place of residence and gender status.

Table 6.1: Place of Residence and Gender Status

Place of residence	Gender Status		Total
	Low	High	
Rural	145 (64.4)	80 (35.6)	225 (100.0)
Urban	19 (25.3)	56 (74.7)	75 (100.0)
Total	164 (54.7)	136 (45.3)	300 (100.0)

$\chi^2 = 34.72$ (Significant at 1 % level)
Note: Figures in parentheses are percentages
Source: Survey

6.2.2 Religion

The association between religion and gender status is shown in Table 6.2. More Hindus (52.5 per cent) belong to high gender status group followed by Christians (43.7 per cent) and Muslims (23.1 per cent).

Table 6.2: Religion and Gender Status

Religion	Gender Status		Total
	Low	High	
Hindu	84 (47.5)	93 (52.5)	177 (100.0)
Muslim	40 (76.9)	12 (23.1)	52 (100.0)
Christian	40 (56.3)	31 (43.7)	71 (100.0)
Total	164 (54.7)	136 (45.3)	300 (100.0)

$\chi^2 = 14.186$ (Significant at 1 % level)
Note: Figures in parentheses are percentages
Source: Survey

Majority of Muslims belong to low gender status group (76.9 per cent). χ^2 value of 14.186 shows a statistically significant association between religion and gender status.

6.2.3 Caste

Distribution of families according to caste and gender status given in Table 6.3 reveals that 55.5 per cent of forward caste families belong to high gender status group. The next place goes to OBC (39.0 per cent) followed by SC (36.4 per cent). But, majority of ST households (71.4 per cent) fall in low gender status group. χ^2 value of 9.829 shows that the association between caste and gender status is significant.

Table 6.3: Caste and Gender Status

Caste	Gender Status		Total
	Low	High	
Sc	14 (63.6)	8 (36.4)	22 (100.0)
ST	10 (71.4)	4 (28.6)	14 (100.0)
OBC	83 (61.0)	53 (39.0)	136 (100.0)
Others	57 (44.5)	71 (55.5)	128 (100.0)
Total	164 (54.7)	136 (45.3)	300 (100.0)

$\chi^2 = 9.829$ (Significant at 5 % level)
Note: Figures in parentheses are percentages
Source: Survey

6.2.4 Type of Family

More nuclear families belong to high gender status group (47.9 per cent) compared to joint families (42.0 per cent), as per Table 6.4. The hypothesis is accepted here since the χ^2 value of 1.052 is not significant.

Table 6.4: Type of Family and Gender Status

Type of Family	Gender Status		Total
	Low	High	
Nuclear	88 (52.1)	81 (47.9)	169 (100.0)
Joint	76 (58.0)	55 (42.0)	131 (100.0)
Total	164 (54.7)	136 (45.3)	300 (100.0)

$\chi^2 = 1.052$
Note: Figures in parentheses are percentages
Source: Survey

6.2.5 Education of Female Respondent

Households with illiterate females belonging to low gender status group is 85.7 per cent, while households with professionally qualified females belonging to high gender status group is 90.5 per cent (Table 6.5).

Table 6.5: Education of Female Respondent and Gender Status

Education	Gender Status		Total
	Low	High	
Illiterate	18 (85.7)	3 (14.3)	21 (100.0)
Lower Primary	32 (72.7)	12 (27.3)	44 (100.0)
Upper Primary	31 (70.5)	13 (29.5)	44 (100.0)
High School	53 (54.6)	44 (45.4)	97 (100.0)
Pre Degree	18 (58.1)	13 (41.9)	31 (100.0)
Degree	9 (25.0)	27 (75.0)	36 (100.0)
Post Graduation	1 (16.7)	5 (83.3)	6 (100.0)
Professional	2 (9.5)	19 (90.5)	21 (100.0)
Total	164 (54.7)	136 (45.3)	300 (100.0)

$\chi^2 = 52.079$ (Significant at 1 % level)
Note: Figures in parentheses are percentages
Source: Survey

Families belonging to high gender status group increases when level of female education is increased. χ^2 value of 52.079 shows a very strong association between education of female respondent and gender status.

6.2.6 Employment of Female Respondent

Employment status of female respondent shows that, 61.6 per cent of households with unemployed females belong to low gender status group (Table 6.6). But, 57.3 per cent of households with employed females belong to high gender status group. χ^2 value of 9.990, thus, reveals the statistically strong association between employment status of female respondent and gender status.

Table 6.6: Employment status of female respondent and Gender Status

Employment Status	Gender Status		
	Low	High	Total
Unemployed	117 (61.6)	73 (38.4)	190 (100.0)
Employed	47 (42.7)	63 (57.3)	110 (100.0)
Total	164 (54.7)	136 (45.3)	300 (100.0)

$\chi^2 = 9.990$ (Significant at 1 % level)
Note: Figures in parentheses are percentages
Source: Survey

Distribution of households, as per activity of female respondents, shows that 85.7 per cent of households with females working as professionals fall in high gender status group (Table 6.7). But, 73.1 per cent of households where females are coolies belong to low gender status group. In households with females working in the service sector 84.4 per cent belong to high gender status group. Association between activity of female respondent and gender status is statistically significant as revealed from the χ^2 value of 46.659.

Table 6.7: Activity of Female Respondent and Gender Status

Activity	Gender Status		Total
	Low	High	
Unemployed	117 (61.6)	73 (38.4)	190 (100.0)
Coolie	38 (73.1)	14 (26.9)	52 (100.0)
Service	7 (15.6)	38 (84.4)	45 (100.0)
Skilled Labour	1 (16.7)	5 (83.3)	6 (100.0)
Professional	1 (14.3)	6 (85.7)	7 (100.0)
Total	164 (54.7)	136 (45.3)	300 (100.0)

$\chi^2 = 46.659$ (Significant at 1 % level)
Note: Figures in parentheses are percentages
Source: Survey

6.2.7 Education of Head of the Family

Number of households falling in different gender status group according to education of head of the family is shown in Table 6.8.

Table 6.8: Education of the Head of the Family and Gender Status

Education	Gender Status		Total
	Low	High	
Illiterate	26 (65.0)	14 (35.0)	40 (100.0)
Lower Primary	32 (74.4)	11 (25.6)	43 (100.0)
Upper Primary	22 (73.3)	8 (26.7)	30 (100.0)
High School	54 (58.1)	39 (41.9)	93 (100.0)
Pre Degree	14 (48.3)	15 (51.7)	29 (100.0)
Degree	8 (25.0)	24 (75.0)	32 (100.0)
Post Graduation	-	7 (100.0)	7 (100.0)
Professional	7 (30.4)	16 (69.6)	23 (100.0)
Technical	1 (33.3)	2 (66.7)	3 (100.0)
Total	164 (54.7)	136 (45.3)	300 (100.0)

$\chi^2 = 39.428$ (Significant at 1 % level)
Note: Figures in parentheses are percentages
Source: Survey

Cent per cent of families, where head of the family is postgraduate belongs to high status group followed by graduate (75.0 per cent). In the families, where the head of the family is having only lower primary education, 74.4 per cent fall in low gender status group. χ^2 value of 39.428 gives the strong association between education of head of the family and gender status.

6.2.8 Activity of Head of Family

When the head of the family is professional, 87.5 per cent of households fall in high gender status group as depicted in Table 6.9.

Table 6.9: Activity of the Head of the Family and Gender Status

Activity	Gender Status		Total
	Low	High	
Unemployed	9 (56.3)	7 (43.8)	16 (100.0)
Agriculture	9 (75.0)	3 (25.0)	12 (100.0)
Coolie	60 (68.2)	28 (31.8)	88 (100.0)
Service	28 (37.3)	47 (62.7)	75 (100.0)
Business	26 (55.3)	21 (44.7)	47 (100.0)
NRI	15 (60.0)	10 (40.0)	25 (100.0)
Skilled Labour	16 (55.2)	13 (44.8)	29 (100.0)
Professional	1 (12.5)	7 (87.5)	8 (100.0)
Total	164 (54.7)	136 (45.3)	300 (100.0)

$\chi^2 = 23.635$ (Significant at 1 % level)
Note: Figures in parentheses are percentages
Source: Survey

Highest percentage of families belong to low gender status group, where head of the family is agriculturist (75 per cent). The second place goes to service sector (62.7 per cent) in the high gender status group and coolies (68.2 per cent) in

the low gender status group. χ^2 value of 23.635 shows a statistically significant association between activity of head of the family and gender status.

6.2.9 Size of Family

A high percentage of households fall in high gender status group when there are four members in the family as depicted in Table 6.10. When number of members in the households is more than five, 64.2 per cent of such families belong to low gender status group. χ^2 value of 9.214 gives statistically significant association between size of family and gender status at 5 per cent level.

Table 6.10: Number of Members and Gender Status

Number of Members	Gender Status		Total
	Low	High	
3	12 (52.2)	11 (47.8)	23 (100.0)
4	45 (43.7)	58 (56.3)	103 (100.0)
5	70 (64.2)	39 (35.8)	109 (100.0)
6+	37 (56.9)	28 (43.1)	65 (100.0)
Total	164 (54.7)	136 (45.3)	300 (100.0)

$\chi^2 = 9.214$ (Significant at 5 % level)
Note: Figures in parentheses are percentages
Source: Survey

6.2.10 Number of Female Members in the Family

In families with only two female members, 50.6 per cent are in high gender status group while 61.2 per cent of families, with more than two female members, are in low gender status group as revealed in Table 6.11. So, there is an inverse relation between number of females in the family and gender status. χ^2 value of 4.163 shows that relationship between number of females and gender status is significant at 5 per cent level.

Table 6.11: Number of Females and Gender Status

Number of Females	Gender Status		Total
	Low	High	
Below three	82 (49.4)	84 (50.6)	166 (100.0)
3 and above	82 (61.2)	52 (38.8)	134 (100.0)
Total	164 (54.7)	136 (45.3)	300 (100.0)

$\chi^2 = 4.163$ (Significant at 5% level)
Note: Figures in parentheses are percentages
Source: Survey

6.2.11 Monthly Income

The association between monthly income and gender status is depicted in Table 6.12. Families with monthly income above Rs.20,000 mainly belongs to high gender status group (88.6 per cent) and 64.6 per cent families with less than Rs.5,000 as monthly income belongs to low gender status group. Thus, when monthly income increases a high percentage of families fall in high gender status group. χ^2 value of 44.173 shows a very strong association between monthly income and gender status.

Table 6.12: Monthly Income and Gender Status

Monthly Income (Rs.)	Gender Status		Total
	Low	High	
Less than 5000	93 (64.6)	51 (35.4)	144 (100.0)
Between 5000 and 10000	47 (66.2)	24 (33.8)	71 (100.0)
Between 10000 and 15000	9 (42.9)	12 (57.1)	21 (100.0)
Between 15000 and 20000	10 (50.0)	10 (50.0)	20 (100.0)
Above 20000	5 (11.4)	39 (88.6)	44 (100.0)
Total	164 (54.7)	136 (45.3)	300 (100.0)

$\chi^2 = 44.173$ (Significant at 1 % level)
Note: Figures in parentheses are percentages
Source: Survey

Thus, the hypotheses that there are no associations between gender status and place of residence, religion, employment status of female respondent, education of female respondent, activity of female respondent, education of head of the family, activity of head of the family and monthly income of the family are rejected at 1 per cent level of significance and the association between gender status and caste, size of family and number of females in the family are rejected at 5 per cent level of significance indicating the decisive role of these variables in gender status. Type of family and gender status are not significantly associated as revealed by the χ^2 value.

6.3 Factors Determining Gender Status

Logistic regression model is used to evaluate the factors determining low and high gender status. Logistic regression model is the most popular non-linear regression model. It is a qualitative choice model and is used when the variables considered are qualitative.

6.3.1 The Logistic Regression Model

In logistic regression model, we directly estimate the probability of an event occurring. For a case of a single independent variable, the logistic regression model can be written as

$$\text{Prob (event)} = \frac{e^{B_0+B_1X}}{1+e^{B_0+B_1X}}$$

Or equivalently

$$\text{Prob (event)} = \frac{1}{1+e^{-(B_0+B_1X)}}$$

Where B_0 and B_1 are coefficients estimated from the data, X is the independent variable, and e is he base of the natural logarithms, approximately 2.718.

For more than one independent variable, the model can be written as

$$\text{Prob (event)} = \frac{e^Z}{1+e^Z}$$

Or equivalently

$$\text{Prob (event)} = \frac{1}{1+e^{-Z}}$$

Where Z is the linear combination

$$Z = B_0 + B_1X_1 + B_2X_2 + \ldots\ldots B_pX_p$$

In the present context a binary logistic regression model is used to evaluate the impact of various factors on gender status. Binary variables are 0 and 1. The value 0 represents sample with low gender status while the value 1 represents sample with high gender status. Initially mean value is estimated from the aggregate gender index. Those sample observations whose value of aggregate gender index is below the mean value is considered as low gender status group and those observations whose value of aggregate gender index is above the mean value is considered as high gender status group.

The binary variable with 0 and 1 representing low and high gender status respectively is taken as dummy dependent variable. The variables such as the education of female respondent, employment status of female respondent, the education of head of the family, number of members in the family, number of female members in the family and monthly income of the family are considered as independent variables. The logistic regression analysis is done for the entire sample, rural sample and urban sample separately.

In the present model, there are more than one independent variable. Hence, the analysis carried out is

$$Z = B_0 + B_1X_1 + B_2X_2 + B_3X_3 + B_4X_4 + B_5X_5 + B_6X_6$$

Where, Z = Low and high gender status

X_1 = Education of female respondent

X_2 = Employment status of female respondent

X_3 = Education of head of the family

X_4 = Number of members

X_5 = Number of females in the family

X_6 = Monthly income of the family

B_0 = Constant

B_1, B_2, B_3, B_4, B_5 and B_6 are the coefficients of X values.

By giving values for,

Z = 0 – Low Gender Status; 1 – Higher Gender Status

X_1 = 0 – Illiterate; 1 – Lower Primary; 2 – Upper Primary; 3 – High School; 4 – Pre Degree; 5 – Degree; 6 – Post Graduate;7 – Professional

X_2 = 0 – Unemployed; 1 – Employed

X3 = 0 – Illiterate; 1 – Lower Primary; 2 – Upper Primary; 3 – High School; 4 – Pre Degree; 5 – Degree; 6 – Post Graduate; 7 – Professional; 8 - Technical

On the basis of logistic regression model used, we asses the probability for moving to high gender status.

6.3.2 Factors Determining Gender Status in Total Sample

The logistic regression result for the total sample is shown in Table 6.13. Among the variables selected education of the female respondent, employment status of female respondent, education of head of the family and monthly income of the family are positively related to gender status while number of members and number of females in the family are negatively related to gender status. It implies that the improvement in education of female respondent, employment status of female respondent, education of head of the family and monthly income of the family improves the gender status and vice versa. Also when size of family and number of females in the family increases, gender status decreases and vice versa.

Table 6.13: Logistic Regression Model Determining Gender Status in Total Sample

Variables	Con.	B	S.E.	Wald	Sig.	R	Ex (B)	N. $R^{\wedge 2}$
Education of female respondent	-2.298	0.520	0.088	40.365	0.000	0.305	1.680	0.21
Employment status of female respondent	-0.472	0.765	0.244	9.845	0.002	0.138	2.148	0.04
Education of head of the family	-1.434	0.315	0.063	24.637	0.000	0.234	1.369	0.12
Number of Members	0.759	-0.197	0.108	3.312	0.069	-0.056	0.821	0.02
Number of females	0.457	-0.259	0.126	4.236	0.039	-0.074	0.772	0.02
Monthly income of family	-1.006	0.000	0.000	30.746	0.000	0.264	1.000	0.18

Note: Con.-Constant; B-Beta Value; S.E-Standard Error; Wald- Wald statistics; Sig.-Significance; Ex (B)-Expectation (B); N. $R^{\wedge 2}$-Nagalkerke $R^{\wedge 2}$

Source: Survey

Exp (B) shows the odds ratio. Odds ratio of a variable represent change in odds for the gender status of a person when the value of the variable increases by 1. Odds ratio is the ratio of probability of an event to occur to the probability of an event not to occur or it is a ratio of probability of 'success' to probability of 'failure'. In this model, it is the probability of moving from low gender status to high gender status, when there is a change in independent variable. Among the variables, the odds ratio of employment status of female respondents is greater compared to others. Here, when employment status of the female respondent increases by one point, the odds for the gender status of a person, i.e., the probability of moving from low gender status to high gender status improves by 2.1483. Followed by employment status of the female respondent, the next important factor, which affects the gender status, is education of the female respondent. Number of females in the family has least impact on gender status in the present model.

Nagelkerke $R^{\wedge 2}$ shows the percentage of variation of the outcome variable, i.e., the gender status explained by the logistic regression model, i.e., what

percentage is explained by the particular variable in the aggregate gender status of a family. The present model explains 21.0 per cent of variation in gender status and its inequality among various families due to education of female respondent, 18.0 per cent due to monthly income of family, 12.0 per cent due to education of head of the family, 4.0 per cent due to employment status of the female respondent and 2.0 per cent each due to number of members and number of females in the family.

6.3.3 Factors Determining Gender Status in Rural Area

In the rural area, education of the female respondent, employment status of female respondent, education of head of the family and monthly income of family are positively related to gender status while number of members and number of females in the family are negatively related to gender status (Table 6.14). Among these variables the odds ratio of employment status of female respondents is greater compared to others.

Table 6.14: Logistic Regression Model Determining Gender Status in Rural Area

Variable	Con.	B	S.E.	Wald	Sig.	R	Ex (B)	N. $R^{\wedge 2}$
Education of female respondent	-1.624	0.288	0.095	9.226	0.002	0.157	1.333	0.06
Employment status of female respondent	-0.745	0.413	0.289	2.043	0.153	0.012	1.511	0.01
Education of head of the family	-1.001	0.122	0.083	2.157	0.142	0.023	1.1295	0.01
Number of Members	0.289	-0.062	0.123	0.254	0.614	0.000	0.940	0.00
Number of females	0.215	-0.147	0.143	1.059	0.303	0.000	0.863	0.01
Monthly income of family	-0.799	0.000	0.000	2.229	0.136	0.028	1.000	0.01

Note: Con.-Constant; B-Beta Value; S.E-Standard Error; Wald- Wald statistics; Sig.-Significance; Ex (B)-Expectation (B); N. $R^{\wedge 2}$-Nagalkerke $R^{\wedge 2}$

Source: Survey

Here when employment status of the female respondent increases by one point, the odds for the higher gender status of a person improves by 1.511. Followed by employment status of the female respondent, the next important factor, which affects the gender status in rural area, is education of the female respondent. The present model for the rural area explains 6.0 per cent of variation in gender status and its inequality among various families due to education of female respondent, 1.0 per cent each due to employment status of the female respondent, education of head of the family and monthly income of family.

6.3.4 Factors Determining Gender Status in Urban Area

In the urban area, education of the female respondent, employment status of female respondent, education of the head of the family and monthly income of family are positively related to gender status, while number of members and number of females in the family are negatively related to gender status as revealed in Table 6.15.

Table 6.15: Logistic Regression Model Determining Gender Status in Urban Area

Variable	Con.	B	S.E.	Wald	Sig.	R	Ex (B)	N. $R^{\wedge 2}$
Education of female respondent	-4.741	1.143	0.309	13.7085	0.0002	0.371	3.136	0.40
Employment status of female respondent	-0.368	3.033	1.062	8.1626	0.0043	0.269	20.768	0.29
Education of head of the family	-0.936	0.362	0.153	5.5956	0.0180	0.206	1.437	0.12
Number of Members	1.588	-0.114	0.314	0.1329	0.7154	0.000	0.892	0.00
Number of females	1.214	-0.061	0.365	0.0276	0.8681	0.0000	0.9412	0.00
Monthly income of family	-0.844	0.000	0.000	9.8806	0.0017	0.3047	1.0001	0.24

Note: Con.-Constant; B-Beta Value; S.E-Standard Error; Wald- Wald statistics; Sig.-Significance; Ex (B)-Expectation (B); N. $R^{\wedge 2}$-Nagalkerke $R^{\wedge 2}$

Source: Survey

As in the rural area among these variables, the odds ratio of employment status of female respondent is greater compared to others. Here when employment status of the female respondent increases by one point, the odds for a person for higher gender status improves by 20.768. Followed by employment status of the female respondent, the next important factor, which affects the gender status in urban area, is education of the female respondent. Nagalkerke $R^{\wedge 2}$ in the present model for the urban area explains 40.0 per cent of variation in gender status and its inequality among various families due to education of female respondent, 29.0 per cent due to employment status of the female respondent, 24.0 per cent due to monthly income of family and 12.0 per cent due to education of head of the family.

Both in rural and urban areas, the variables that are positively related to gender status are the same: education of the female respondent, employment status of female respondent, education of the head of the family and monthly income of family. Also both in rural and urban areas, odds ratio of employment status is greater followed by education of female respondent. Also variations in gender status and its inequality among females are mainly determined by education of female respondent. But the percentage is very high in urban area (40.0 per cent) compared to rural area (6.0 per cent). While 29.0 per cent gender status is explained by employment status of female respondent in the urban area, it is only 1.0 per cent in the case of rural area. In the urban area, 24.0 per cent and 12.0 per cent of gender status is due to monthly income of the family and education of head of the family respectively, but it is only 1.0 per cent each in the case of rural area. Number of members and number of females in the family are negatively related to gender status but they have a highly significant correlation with gender status both in rural and urban areas. Thus, the pattern of relationship is same both in rural and

urban areas but the impact of all the variables are more in urban area than in rural area.

6.4 Factors Discriminating Between High and Low Gender Status

The canonical discriminant function analysis is used to delineate factors, which discriminate between various groups. In the present study, the groups selected are low gender status and high gender status. With the help of this analysis, we are able to identify the relative importance of various factors in influencing and separating families into low and high gender status.

6.4.1 Canonical Discriminant Function Analysis

The linear discriminant function for a problem is given by

$Z = K_0 + K_1 X_1 + K_2 X_2 + \ldots\ldots + K_n X_n$

Z is the score yielded by the variables X_1, X_2,...., X_n. The Z value serving as the dividing point between the two groups is computed by substituting for Xi the simple average of (a) the mean of Xi for low gender status members and (b) the mean of Xi for high gender status members – and similarly for X_2.....Xn. The Ki's are the coefficient of Xi's. and K_0 denotes constant.

In the present study, the families are categorised into low gender status and high gender status. The values 0 and 1 are given respectively for low and high gender status families. The canonical discriminant function analysis is used to separate the factors, which discriminate the groups between low and high gender status groups. The relative importance of various factors in discriminating the groups can also be estimated from this model.

The variables selected to delineate the factors that discriminate between the families into low and high gender status groups are the place of residence, education of female respondent, employment status of females, education of head

of the family, number of members in the family, number of female members in the family and monthly income of family. The canonical discriminant model is applied separately for total sample, rural sample and urban sample.

The present analysis for total sample is,

$$Z = K_0 + K_1X_1 + K_2X_2 + K_3X_3 + K_4X_4 + K_5X_5 + K_6X_6 + K_7X_7$$

and for rural and urban samples are,

$$Z = K_0 + K_1X_1 + K_2X_2 + K_3X_3 + K_4X_4 + K_5X_5 + K_6X_6$$

Where,

Z = Dividing point between low and high gender status group
X_1 = Education of female respondent
X_2 = Employment status of female respondent
X_3 = Education of head of the family
X_4 = Number of members
X_5 = Number of females in the family
X_6 = Monthly income of family
X_7 = Place of Residence
K_0 = Constant

K_1, K_2, K_3, K_4, K_5, K_6 and K_7 are the coefficients of X values.

By giving values for,

X_1 = 0 – Illiterate; 1 – Lower Primary; 2 – Upper Primary; 3 – High School; 4 – Pre Degree; 5 – Degree; 6 – Post Graduate;7 – Professional
X_2 = 0 – Unemployed; 1 – Employed
X_3 = 0 – Illiterate; 1 – Lower Primary; 2 – Upper Primary; 3 – High School; 4 – Pre Degree; 5 – Degree; 6 – Post Graduate; 7 – Professional; 8 – Technical
X_7 = 0 – Rural; 1 - Urban

6.4.2 Discriminating Factors in Gender Status in the Total Sample

The result of the Canonical Discriminant Function model for entire area, which includes both rural and urban areas, is given in Table 6.16. The mean

values of place of residence, education of female respondent, employment status of female respondent, education of head of the family and monthly income of the family are higher for high gender status families.

The mean values of number of members in the family and the number of female members in the family are higher for low gender status group compared to the high gender status group. This shows that gender status of families deteriorate with the increase in size of family and number of female members in the family, while the gender status of families improves with the change in the place of residence to urban area, increase in education of female respondent, employment status of female respondent, education of head of the family and monthly income of the family.

The canonical discriminant function coefficients represent the impact of each variable on the gender status. The negative values of canonical discriminant function coefficient reduce the aggregate discriminative scores where as the positive values increase it. The mean value of discriminating function for low and high gender status group are –0.465 and 0.560 respectively.

The negative value of canonical discriminant function coefficient for the low status group implies that the increase in the values of variables with negative coefficient have greater role in keeping the families at low status level. Similarly the increase in the values of variables with positive coefficient has a greater role in keeping the families at high status group. In the present analysis, size of family and the number of female members in the family have negative coefficients. It implies that size of family and number of female members in the family are contributing more in placing the families in low gender status group. The increase in all other factors, which have positive canonical discriminant function coefficient increase the possibility for placing the families in high gender status group.

Table 6.16: Result of Canonical Discriminant Function analysis in Total Sample

Factors	Mean of low gender status groups	Mean of high gender status group	Mean difference	Canonical discriminant function coefficients	Standardized canonical discriminant function Coefficients	% share of discri-mination	Rank of variables in discri-mination
Place of residence	1.12	1.41	-0.29	0.877	0.358	19.41	2
Education of female respondent	3.38	4.82	-1.44	0.409	0.678	36.77	1
Employment status of female respondent	0.29	0.46	-0.17	0.608	0.289	15.67	3
Education of head of the family	3.37	4.60	-1.23	0.084	-0.166	9.00	5
Number of members in the family	4.93	4.70	0.23	-0.018	0.020	1.08	7
Number of female members in the family	2.60	2.38	0.22	-0.165	-0.156	8.46	6
Monthly income of the family	6853.35	14956.62	-8103.27	0.000	0.177	9.59	4
Constant				-2.491			

Note: Value of Functions at Group Centroids: Low gender status Group = -0.465; High gender status Group =0.560; Chi-square = 68.577 (Significant at 5% level)

Source: Survey

The standardized canonical discriminant function coefficient reveals the impact of change in variables by one unit on the gender status of families. The result reveals that among these variables impact of education of female respondent is highest followed by place of residence. The employment status of female respondent occupies the third position in its relative importance. The family size has the least impact on gender status. The mean difference of variables between the groups is very significant which is revealed from the significant value of chi-square statistical test.

6.4.3 Discriminating Factors in Gender Status in Rural Area

The result of canonical discriminant function model for rural area is depicted in Table 6.17. Among the variables, the mean values of education of female respondent, employment status of female respondent, education of head of family and monthly income of the family are higher for high gender status groups while the mean values of number of members in the family and number of female members in the family are higher for low gender status groups.

Table 6.17: Result of Canonical Discriminant Function analysis for rural area

Factors	Mean of low gender status groups	Mean of high gender status group	Mean difference	Canonical discri-minant function coefficients	Stand-ardized canonical discri-minant function coefficients	% share of discri-mination	Rank of variables in discri-mination
Education of female respondent	3.26	3.93	-0.67	0.676	1.023	49.37	1
Employment status of female respondent	0.32	0.41	-0.09	0.849	0.405	19.55	2
Education of head of the family	3.17	3.51	-0.34	0.152	0.257	12.40	4
Number of members in the family	4.99	4.91	0.08	-0.019	-0.022	1.06	6
Number of female members in the family	2.66	2.51	0.15	-0.320	-0.318	15.35	3
Monthly income of the family	5793.44	7213.75	-1420.31	0.000	0.047	2.27	5
Constant				-1.464			

Note: Value of Functions at Group Centroids: Low gender status Group= –0.190; High gender status group=0.345; Chi-square=14.106 (significant at 5% level).
Source: Survey

So, the increase in the value of education of female respondent, the employment status of females, the education of head of the family and monthly income improve the gender status, while the increase in values of number of

members in the families and the number of females in the family decreases the gender status in rural area.

The negative value of canonical discriminant function coefficient reduces aggregate discriminant score while positive value increases it. The mean value of disciminant function for low and high gender status groups are –0.190 and 0.345 respectively. Number of members and number of females in the family have negative coefficients and hence have great role in keeping the families at low gender status group. Other variables have positive coefficient hence they are contributing more in placing the families at high gender status group.

The impact of change in variables by one unit on the gender status of the family as revealed by the standardised canonical discriminant function coefficient shows that among the variables education of female respondent has the greatest impact on gender status. The second important variable, which creates impact on gender status, is the employment status followed by the number of female members in the family. The least contributing factor on gender status is the family size. The mean difference of variables between the groups is significant, which is revealed from the significant value of chi-square statistics.

6.4.4 Discriminating Factors in Gender Status in Urban Area

Except in the case of family size and number of females in the family, for all other variables, the high gender status group dominates over the low gender status group in urban area (Table 6.18). Similar to rural area, the increase in female education, the employment status of females, education of the head of the family and monthly income increase the probability for high gender status and equity within the families, while size of family and number of females in the family increase the probability for low gender status. The negative value of the canonical discriminant function coefficients for number of members in the family

and number of female members in the family shows the role of these factors in keeping the families at low gender status group. Other variables, having positive coefficients contribute more in placing the families at high gender status group.

Table 6.18: Result of Canonical Discriminant Function Analysis for Urban Area

Factors	Mean of low gender status groups	Mean of high gender status group	Mean difference	Canonical discri-minant function coefficients	Stand-ardized canonical discri-minant function coefficients	% share of discri-mination	Rank of variables in discri-mination
Education of female respondent	4.32	6.11	-1.79	0.600	0.805	50.34	1
Employment status of female respondent	0.05	0.54	-0.49	0.623	0.281	17.57	2
Education of head of the family	4.90	6.14	-1.26	0.044	-0.080	5.00	5
Number of members in the family	4.47	4.39	0.08	-0.271	0.229	14.32	3
Number of female members in the family	2.21	2.18	0.31	-0.033	0.024	1.50	6
Monthly income of the family	14942.11	26017.86	-11075.75	0.000	0.180	11.26	4
Constant				-5.017			

Note: Value of Functions at Group Centroids: Low gender status group=–1.095; High gender status group=0.372; Chi-square=24.458 (significant at 5% level)

Source: Survey

The factors, which contribute the highest percentage impact on the gender status in urban area, are the education of female respondents and the employment status of female respondent. The family size is the third largest factor influencing the gender status. The number of females in the family has the least impact on gender status in urban area. The mean difference of variables between the groups is very significant which is revealed from the significant value of chi-square statistical test.

Thus, both in rural and urban areas, except in the case of size of family and number of females in the families for all variables mean of high gender status group is greater than the mean of low gender status group. So, increase in the value of female education, female employment, education of the head of family and monthly income increase the probability for high gender status.

Canonical discriminat function coefficient shows that, in rural and urban areas, increase in size of family and number of females in the family have great role in keeping the family in low gender status group. Increase in the value of all the other variables helps in keeping the families at high gender status.

Standardised canonical discriminant function coefficient shows that in rural and urban area, education of female respondent has the highest impact on gender status, followed by employment status of female respondent. In the total sample, the second important factor is place of residence, the urban area providing better gender status compared to rural area. The least impact on gender status is by size of family in rural area and number of females in urban area. Number of females has a greater role in creating gender inequity in rural area compared to urban area.

6.5 Conclusion

In this chapter, we have analysed the association between socio-economic variables and gender status using χ^2 analysis and factors determining gender status by Logistic regression model. Discriminat function analysis has been used to delineate the factors that discriminate between low and high gender status.

In the χ^2 analysis, the hypotheses that there are no associations between gender equity and place of residence, religion, employment status of female respondent, education of female respondent, activity of female respondent, education of head of the family, activity of head of the family and monthly income of family are rejected at 1 per cent level of significance and the association

between gender equity and caste, size of family and number of female members in the family are rejected at 5 per cent level of significance indicating the decisive role of these variables in gender equity. Type of family and gender equity are not significantly associated as revealed by the χ^2 value.

Logistic regression model reveals that both in rural and urban areas, the variables that are positively related to gender status are the same – education of female respondent, employment status of female respondent, education of head of family and monthly income of family. The odds ratio of employment status is greater followed by education of female respondent both in rural and urban areas. Number of members and number of females in the family are negatively related to gender status, regardless of place of residence.

Discriminant function analysis shows that both in the rural and urban areas, improvement in education of female respondent, employment status of female respondent, education of head of family and monthly income of family have great role in keeping the families in high gender status group. Increase in the size of family and number of female members in the family increase the possibility for placing the families in low gender status group.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

T.V. Salma “Rural-urban variations in gender equity in Kerala- A case study of Thrissur district” Thesis. Department of Economics , Dr. John Matthai Centre Thrissur , University of Calicut, 2004

Chapter VII
SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

This chapter presents summary of the findings of the study and the major conclusions that emerge from it.

Kerala is often considered as a land of gender equity prominently in terms of conventional indicators like HDI, GDI, GEM, GEI, literacy rate, sex ratio, education, health and political participation in local bodies. But the data regarding child sex ratio, work participation rate, employment, morbidity, political participation at higher levels and atrocities show that gender status in Kerala is not so enviable, when we go deep into these indicators.

There are also rural-urban differences in many of these disparities. Kerala witnessed rapid urbanisation in 1980s. Urban residence enables men and women to make a relatively easy transition to new roles and responsibilities. But, several problems affecting men and women are similar regardless of place of residence. So it was felt necessary to make a rural-urban comparison. Even though there are some studies regarding the general gender status in Kerala, there are dearth of studies at micro level, dealing with the gender inequity prevailing in family and society and its rural-urban variations. So the present study is relevant in such a way that it would provide better insights into gender equity and its rural-urban variations in Kerala.

7.1 Findings of the Study

The objectives of the study were to assess the gender status in Kerala, to evaluate the gender equity in terms of socio-economic status, to analyse the rural urban variations in gender equity and to identify the factors that determine and

discriminate gender status. The analysis based on these objectives reveals the following findings.

7.1.1 Gender Status in Kerala

Gender status in Kerala is analysed using secondary data.

(1) A comparison of HDI, GDI, GEM and GEI values of Kerala and India indicates that Kerala's position is much higher than that of India in all these measures. What it implies is that gender inequity is less pronounced in Kerala than in India.

(2) The work participation of females is much less than that of males in India and Kerala. The gender gap in work participation is decreasing in the case of India but increasing in the case of Kerala. Total work participation rates in rural area were higher than the rates in urban area for males and females, rural-urban differences being more prominent in the case of female participation rates in India and Kerala.

(3) Status of women employment is always lower than that of men, be it in India or in Kerala. Kerala's unemployment rates are higher than the national rates both for males and females. Women are mostly employed in low paid, unskilled and insecure jobs and have a poor representation in government and public sector employment compared to males.

(4) Despite the strong trade union movement and comparatively larger participation of women in trade union activities, wide disparity in wage structure between males and females still prevails in Kerala as in India. This is especially true in the case of agricultural labour and construction labour.

(5) The sex ratio of the state has always favoured females while the opposite is true at the national level. The child sex ratio of India and Kerala indicates that boys outnumbered girls at the national and state levels. Sex ratio of 0-6 population is higher in Kerala compared to India.

(6) Kerala's male and female literacy rates are well above the all India rates both in rural and urban areas. But, both at state and national levels in rural and urban areas, women always lag behind men.

(7) Kerala has achieved near equality in school enrolment, while at the national level girls have less access to schooling than boys. At the higher secondary, degree and postgraduate level, the enrolment of girl students exceeds that of boys. But in the case of schools other than state syllabus, in technical and professional education, the percentage of boys surpassed the percentage of girls.

(8) Women's representation in the parliamentary democratic process in India in the last five decades never did surpass 10 per cent in the general elections. Even though Kerala women's participation in local governments went beyond the mandatory requirement of one-third of total seats in Kerala, in legislative assembly, there are only 8 women in 140 seats, in spite of Kerala's high social development. Only two women were able to make it into the squad of 20 parliament members, representing 163 lakhs women in the state.

(9) The widely accepted health indicators like infant mortality rate, maternal mortality, life expectancy, crude death rate and fertility rate are favourable to Kerala females. The mean age at marriage for women and men in Kerala is higher than the all India rates. In the case of females in India, all these indicators are unfavourable. But morbidity rates in India are highest in

Kerala, rates being marginally higher for females. Elderly population is the highest in Kerala and female elderly outnumber male elderly. Suicide rate are also highest in Kerala with more male-suicides than female-suicides.

(10) Injustices on women are growing fast at national level and the incidence of crimes against women in India increased by 18.9 per cent while it increased at a rate of 134.2 per cent in Kerala during 1995-2001.

(11) Kerala women have more power in household decision making compared to Indian women. But, both in India and Kerala, in important decisions, women lag behind men.

(12) As per the GDI index calculated, attainments in WPR and education favours males and attainment in health favours females. Total attainments favour males. Idukki district captures the first rank followed by Pathanamthitta in GDI. The highest gender disparity is found in Kozhikode and Thiruvananthapuram (14^{th} and 13^{th} Rank respectively). Thrissur, our study area, has 11^{th} place in gender disparity position.

7.1.2 Socio Economic Aspects and Gender Equity

The analysis of this section is done using primary data. The major findings are:

(1) Total population of the sample is 1450 persons, of which 698 are males and 752 are females. Sex ratio of rural sample is 1107 and the sex ratio of urban sample is only 982.

(2) Hindus dominate followed by Christians and Muslims both in rural and urban samples. OBC constitute 45.3 per cent and forward castes constitute 42.7 per cent of the population. 7.6 per cent of the population are SC, while 4.7 per cent are ST.

(3) Both in rural and urban areas, majority of the families are nuclear families. Monthly income of the 48.0 per cent of the households are below Rs.5,000. In urban area, 50.6 per cent have a monthly income above Rs. 20,000, while in rural area they are only 2.7 per cent.

(4) While 63.3 per cent of females are unemployed, only 5.3 per cent males fall in this category. There is gender inequity in employment both in urban (4.0 per cent and 58.7 per cent respectively) and rural areas (5.8 per cent and 64.9 per cent respectively).

(5) Majority of the respondents enjoy gender equity in all aspects of employment like salary, physical facilities, promotion chances, leisure, acquiring additional qualification and recognition at work. In all these aspects, urban area is better compared to rural area as regards gender equity.

(6) While 83.6 per cent males have savings, only 44.6 per cent females have savings. Saving habit is more among urban males and females (94.6 per cent and 69.3 per cent respectively) compared to the rural males and females (80.0 per cent and 36.4 per cent respectively). The gender gap in savings is also less in the urban area.

(7) While 89.0 per cent males have bank account, only 42.3 per cent females have the same. This gender disparity in bank account is true both in rural and urban sample and the gender gap in bank account is more pronounced in the rural sample.

(8) In both regions, ownership of property reveals male domination.

(9) In rural area, at all levels of education, except in technical education, females are higher than males. This is the situation in urban area also

except in professional and technical education. In English medium education and co-education males outnumber females.

(10) Gender equity in different aspect of education – opportunity provided (32.7 per cent), encouragement in studies (32.7 per cent), family problems affecting studies (28.7 per cent), gender equity in schools (4.7 per cent), gender equity in cultural activities (25.0 per cent), expenditure incurred (33.3 per cent) and facilities provided (45.7 per cent) – is enjoyed by a very small percentage. In urban area, the percentage is double compared to rural area, except in the case of gender equity in schools and facilities provided.

(11) Majority of the respondents have received dowry from their parents and are ready to give and take dowry for their children.

(12) There is much gender inequity in adopting family planning measures, the responsibility of birth control falling mainly on women without any rural-urban difference.

(13) Compared to other indicators, regarding health, majority enjoy gender equity both in rural and urban areas, urban respondents enjoying more equity compared to rural respondents in all variables – health care, taking food, being energetic, taking health tonics, immunisation, method of treatment and medical check up. Regarding immunisation, gender equity is cent per cent in urban area.

(14) Regarding communication and social life, gender equity is critically low both in rural and urban areas, in all norms considered – same role expectation without considering gender (9.0 per cent), encouragement in social life (5.0 per cent), reading (39.0 per cent), treatment of society (2.7

per cent), social relations (8.7 per cent), spatial mobility (2.3 per cent) and treating son and daughter equally (26.0 per cent).

(15) More males (22.7 per cent) than females (10.7 per cent) participate in decision-making process of organisations.

(16) In decisions regarding family budget, schooling, career and marriage of children and number and age gap of children, half of the female respondents enjoy gender equity. In the case of decisions regarding purchase of assets and durables (33.3 per cent), savings and investment (32.7 per cent) and selecting the spouse (17.3 per cent), gender equity is low.

(17) In the case of atrocities against women, there are not much rural-urban differences and in some aspects, like atrocities from men and atrocities during journeys and marital rape, urban females are more affected than rural females. In facing physical or verbal sexual harassment and harassment from in-laws, there are no rural-urban differences. Dowry related harassment and domestic violence are more in rural area than in urban area.

7.1.3 Rural-Urban Variations in Gender Equity

Rural-urban variations in gender equity are analysed with the help of gender indices.

(1) The aggregate gender index for the total sample is 0.44. The highest gender index is for health and the lowest index is for communication and social life.

(2) On the basis of place of residence, gender status is better in urban area (0.58) than in rural area (0.39). All the indices are better in urban area

when compared to rural area. But, in the case of atrocities and communication and social life indices, the rural-urban differences are marginal.

(3) Gender index is high for Hindus, followed by Christians and Muslims. All indices are lower for Muslims, compared to other religions. Gender index in communication and social life is very low for Muslims. There are not much rural-urban variations and both rural and urban sample follow the same pattern as regards gender equity between religions.

(4) Aggregate gender index for forward castes is greater than index for backward castes. This is true for all indices except atrocities index where the difference is only marginal between castes. SC and forward castes have same gender status in rural area. In urban area, all indices are high for forward castes and low for SC.

(5) Both in rural and urban areas, employed females have high gender status compared to unemployed females. In the urban area, the indices are high when compared to rural area.

(6) Aggregate gender index, according to activity of female respondents shows that gender index is high for professionals. But, in rural area, the first place goes to skilled labour.

(7) On the basis of education of head of the family, gender status is high, when head of the family is postgraduate. This is true both in rural and urban areas. Aggregate gender index is high when the female respondent is post graduate and low when the female respondent is illiterate.

(8) As per the activity of the head of the family, aggregate gender index is high if the head of the family is a professional and low if head of the family is unemployed. In the rural area, gender status is high if the head of the

family is businessman and in urban area, this place goes to professionals. Both in rural and urban areas, it is lowest if head of the family is unemployed.

(9) Gender equity is more, when the family size is small. Same tendency is found in rural area. But in urban area, gender status is high when the family size is big. In the total, rural and urban samples, gender equity is more when the number of females is less in the family.

(10) Aggregate gender index and all the other indices are high for the highest family monthly income group. But, the atrocity index is high for the income group Rs.10000 – 15000.

(11) In the total sample, correlation between education index and health index, communication and social life and decision-making indices are significant at 1 per cent level. Correlation between health index and communication and social life index is significant at 5 per cent level. Both in the rural and urban sample, correlation between communication and social life index, decision-making and atrocities indices are positively significant.

(12) In the simple regression models for the total sample, effect on gender status is highest by the variable education of female respondent, followed by income of female respondent. All the variables considered, except type of family have a statistically significant association with gender equity. Both in rural and urban areas, education, employment, income of female respondents and gender equity have a very strong positive association. Education of female respondent has the greatest impact on gender equity irrespective of area.

(13) In the multiple regression model constructed, education and employment of female respondent and area have a positive and significant association with

gender equity both in rural and urban areas, in all religions, in all castes, in activities of respondents and in all activities of head of the family. Similarly, monthly income is positively associated with gender status while size of the family is negatively associated with gender status. But, here the relationships are not statistically significant.

7.1.4 Factors Determining and Discriminating Gender Status

The factors determining low and high gender status have been analysed using Logistic regression model. Discriminat function analysis has been used to delineate the factors that discriminate between low and high gender status.

(1) In the χ^2 analysis, the hypotheses that there are no associations between gender status and place of residence, religion, employment status of female respondent, education of female respondent, activity of female respondent, education of head of the family, activity of head of the family and monthly income of family are rejected at 1 per cent level of significance and the association between gender status and caste, size of family and number of females in the family are rejected at 5 per cent level of significance indicating the decisive role of these variables in gender status. Type of family and gender status are not significantly associated as revealed by the χ^2 value.

(2) Logistic regression model reveals that both in rural and urban areas, the variables that are positively related to gender status are the same – education of female respondent, employment status of female respondent, education of head of family and monthly income of family. The odds ratio of employment status of female respondent is greater followed by education of female respondent both in rural and urban areas. Number of

members and number of females in the family are negatively related to gender status.

(3) Discriminant function analysis shows that both in the rural and urban areas, improvement in education of female respondent, employment status of female respondent, education of head of family and monthly income of family increase the possibility for keeping the families in high gender status group while increase in the number of female members in the family and size of family increase the possibility of keeping the families in low gender status group. Number of females in the family has a greater role in creating low gender status in the rural area compared to the urban area.

By analysing the gender equity in Kerala, it is revealed that gender differences as well as rural-urban differences in gender still persist in our state. Women always have a lower status than men and the extent of the gap between the gender varies across regions – rural and urban areas. On the whole, rural-urban gender differences seems to be much larger than the gender differences, so that the rural females suffer from the double disadvantage of being a female and belonging to rural areas as regards gender equity.

7.2 Suggestions

(1) Although the social legislation has covered every point of gender equity, the social attitude lags behind legislations. For this, attitudes and expectations of men, women and society towards gender roles and status at home and society have to be changed through the socialisation process, educational system and effective mass media.

(2) The tradition-bound male dominated system must be replaced by a broader and liberal system in which gender roles are complementary and not competitive.

(3) Childcare, consumer education and home management should be part of curriculum for boys and girls to be responsible partners in marriage and thus to attain gender equity.

(4) Without active participation from men and women, any emancipation programmes cannot be implemented. Therefore, women should come forward to ensure social justice and gender equity.

(5) Cultural and economic bias against education, health and employment of girls should be removed.

(6) Awareness about the concept of gender equity and women's right should be given to boys and girls at a very young age. This would help to bring about a change in the mind set of coming generations. The status of girls has to be improved beginning from home. Starting from school level, a sense of gender equity should be instilled in both boys and girls.

7.3 Policy Implications

(1) Government has to ensure that the apartheid of gender is eliminated. Gender sensitisation is required at every level for men and women.

(2) There is need for creation of gender-based reservations in public appointments for bridging economic disparities. Rules and regulations for governing credit to women should be relaxed in order to encourage economic activities of women.

(3) Value education and gender classes should be made part of curriculum. This would, in turn, help character building and create a sense of respect for the opposite sex.

(4) Legal literacy camps should be conducted on regular and systematic basis in communities to make men and women aware of laws. Punishment for

atrocities against women should be made severe. List of non-governmental organisations and other government organisations dealing with women's issues should be made known to public.

(5) Gender stereotyping should not take place and women should be represented in departments involving country's security, finance and governance.

7.4 Contribution of Researcher

There are a large number of macro economic studies conducted on gender equity in Kerala. Macro level indicators are, sometimes, incapable of revealing the inter-regional and inter-class disparities. The detailed case studies are also based on research carried out in either rural or urban area and have the early spanned the rural-urban divide. No study was conducted on the rural-urban variations in gender equity in Kerala and so a humble attempt is made to bridge this gap. The study has made an attempt to pinpoint the relation between socio-economic variables and gender equity. This study is a deviation from previous studies in that it is an analytical study using economic techniques and it has taken non-conventional indicators along with conventional indicators to assess gender equity.

7.5 Areas for Future Research

Well-prepared, systematically and seriously done research will help to identify some areas of research where the future scholars can concentrate. In this research also, the scholar was able to identify some areas for further research, which includes:

(1) The methodology and variables used in this study are not only economic but also sociological. This is because, many gender theories have

originated from sociology. But, in recent economic literature, there are many discussions on gender, generally called as Gender Economics. So, there is scope for studying the same problem, in a more rigorous way in a purely economic theoretical framework, incorporating new methodologies in recent literature.

(2) There is scope for conducting a study on the same problem with more gender segmentations, by taking each indicator considered in this study.

(3) This study is exclusively based on details collected from the samples of Thrissur district. It may be interesting to conduct a comparative study between two or more districts or between Kerala and some other states.

(4) There is scope for conducting a study in either rural or urban areas of Kerala.

(5) In some districts, like Kozhikode, we can see clear-cut gender differences. If the study was based on such districts only, the research would have recorded more gender disparity. Thus, there is scope for further research by taking these districts as sample.

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Appendix

Survey Questionnaire

Rural-Urban Variations in Gender Equity in Kerala: A Case Study of Thrissur District

Department of Economics, University of Calicut,
Dr. John Matthai Centre, Aranattukara, Thrissur – 680 618.

I. GENERAL PARTICULARS

1. Corporation/Panchayat :
2. Division/Ward :
3. House Number :
4. Religion : *(a) Hindu (b) Muslim (d) Christian*
5. Caste : *(a) SC (b) ST (c) OBC (d) Others*
6. Place of Residence : *(a) Rural (b) Urban*
7. Nature of Family : *(a) Single (b) Joint*

II. HOUSEHOLD CHARACTERISTICS

Sl. No	Name	Relationship	Age	Sex	Education	Marital Status	Employment	Income
1								
2								
3								
4								
5								
6								
7								
8								
9								
10								

III	HOUSEHOLD DETAILS	
1	Ownership of house? *(a) Own (b) Rented*	
	If own, Owner of the House *(a) Husband (b) wife (c) Both (d) Parents*	
2	Type of House *(a) Tiles (b) R.C*	
3	Is the House electrified ? *(a) Yes (b) No*	
4	Source of Drinking Water: *(a) Own well (b) Public well (c) Own tap (d) Public tap (e) Others*	
5	Type of Fuel: *(a) Wood (b) Kerosene (c) Gas (d) Electricity*	
6	Which of the following kitchen gadgets you have? *(a) Mixer (b) Grinder (c) Washing Machine (d) Gas stove (e) Oven*	
7	Do you feel that the modern gadgets reduce your burden of work? *(a) Yes (b) No*	
8	What is the distance to the nearest health care centre? (in Meters)	
9	Have you given immunisation for both your son and daughter? *(a) Yes (b) No*	
10	If you have children under five years, what is the existing arrangement for their care when you go for work? *(a) Crèche (b) Spouse (c) Servants (d) Parents (e) Relatives (f) Neighbours (g) Nobody*	

IV	INFORMATION ON EMPLOYMENT	Male	Female
1	In which sector? *(a) Government (b)Quasi-Government (c) Private*		
2	Nature of Job: *(a) Permanent (b) Temporary*		
3	Time of Work *(a) Full time (b) Part time*		
4	Age at first appointment		
5	Distance to the work place		
6	Mode of conveyance *(a) Walking (b) Hired vehicles (c)Own Vehicle (d) Vehicle of the institution*		
7	Are you doing any additional job? *(a) Yes (b) No*		
8	Reasons for going for job *(a) Own Interest (b) Family income (c) Time Pass (d) Compulsion of family members*		
9	Are you satisfied with your present job? *(a) Yes (b) No*		

		Male	Female
10	If No, reason *(a) No satisfaction (b) Low income (c) Bad Atmosphere (d) Nothing*		
11	Anyone helps in your family work? *(a) Yes (b) No*		
12	If yes, Who helps you in house work? *(a) Spouse (b) Children (c) Servant (d) Other members (e) Nobody*		
13	Have you felt at any time that it was better not to go for a job *(a) Yes (b) No*		
14	If yes, why? *(a) Lack of time (b) Burden of work (c) Non co-operation of family members (d) Any other*		
15	Is your job worth your qualification? *(a) Yes (b) No*		
16	Do you feel that your status at home is enhanced since you are employed? *(a) Yes (b) No*		
17	How do you spend your leisure time? *(a) Reading (b) Watching TV (c) Social Visits (d) Prayers*		
18	Do you get salary equal to your female/male colleagues? *(a) Yes (b) No*		
19	Are you provided with the same physical facilities as provided to your female/male colleagues? *(a) Yes (b) No*		
20	Are the chances of promotion same for both male and female workers? *(a) Yes (b) No*		
21	Are you getting enough leisure time compared to your female/male colleagues? *(a) Yes (b) No*		
22	Are the chances of acquiring additional qualification during service equal to the chances that your female/male colleagues get? *(a) Yes (b) No*		
23	Are the chances of acquiring additional qualification during service equal to the chances that your female/male colleagues get? *(a) Yes (b) No*		
24	Are you given the same recognition at work from your colleagues and superiors as given to your female/male colleagues? *(a) Yes (b) No*		

V	INFORMATION ON UNEMPLOYED RESPONDENTS	Male	Female
1	If you had a job earlier, was marriage and family problems a reason for giving it up? *(a) Yes (b) No*		
2	Are you interested to go for a job? *(a) Yes (b) No*		
3	What is the reason for not going? *(a) Did not get a job (b) Family problems (c) Spouse or parents does not allow*		
4	Do you face any difficulty to get money from your spouse/guardians for own needs? *(a) Yes (b) No*		
5	Are you getting any unemployed benefits? *(a) Yes (b) No*		
VI	**DETAILS OF INCOME AND SAVING**		
1	Do you feel that your income is essential for the maintenance of the family? *(a) Yes (b) No*		
2	Do you entrust your monthly income with your spouse? *(a) Yes (b) No*		
3	Do you have any disagreement with your spouse in money matters? *(a) Yes (b) No*		
4	Do you have a bank account? *(a) Yes (b) No*		
	If yes, specify whether *(a) Self (b) joint (c) Separate for each other (d) Nil*		
5	Do you save monthly? *(a) Yes (b) No*		
VII	**ASSET OWNERSHIP**		
6	Do you have any land of your own? *(a) Yes (b) No*		
7	Do you own a vehicle? *(a) Yes (b) No*		
	If yes, *(a) Two wheeler (b) Car (c) Bicycle (d) Autoriksha (e) Jeep*		
VIII	**EDUCATION**		
1	Medium of Education *(a) Malayalam (b) English (c) Others*		
2	Have you had education in mixed institution? *(a) Yes (b) No*		

		Male	Female
3	Do you help in your children's education? *(a) Yes (b) No*		
4	Have you stopped your education in between due to family problems? *(a) Yes (b) No*		
5	If you have to make a choice between education and marriage for your daughter, will you prefer education? *(a) Yes (b) No*		
6	Have you had equal chances for education as your brothers/sisters? *(a) Yes (b) No*		
7	Did your parents encourage you in education as they encourage brothers/sisters? *(a) Yes (b) No*		
8	Did the family problems affect your studies in the same way as it affected your brothers? *(a) Yes (b) No*		
9	When you were in school or colleges have you always experienced gender equality? *(a) Yes (b) No*		
10	Did you take part in sports and cultural activities as actively as boy students while you were studying? *(a) Yes (b) No*		
11	Are you ready to spend the same amount of money for educating your son and daughter? *(a) Yes (b) No*		
12	Do you provide equal opportunities for education for your son and daughter? *(a) Yes (b) No*		
IX	**MARRIAGE AND FAMILY LIFE**		
1	Age of marriage:		
2	Do you support dowry system? *(a) Yes (b) No*		
4	Are you willing to give dowry for your daughter? *(a) Yes (b) No*		
5	Are you willing to take dowry for your son? *(a) Yes (b) No*		
6	Are you satisfied with your family life? *(a) Yes (b) No*		
7	Whom do you approach first when you have family or personal problems? *(a) Parents (b) Spouse (c) Other family members (c) friends*		
8	Did you contribute from your own savings towards your marriage expenses? *(a) Yes (b) No*		

X	HEALTH	Male	Female
2.	What is the method of treatment? *(a) Allopathic (b) Homeopathic (c) Ayurvedic (d) House remedies*		
3.	What is the priority for vegetables, fish, meat and egg in food? *(a) Vegetables (b) Fish (c) Meat (d) Egg*		
4.	Are you mentally or physically handicapped? *(a) Yes (b) No*		
5.	Did you adopt any family planning measures? *(a) Yes (b) No*		
6.	Do you have any permanent health problem? *(a) Yes (b) No*		
7.	Do you take any regular exercise or yoga to keep your body fit? *(a) Yes (b) No*		
8.	Did your family members take care in your health in the same way as they do in the case of other female/male members? *(a) Yes (b) No*		
9.	Are you taking enough food when compared to other female/male members in the family? *(a) Yes (b) No*		
10.	Are you as energetic as other female/male members in your family? *(a) Yes (b) No*		
11.	Are you taking the nutritious food and health tonics taken by other female/male members in the family? *(a) Yes (b) No*		
13.	Is the method of treatment same for you and your spouse? *(a) Yes (b) No*		
14.	Do you go for medical check up as frequently as your spouse? *(a) Yes (b) No*		
XI	**COMMUNICATION AND SOCIAL LIFE**		
1.	Which programme do you like best in TV? *(a) News (b) Cinema & Music (c) Serial (d) Cooking (e) Cartoon*		
2.	Do you have good relationship with your neighbours *(a) Yes (b) No*		
3.	Do you encourage enhanced role of women in social activities? *(a) Yes (b) No*		
4.	Do you agree with portraying women in bad light in advertisements? *(a) Yes (b) No*		

		Male	Female
5.	Are you aware about the activities of Social Welfare Department/Human Right Department/Women's Commission/Women's Corporation? *(a) Yes (b) No*		
6.	Are you a member of any social organisation? *(a) Yes (b) No*		
8.	Do you have the same role expectations for your male and female child? *(a) Yes (b) No*		
9.	Did you and your spouse get the same encouragement from the family members to participate in social life? *(a) Yes (b) No*		
10.	Do you read news papers and magazines as regularly as your husband? *(a) Yes (b) No*		
11.	Is the society treating you as fairly as they treat the opposite gender? *(a) Yes (b) No*		
12.	Do you have the same social relations that your husband has? *(a) Yes (b) No*		
13.	Do you have the same spatial mobility as your counterparts? *(a) Yes (b) No*		
14.	Do you treat your son and daughter equally? *(a) Yes (b) No*		
XII	**DECISION MAKING**		
1.	Do you actively participate in the decision making process of any organisation? *(a) Yes (b) No*		
2.	Have you ever been able to take independent decision in the issues and atrocities you face? *(a) Yes (b) No*		
3.	Do you have same decision making power as our spouse regarding family budgeting? *(a) Yes (b) No*		
4.	Do you have same decision making power as your husband regarding rearing children like schooling, career and marriage? *(a) Yes (b) No*		
5.	Do you have same decision making power as your spouse regarding number, number, age difference of children and sterilization? *(a) Yes (b) No*		
6.	Do you have same decision making power as your spouse in the purchase of real estate and durable assets? *(a) Yes (b) No*		

		Male	Female
7.	Do you have same decision making power as your spouse regarding savings and investment? *(a) Yes (b) No*		
8.	Did you have the same decision making power as your sisters/brothers in selecting your spouse? *(a) Yes (b) No*		
9.	Did you take your own decision in voting? *(a) Yes (b) No*		
XII	**ATROCITIES (*Information from females only)***		
1	Do you think that in society, women are getting no justice and respect as men receives? *(a) Yes (b) No*		
2	Are you able to tell frankly about your sexual issues to your partner and make sure that you get co-operation? *(a) Yes (b) No*		
3	Do you agree to the opinion that it needs mental preparation for men in the matters of conceiving, delivery, etc. *(a) Yes (b) No*		
4	To whom do you show your anger and uneasiness? *(a) Self (b) Children (c) Friends (d) Spouse (e) Others*		
5	Women involved in sex work are treated badly and men involved in the same face no problem. What is your response? *(a) Treat both equally (b) Men can be excused*		
6	Do you have a feeling that you will be attacked by men at any time? *(a) Yes (b) No*		
7	Did you experience any atrocity from any man? *(a) Yes (b) No*		
8	How will you manage a situation of atrocity or threat against a woman? *(a) Will keep quit and take it as fate (b) Will treat with tolerance (c) Inform the police (d) Make others intervene (e) No response*		
9	Is security increasing in our society? *(a) Yes (b) No*		
10	Are you worried about critical life situations like disease and aging? *(a) Yes (b) No*		
11	Do you have a feeling that you can physically prevent the attack from others? *(a) Yes (b) No*		
12	Do you have any scare in telling out the issues publicly if at all you face? *(a) Yes (b) No*		
13	Are you scared of travelling during night? *(a) Yes (b) No*		

14	Do you think that the existing legal system is sufficient to secure you from atrocities? *(a) Yes (b) No*	
15	Do you face dowry related harassment? *(a) Yes (b) No*	
16	Do you face sexual harassment, physical or verbal? *(a) Yes (b) No*	
17	Have you ever experienced any atrocity during journeys? *(a) Yes (b) No*	
18	Did you experience marital rape? *(a) Yes (b) No*	
19	Did you face any harassment from your in-laws? *(a) Yes (b) No*	
20	Did you face any domestic violence? *(a) Yes (b) No*	
21	While facing harassment and violence do you think that it is the face of women? *(a) Yes (b) No*	
22	Do you think that it is the duty of women to bear tensions? *(a) Yes (b) No*	
23	If you are employed, do you find it difficult to carry out the double roles of a housewife and an employed women? *(a) Yes (b) No*	
24	Did your parents give dowry for your marriage? *(a) Yes (b) No*	

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