

EMPOWERMENT OF WOMEN THROUGH EMPLOYMENT

THESIS

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By

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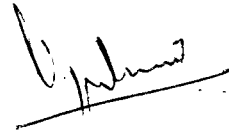
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This is to certify that this thesis entitled "EMPOWERMENT OF WOMEN THROUGH EMPLOYMENT" is an authentic record of the bonafide research carried out by ROSA K. D. under my supervision and guidance and that no part of it has been presented before for the award of any degree, diploma or other similar title.

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D E C L A R A T I O N

I declare that this thesis is the record of bonafide research work carried out by me under the supervision of **Dr. K.C. VIJAYAKUMAR**, Professor, Department of Commerce and Management Studies, University of Calicut, Malappuram and that no part of it has been previously submitted to this or any other university for the award of any degree or diploma.

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Rosa. K.D.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ADB	:	Asian Development Bank
ADS	:	Area Development Society
ANM	:	Auxiliary Nurse Midwife
BPL	:	Below Poverty Line
BPO	:	Business Process Outsourcing
CDS	:	Centre for Development Studies
CDS	:	Community Development Society
CEDAW	:	Convention on Elimination of All Discrimination Against Women
DBI	:	Development Bank of India
DHS	:	Department of Health Service
DIC	:	District Industrial Centre
DTP	:	Data Processing
DWCRA	:	Development of Women and Children in Rural Areas
DWCUA	:	Development of Women and Children in Urban Areas
GDI	:	Gender related Development Index
GEM	:	Gender Empowerment Measure
GNP	:	Gross National Product
GOI	:	Government of India
GOK	:	Government of Kerala
HDI	:	Human Development Index
IAS	:	Indian Administrative Service
ICT	:	Information and Communication Technology

IDBI	:	Industrial Development Bank of India
ILO	:	International Labour Organisation
IMY	:	Indira Mahila Yojana
IPS	:	Indian Police Service
IT	:	Information Technology
ITES	:	IT Enabled Services
KILA	:	Kerala Institute for Local Administration
KWC	:	Kerala Women's Commission
LFPR	:	Labour Force Participation Rate
NABARD	:	National Bank for Rural Development
NASSCOM	:	National Association of Software and Service Companies
NBCFDC	:	National Backward Classes Finance and Development Corporation
NFHS	:	National Family Health Survey
NGO	:	Non Government Organisations
NHG	:	Neighbourhood Groups
NMDFC	:	National Minorities Development and Finance Corporation
NORAD	:	Norwegian Agency for International Development
PC	:	Personal Computer
RMK	:	Rashtriya Mahila Kosh
SAP	:	Structural Adjustment Programme
SEWA	:	Self Employed Women's Association
SFC	:	State Financial Corporation
SGSY	:	Swarnajayanthi Gram Swarozgar Yojana
STEP	:	Support to Training and Employment

TRYSEM	:	Training of Youth for Self Employment
UN	:	United Nations
UNDP	:	United Nations Development Programme
UNFPA	:	United Nations Fund for Population
UNICEF	:	United Nations Children's Fund
UNIFEM	:	United Nations Development Fund for Women
US	:	United States
WIP	:	Women's Industries Programme
WPR	:	Work Participation Rate
WTTC	:	World Travel and Tourism Corporation
WTTC	:	World Travel and Tourism Corporation
WWF	:	Women Welfare Fund

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DESIGN OF THE STUDY

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Department of Commerce and Management Studies , University of Calicut,
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Chapter I
Design of the Study

CHAPTER I

DESIGN OF THE STUDY

1.1. Introduction

‘Empowerment of Women’ has become a subject of great concern to the development planners and policy makers all over the world. The declaration of the ‘International Women’s Year’ (1975) and the ‘Decade of Women’ (1976-1985) by the United Nations led to the globalisation of women’s issues. Consequently, the problems faced by women and the need for empowering women got world-wide attention. Many nations including India became the signatories to the policies adopted at the international Convention on Elimination of all kinds of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW). As a consequence, ‘National Policy for Empowerment of Women’ was declared by the Government of India in 2001, and a gender perspective was added to the development policies and projects at all levels.

While the past half-century has seen major gains in women's health, education and rights, progress has been slow or uneven in many areas. Gender inequalities or disparities between men and women is still pronounced in the poorest regions and countries of the world. Being born female affects one's life chances in all societies, but the particular conditions facing women vary from one society to another.¹ Even the right to be born is denied to many due to the increasing practice of female feticide and infanticide. The declining sex ratio in India as revealed by Census 1991 and 2001 bear witness to the poor status accorded to women in our country. This is because woman is considered as an economic liability than an asset. When a boy is seen as a source of augmenting the income and status of the family, girl is considered as a means of draining the family property. This is because majority of women

are not able to climb up the economic ladder in the society and occupy positions of power and prestige.

1.2. The Need for Empowerment of Women

Even after fifty years of independence, great inequalities exist between men and women in employment opportunities, remuneration, recognition of women's economic participation and rights. Some of the manifestations of inequalities are listed below.

- Women have fewer job opportunities than men and are mostly found in low paid and less prestigious occupations.
- Women scarcely hold management positions and high government posts.
- Women who work outside their homes are still bound to carry out the domestic work of the household, and thus bear a double work burden which is an obstacle both to better employment opportunities, and participation in social and political ventures.
- Women's unpaid household work is usually not considered to be a contribution to the economy.
- Lack of income reduces women's decision making power in the household and their ability to participate in social and political activities.
- The inequalities women face in economic participation have an adverse effect on women's self esteem and their status in society.

Though Kerala stands unique among the states of India with high indicators of human development, the above-mentioned problems are experienced by Kerala women also. Unlike the other states, the proportion of women is higher than that of men in Kerala. In spite of the high literacy rate,

the employment opportunities for both men and women are relatively less. As per Census 2001, Kerala has a population of 3.18 crores. Of this 1.63 crores are women. Nearly 88% of women are literate, while the national literacy rate is 54%. Consequently, the number of educated women, seeking employment has aggravated the unemployment problem in the State. This problem of educated unemployment among the women leads to frustration and psychological imbalances. The increasing number of suicides among them can be partly attributed to this frustration. Providing employment for women is often suggested as one and the most effective solution to the problems faced by them. In this context it is necessary to assess the effect of employment on empowerment of women. The present study analyses the empowerment of women through employment.

1.3. Empowerment defined

The Oxford English Dictionary explains 'to empower' as 'to invest legally or formally with power, to enable or to permit.' Its central meaning is, to enable people to do things that they would otherwise be unable to do. It means, to remove the restrictions-artificial or otherwise- that prevent people from doing the things that is within their ability to achieve.

The present study focuses, to a great extent, on the definition of empowerment in an organizational set up, as envisioned by Nancy Foy. According to Nancy Foy, "Every meaningful model for change includes the basic elements of empowerment; 1)performance 2)teams 3)leadership 4)communication."² In other words, we can measure the degree of empowerment of a person employed, through his or her performance, teamwork, leadership and communication skills. Hence this study concentrates on how far women employed are empowered through these basic elements. Once they are empowered through employment, it is hoped that it

will automatically be reflected in the family, and as a consequence, in the society too. Hence, we focus our attention mainly on empowerment through employment.

1.4. Importance of the Present Study

Till recently, economists, planners and administrators all over the world, were discussing the GDP and per capita income and the ways and means of enhancing the same. After many decades of planned development in many countries, especially in the underdeveloped and developing countries, the world community has come to the realisation that GDP alone is not sufficient to guarantee the welfare and development of the people of a country. Development of a nation means the development of its people. For example, in India, even after five decades of planned development, 60 per cent of its people are below the poverty line. India has the second highest population in the world and it has already crossed one billion. It has the largest number of illiterates in the world, especially women- illiterates. As per Census 2001, it has six states with female-literacy less than 50 per cent. There is a wide gender-gap in sex ratio, literacy, life expectation etc., While the sex ratio is as low as 933, the child sex ratio of those in the age group of 0-6 years has alarmingly reduced to 868,³ which indicates the widely practised female feticide and infanticide.

United Nations has become aware of the deprivation of women and girl children in almost all developing and underdeveloped countries. It has also been noticed that gender inequality still persists in the developed countries as well. Hence the U.N. has formulated new measures to assess the development of the nations with a new vision- "Human development is the end- Economic Growth, a means. So the purpose of growth should be to enrich people's lives".⁴ Human Development Report 1996 came out with the new measures

of development such as HDI (Human Development Index), GDI (Gender-related Development Index) and GEM (Gender Empowerment Measure).

Though economic development policies and structural adjustment programmes have improved the status of some countries in the past few decades, it has led to degradation in the lives of a large number of people in the developing countries. Beyond that, a gender bias in development has been noticed by researchers and various global agencies. As reported by the U.N., 70 per cent of the world's poor are women. Unemployment of women is worse than that of men in both the developed and developing countries. Majority of the employed women are seen to be engaged in underpaid low status jobs. Casualisation of women labour force is on the increase in the country. Gains in employment for women in the modern sectors of employment is offset by the loss of employment in the traditional sectors which used to provide employment for women in large numbers.

It is evident that Human Development is possible only through improving the position of women who constitute half the humanity. It is the felt need of the hour that women be empowered, in order to come out of this deplorable situation. Enhancing the economic participation, by providing employment for women is suggested as an important step for empowering women. The study assumes importance as it aims at measuring the degree of empowerment conferred upon women by employment.

1.5. Statement of the Problem

Though India is the largest democracy in the world, with the highest population next to China, with regard to education, employment and status of women, the country is far behind the developed nations of the world. Woman, quite often is viewed upon as a second class citizen. In some parts of the country she is denied even the basic necessities of life. In backward rural

areas parents neither feed the girl child properly nor do they send them to school. Her place is always destined to be at the hearth. The census figures indicate the fact that majority of the women in India are illiterate, ill-fed, unemployed, low-paid and occupying a very poor status in the society. The alarming fall in the child sex ratio revealed by Census 1991 and 2001 has unveiled the negligence towards girl child, which is a consequence of the poor status accorded to women in India.

Kerala stands unique among the Indian states with the highest sex ratio of 1058 and the highest female literacy rate of 88 per cent with a good number of them being either graduates (57% of enrolment) or post graduates (67 % of enrolment).⁵ On the contrary, the female work participation rate is the lowest among the Indian states (15.3).⁶ Unemployment rate of women in Kerala is five times that of India. The problem of unemployment leads to social frustration. The number of female suicides, family suicides and atrocities against women are increasing day by day. Dowry has extended its claws far and wide, demoralizing the young women of the state. Hence, the empowerment of the women folk by providing them employment, is an urgent need in the present situation. The study evaluates the extent of empowerment provided through employment.

1.6. Objectives

Against this background, the following objectives are set for the purpose of the study.

1. To assess the socio- economic, political and legal status of women in Kerala.
2. To measure the empowerment of women at work place, within the person, family and society.

3. To assess the degree of empowerment achieved by women through employment.
4. To identify the major problems experienced by employed women.
5. To identify the factors restricting the labour force participation of women in Kerala.

1. 7. Hypothesis:

For a systematic analysis, the following main hypothesis has been framed.

“Empowerment of women is possible through Employment.”

Sub Hypotheses:

Ho.1: Employment leads to empowerment in organization.

Ho.2: Employment leads to empowerment within the person.

Ho.3: Employment leads to empowerment within the family.

Ho.4: Employment leads to empowerment within the society

1.8. Methodology

Both primary and secondary data were used for the study. Primary Data were collected through well structured and pre-tested questionnaire from women employees working in different sectors, and from self-employed women. Pre-testing of the questionnaire was conducted by administering the questionnaire among a selected group of employed women in Thrissur district. The questionnaire was modified in the light of the suggestions received. The modified questionnaire is given in Appendix . The study was confined to the state of Kerala. The whole state was divided into three regions such as South, Centre and North and from each region, a district was selected on a random

basis. The districts selected were Thiruvananthapuram, Thrissur and Kozhikode. Stratified random sampling method was used for the study. Appropriate sample (210 from each District) was selected from each region and each sector of employment. Strong presence of women in the service sector is a specific feature of women employment in Kerala. This was taken into consideration while selecting the sample for study. Seven categories of employed women included in the sample were School teachers, College teachers, Bank employees, Government employees, Nurses, Factory workers and Self employed business women. These seven categories represent majority of employed women in Kerala. A sample of 30 was selected from each category on a random basis. The primary data were supplemented by collecting information through interviews with women leaders, members of the Women's Commission and others who are associated with women upliftment.

The first part of the questionnaire evaluates the socio-cultural, educational, economic and family background of the women employees. The second part of the questionnaire is entirely devoted to questions which indirectly measure the degree of empowerment elements in an employed woman. Five point Likert scale was used for this purpose. Altogether 91 statements were placed before the respondents to mark their choices showing their agreement or disagreement to the statement.

Satisfaction Index is the main tool used to measure the degree of empowerment. The Index was calculated for all the 91 statements. On the basis of a thorough and detailed study of the various dimensions and elements of empowerment, the statements were grouped under 11 heads, namely, 1. Team Work, 2. Leadership, 3. Communication, 4. Performance, 5. Self Confidence, 6. Creativity, 7. Employer-Employee Relationship, 8. Job

Satisfaction, 9. Empowerment In Family, 10. Empowerment in Society and 11. Factors affecting women employment.

The cumulative Index was calculated for each element, sub-element, and each category of employees and the average index was found for each head. The points were distributed as follows: For Strongly Disagree : [-2] , Disagree : [-1], Undecided : [0], Agree : [1], Strongly Agree : [2]. Respondents tick marked one of the above five choices. Out of 630 respondents, the number of respondents who marked each of the choices was found. The frequencies were counted for each of the seven subgroups in the three districts separately and collectively.

The formula used to calculate the satisfaction index is

$$\text{Satisfaction Index} = [(-2 * f_1 + -1 * f_2 + 0 * f_3 + 1 * f_4 + 2 * f_5) / (2 * N)] * 100$$

where,

f_1 = frequency for Strongly Disagree, f_2 = frequency for Disagree

f_3 = frequency for Undecided, f_4 = frequency for Agree and

f_5 = frequency for Strongly Agree

N = The number of the respondents in the subgroups (30), districts (210) and the whole sample (630).

A value calculated as Satisfaction index will be evaluated as follows:

Below 33.33 = Less Favourable

Between 33.33 and 66.66 = Moderately Favourable

Above 66.66 = Highly Favourable.

An analysis of the Satisfaction index calculated for each statement under the various heads was carried out and empowerment in the organisation,

in the family and the society was measured. Empowerment in the organisation is split into two; namely, empowerment at work-place and empowerment within the person. Firstly, empowerment at work place is discussed through the analysis of indices for the four elements, namely, **1. team work 2. communication 3. leadership and 4. performance.** Empowerment within the person and empowerment in the family and society were also calculated. ANOVA technique was used to measure the inter-district variation. Inter correlations of variables are also measured.

Secondary data were collected from Government publications viz., Census of India, official statistics of Planning Board, Economics and Statistics Department, Directorate of Employment, Employment Exchanges, Kerala Women's Commission, District Industrial Centres and Kerala Institute of Local Administration, UNDP reports, publications of various agencies like the Centre for Development Studies, research works, studies conducted by institutions in other states, various journals, books and publications.

1.9. Period of the Study

The period of the study is confined to one year (2001-2002), for the primary data collection. The secondary data are drawn mainly from the Census of India and other official documents for the past few decades, especially from Census 1991 and 2001.

1.10. Literature Review

In the past few decades, there had been a proliferation of books and articles dealing with women's issues and women's studies. But the term gained popularity in Kerala only recently. In this study, a review is made, of the literature on women in Kerala and India relating to the employment and empowerment of women and of the problems faced by women. In order to

facilitate readability, the literature under consideration is grouped under three headings namely, employment, empowerment and problems faced by women.

Employment

Mukherjee (1948) states the fact that, even today, while we talk of the independent woman with ecstatic fervour, the poor hardworking woman is looked down upon as a pitiable wage earner.⁷

Srivastava, (1978) asserts that, employment leads to low fertility, work sharing in home by husbands and widens the woman's field of social interaction.⁸

Gulati (1981) is of the opinion that sex discrimination in wages exists and there is no chance for any improvement in wage. Women have greater commitment to family, they bring greater share of wages home and are ready to take up any work. And quite alarmingly, these women practise sex discrimination to their own children.⁹

Mallier and Rosser (1987) make a study of the role of women in the economy of two developed countries, America and Britain. They observe that, the industries that have absorbed the growth of women workers are predominantly in the service sector. Although women are spread over a wider range of industries and occupations than in most Western countries, there is still a substantial degree of sex segregation, on a pattern similar to that found elsewhere.¹⁰

Papola (1993) suggests that, since low LFPR of women exists in some of the Asian countries, it is necessary to provide access to women to education and training.¹¹

Norohna (1993) opines that as women form 50 per cent of the labour force, and their work participation is increasing, more avenues, programmes

and schemes must be made available to them for absorbing them into different occupations.¹²

Young (1993) observes that women are generally crowded into a few industrial sectors and within them in a narrow range of occupations. They tend to be in jobs categorised semi-skilled or unskilled, get few opportunities for advancement through either seniority or promotion, and have to accept less favourable conditions of work than men. While most observers agree that the dynamic of the gender division of labour is not economic rationality, economic factors tend to reinforce it.¹³

According to Bagilhole (1994), there are structural and cultural barriers, both outside and within the work environment, which combine to keep most women at a disadvantage in the world of work and block their advancement.¹⁴

Gopalan, (1995), establishes that women's participation is declining. She opines that mechanisation has become synonymous to displacement of women as a result of the gender-neutral technology.¹⁵

Parikh (1997) asserts that, the overly protected labour laws in the organised sector which forms 10% of labour force has slowed down the growth of employment. Labour policy reforms that can improve the efficiency and growth of the organised sector can contribute considerably to improving the Indian economy as well as raise the growth of employment and real wages.¹⁶

Srivastava (1997) views human resource as an economic resource covering all persons employed or capable of employment for producing goods and services.¹⁷

Kannan (1998) observes that, though Kerala is held up as a model for other Indian states as a shining example in social development, its slow

growth in the economic sphere, especially in the commodity producing sectors has been pointed out as a serious and continuing problem in its quest for overall development.¹⁸

National Commission on Self Employed Women and Women in the Informal sector (1998), observes that the law for protection of women workers such as maternity benefits, child care etc., result in the reduction in the number of women in the organised sector and push them more and more into unorganized, more exploitative and invisible occupations.¹⁹

Naidu and Manjushree (1999) notice the declining trend in the work participation of women. There is overrepresentation of women in the unorganized sector and lower paid categories in the organized sector and there is increasing casualisation of women labour.²⁰

Sharma and Sharma (2000) observe that in the formal organised sector, women are at a disadvantage because of relatively lower participation in the acquisition of new skills and that their number is still small. Due to increasing literacy and education, their participation is slowly increasing.²¹

Sunny (2000) enumerates the causes for unemployment as lack of employment opportunities in agriculture and industry, low priority given to employment generation and excessive importance to general education. The undue importance given to general education has resulted in spectacular social gains, but low priority given to creation of employment has resulted in lopsided economic development of the state. Advancement of IT is seen as an occasion to tackle Kerala's perennial unemployment problem.²²

Chadha (2000) suggests that greater efforts to give on-the-job training to students during their final years of education, could reduce the duration of job search for which a liaison with employers in the major growth centres or industries for providing practical training be established.²³

Kalpagam (2000) is of the opinion that, the percentage of unemployed women is much higher than that is revealed by statistics, when the number of women willing to work are added.²⁴

According to Verma and Larson (2001), employed women have to deal with six commitments namely marriage, children, career, house, friends and community involvement. The four strategies to be adopted to tackle this problem and to behave life satisfaction are Role sharing, Role cycling, Role substitution and Role disengagement.²⁵

Murthy and Gaur (2002) list the problems experienced by employed women as lack of attention to family, double burden, reduced entertainment and social activities, inconvenient working hours and non-cooperation of male colleagues. Majority of employed women are able to provide better economic conditions, better standard of living, better facilities and better atmosphere to the members of their family because of their employment. They were commanding more respect at home and on the society because of their job.²⁶

Prakash (2002) concludes that the urbanization of Kochi has been associated with a process of casualisation of labour, and failure to generate rapid growth of regular employment in the modern organized sector. Besides, joblessness is found to be a problem of educated youth, leading to their migration to other parts of India and abroad in search of employment.²⁷

According to Shaljan (2002), the deskilling by education, together with the disdain for manual labour inculcated among the students in schools and colleges, has resulted in the high incidence of unemployment among the educated youth having a strong preference for regular jobs in public and private sectors, which is scarce. Moreover, unlike the other states in India,

there is very little interaction between educational institutions and industry in Kerala.²⁸

Panda (2003) has found that a U-shaped relationship exists between household economic status (or class status) and women's current employment status. The interplay of economic factors and cultural factors as determinants of women - employment is important both on the supply side of the labour market and women's ability to obtain employment.²⁹

According to the World Bank, women, although largely engaged in many sectors of the economy, are not equally integrated into the monetary economy. Of major concern is also the short supply of productive work undertaken in condition of freedom, equity, and human dignity. Over the last decade there has been only a small progress, globally, in gender equality in wage employment in the non-agricultural sector, which measures the degree to which labor markets are open to women in industry and service sectors. Of the 119 countries with data for the late 1990s (a year in the period 1997-2002), only 18 developed countries had a share of women equal or slightly higher than that of men. In 42 countries the share of women in non-agricultural paid employment is below or well below 40 per cent.³⁰

Empowerment

Devi, (1979) identifies four variables for assessing the changes in status of employed women, such as the extent of power of decision-making in family, freedom in spending, help received in household responsibilities and deviations from traditional customs. Employed women were found to have higher scores in all the four elements. Therefore it can be concluded that employment contributed significantly to the social status of employed women.³¹

Sanday (1981) asserts that, male dominance is not inherent in human relations, but it has just evolved as a solution to various kinds of cultural strains experienced by the people in the past. There is no such phenomenon as universal female subordination.³²

Nayak (1983) is of the opinion that, since much of the decision making rested with men, the tendency to leave out women, or to ignore the obstacles that come in the way of women's participation was apparent. Women being left out as though it were normal, has increased the social, educational and cultural gap between men and women.³³

According to Sharma,(1986) the three parameters for measurement of performance are qualities to be appraised, choice of the appraiser and the choice of the measure. Four variables short-listed for measurement of performance are productivity, co-operativeness, obedience and initiative. Factors such as intelligence of the worker, experience, attitude towards the organisation, organisational climate, job satisfaction and certain personality variables affect the job performance of employees.³⁴

Wollstonecraft (1989) deals with the criticism that women do not have enough reasoning. She argues that if boys and girls were given the same education and socialisation patterns, women would have the right reasoning like men. Women do not miss reason by nature, but they miss cultural and social convention and are excluded from education.³⁵

Elson (1991) looks at male bias as a bias that operates in favour of men as a gender and against women as a gender and that it doesn't mean that all men are biased against women. Developing a better sense of self worth and of their contribution to the family and the society is essential.³⁶

According to the Nobel Laureate Sen, (1992) all are deeply diverse in internal characters such as age, gender, talents etc, as well as in external

circumstances such as ownership of assets, social background, environmental predicaments and so on. Inequalities related to such categories as class, gender and communities have far reaching significance in the domestic sphere and in the wider community. 'Co-operative conflict' exists in family and hence there is the need of empowering women.³⁷

Baud (1992) opines that, women's responsibilities within the household constrain the types of employment to which she has access and the kinds of household activities with which she can combine them. Her employment and income can lead to changes in her bargaining power within the household, as reflected in the division of domestic labour, distribution of resources and decision making patterns.³⁸

Geetha (1993) explains how women in India were made submissive and subservient to men, through the continuous religious exhortations, starting with Manu's teachings. Man was raised to the position of a god to be worshipped and obeyed by woman. This paved way to the undue male preference in India, which continues even today in different forms.³⁹

Gulati (1993) is pretty sure that if properly empowered in the ordinary course of things, women are more than capable of dealing with tasks that ordinarily men have excluded them from.⁴⁰

Foy (1994) defines empowerment as follows. "Empowerment is simply gaining the power to make your voice heard, to contribute to plans and decisions that affect you, to use your expertise at work, to improve your performance and with it, the performance of the whole organization".⁴¹

Warren and Gielnik (1995) view at Empowerment as taking responsibility, achieving self confidence and exercising decision making power. By allowing other people to take decisions for us, we are giving them our power. Empowerment is very difficult for women, since they are always

encouraged not to take up responsibility. Empowerment underpins the quality of our working life by creating in us, greater confidence in our ideas, skills and judgment.⁴²

Reddy and Jamison, (1995), address a wide range of team building issues and dynamics. The book elaborates on developing and using the individual, interpersonal and group skills required to a creative, efficient and satisfying team.⁴³

Nussbaum and Glover (1995) argue that the 'capabilities' approach pioneered by Amartya Sen is superior to utilitarian-economic and cultural-relativist approaches in analysing the problems of women in developing countries and in generating creative proposals for change.⁴⁴

The work by Uyl, (1995), 'Invisible Barriers', is based on gender and development in Kerala, in the context of an extensive research project, 'Looking at Labour and Poverty in India and the Philippines'. The book is focused on female agricultural labourers in Kerala.⁴⁵

Smith (1996) explains the needs, benefits, barriers and source of empowerment. According to her, empowering people means, encouraging them to become more involved in the decisions and activities that affect their jobs.⁴⁶

Kumari and Kidwai (1996) think that reservation for women is the only recourse for equal representation and decision making in the political field.⁴⁷

Balk (1997) has observed that, women who are older, who do not live in the homes of their in-laws, and who live in relatively lenient households have both greater authority and mobility than other women. Women from poorer homes have greater mobility due to necessity and among them those who work outside have greater authority.⁴⁸

Gupta (1997) expresses her personal doubts about the idea of empowerment. The wives and daughters of departed and barred leaders will come and go, but history is male dominated, and women should have their own vision of the future.⁴⁹

Vogt and Murrell (1997) explore the concept of empowerment which offers employees a way to achieve recognition, involvement and a sense of worth in their jobs. They explain in detail that any organisation can provide an environment that people find empowering.⁵⁰

Ray (1997) expresses the fact that of all those who have worked for the cause of women, Gandhi stands in the forefront and that he knew very well that women in India were the saddest on earth. According to her, participation of women alone can change the face of corrupted India.⁵¹

Lundy (1998) opines that often people do not place high-enough priority on communicating, co-ordinating and co-operating. Teamwork is the key to success in any organisation, whether in business, community or family life.⁵²

Purushothaman (1998) shares the idea of a decentralised loosely structured network of organisations which can actually increase the visibility and participation of poor women, enable them to bargain for resources and state policy, while simultaneously projecting the autonomy of the organisations involved.⁵³

Afshar (1998), gives a detailed explanation of the term, 'Empowerment'. Issues like control over resources, economic and political power are discussed. She argues that women must have access to resources, confidence in what they do and must perceive that they can make choices.⁵⁴

Dawson (1998) is of the idea that Empowerment is intangible and abstract and hence not easy to measure. Empowerment would be occurring

only when there is actual increase in women's active participation in decision-making.⁵⁵

Immanuel (1998) brings to light, the inequalities faced by Indian women in various walks of life. She asserts that, if given a chance, woman can do as much and as well as any man.⁵⁶

Narayanan (1998) evaluates the position of women in India after fifty years of independence and recalls the freedom struggle when Indian women responded to the call of Mahatma Gandhi and participated in tens of thousands. She says that women need to be empowered to take their rightful place on an equal footing with men.⁵⁷

Narasimhan (1999) states that the more vital inhibiting factor leading to the disadvantaged position of women are powerlessness and vulnerability. Bringing about an attitudinal change among women is the most important step towards empowerment. Empowerment of women should begin with awareness generation ie., empowering women psychologically first, with confidence, information and optimism and motivation rather than economic interventions.⁵⁸

Oommen (1999) reveals that the problems faced by Kerala women are not physically endangering but psychologically debilitating which sometimes end up being life threatening. High rate of suicide and mental illness among women and collective suicides of sisters in the face of their families' inability to raise the mandatory dowries for their marriages bear witness to this.⁵⁹

Rajeevan (1999) observes that, in the caste society in Kerala, there were inviolable customs and taboos relating to man-woman relationship. Even the construction of houses were planned in such a way to prevent mutual sight and touch of males and females, which led to the objectification of female bodies. The problems relating to the future are the gestures of the

emergence of a new subjectivity of women in Kerala, defying the modes of objectification of women's body through which they were totally confined to a female sexual subjectivity.⁶⁰

Vats and Mudgal (1999) present a picture of women in various professions. They argue that women should get close access to the areas like market place, work place and modern technology and they should be able to organise commercial and entrepreneurial ventures in order to remould and balance the social structure.⁶¹

Patel, Devi and Tadas (1999) call for fostering empowerment of women and ensuring their full participation in all spheres of development. The status and problems of women in Asia are discussed and measures for development are suggested.⁶²

Soundarapandian (1999), highlights the development in the field of women entrepreneurship. She looks into the constraints for women in the field and suggests strategies for women entrepreneurship development.⁶³

Naduthotty (1999) observes that, inequalities in employment opportunities, in education and health, unfavourable attitude of government bodies and banks are some of the disparities suffered by women globally. Women should be enabled for securing employment in existing organisations through reservation and by enhancing credit facilities to take up self-employment. Securing better paid jobs will raise their social status considerably.⁶⁴

Editor, Mainstream (1999) presents various programmes for empowering women such as providing them with modern, secular education, giving them better skills, providing them with employment opportunities outside home and securing them independent income, providing proper

representation in managerial, political and administrative positions of power and responsibility.⁶⁵

Narayanan (1999) presents the 21st century challenges before women. Women are waging a struggle to secure the legitimate place in the society. Her opinion is that political participation constitutes the first and the foremost step in that direction.⁶⁶

Pruthi, Devi and Pruthi, (1999), in their work, "Encyclopaedia of Status and Empowerment of Women in India, Vol.1&2", urge Indian women to come out of their cloistered lives and to live with the dignity and status they deserve. In the first volume status of Indian women has been studied with a historical perspective. The second volume discusses the present position of women and different policies and programmes for women's welfare and development.⁶⁷

Navaneethan (2000) observes that, non-earning women are less likely to use maternal health care services compared to earning women. It is also possible that earning women have greater exposure to accessing relevant information and knowledge regarding issues related to maternal and child health.⁶⁸

Pant (2000) states that, gender and power relations are conceptualised as consisting of a set of exchange relationships having two dimensions: activity and decision making. The activity dimension implies division of labour among members of the household. When their contribution to the household is not considered significant, their bargaining power within the household is limited. This weakened their role in decision-making and their claims on household resources.⁶⁹

Nussbaum (2000) envisions family as a social institution in which the state must intervene to safeguard the interest of women and children.

According to her, new relationships in organisations make positive changes in the family relationship by giving women new strength to bargain against domestic violence, and winning them new respect from husband and sons. Often there is a valuable synergy between networks of care outside the family and a positive restructuring of that institution.⁷⁰

Murthy (2001) speaks of a transformational training or capacity building of the women workers that not only equipped them with the techno-managerial skills for running their endeavours, but more importantly, enabled them to analyse the structural context of the economy and society.⁷¹

According to Analil (2002), the status of woman is intimately connected with her economic position which depends on opportunities for participation in economic activities. The participation in economic activities of woman is now accepted as an indication of development of a society. Economic empowerment is the single most important need for improving the position of women.⁷²

Malhotra, Schuler and Boender (2002), make a study of the various concepts of empowerment including empowerment as a process, identify a large number of variables used by many authors in measuring the status or empowerment of women in different communities and societies. They consider women's economic contribution as an enabling factor which can predict other outcomes such as control over important decisions in family.⁷³

According to Nillesen and Gelfert (2002), the perceived inferior status-economically, socially and religiously- of females means that families attach lower certainty to female prospects than to that of their female counterparts. In order to induce a similar level of investment between males and females, the required return for females must be greater to compensate for the perceived risk associated with investing in females. It requires either the

creation of jobs for females or breaking of the patrilineal inheritance structure.⁷⁴

Kalpagam (2002) states that, for an understanding of gender empowerment process, it is necessary to have an understanding of the transactional matrix of women which means the set of human relations that encompass women's life.⁷⁵

Bhattacharya (2002) commenting on the declining sex ratio states that, it is necessary to stress on both the wings of nature (the male and the female) that can give balanced flight to our culture and development.⁷⁶

Boraian (2003) asserts that, women need to be the agents of their own empowerment. Outsiders and outside organisations can only help to create the conditions favourable to women's empowerment and can support the process that works in these directions.⁷⁷

Mishra and Singh (2003), develop an index of female empowerment and observe state-wise differentials in it. The paper comes out with the result that women in the backward states are less empowered in general and in comparison to men, compared to other states of India.⁷⁸

Problems Faced by Women

Baig (1976) feels that Asian and African women face lesser discrimination than their counterparts in the West. It appeared to her that Vedic Women were comparable to modern Indian women; the upper strata or the very gifted being permitted every advantage of education, with the capacity to rise to the highest status and authority, while injustice and impediments hampered the life of women at lower levels.⁷⁹

Sachchidananda and Sinha (1984) are of the opinion that although the Indian Constitution declares equal rights for men and women, women in India suffer from a variety of social and economic disabilities which prevent them from exercising their human rights and freedom in society.⁸⁰

Sheth (1994) states that the present policies and programmes of Government aimed at poverty alleviation failed to perceive the magnitude and intricacies of the functioning of labour market.⁸¹

Jody, Nina (1995) argues that women's importance in the economic field has declined in the modernising process and that their status and power in the society has diminished as well.⁸²

Karlekar (1998) argues that at every stage there is discrimination and violence, particularly against girl children and later women within the household, either natural or conjugal. Gendered violence is becoming a feature of daily living in contemporary India and it has yet to become a priority area of research.⁸³

Srivastava N. (1999) says that domestic violence was an issue that was impacted upon most women, but wrapped up in the shroud of silence.⁸⁴

Sen (1999) brings to light the problems faced by professional women, on the basis of a study conducted on Indian and Canadian women. After making a historical study of the position of Indian women, she proceeds to the core of the problems faced by professional women. The problems are explained in a cross-cultural perspective.⁸⁵

Khwaja and Chandra (1999) express the amount of stress and strain experienced by women executives. It is pointed out that majority of women hold lower jobs in the Government. The adverse working condition, and attitude of others, who are mostly men have also a negative effect.⁸⁶

Patel (1999), after evaluating the miserable condition of the poor women in India, establishes that development has a woman's face. According to her, most women are permanently working, but not permanently employed in the work force. Their income is so low that most of them have no savings and no control of income generating activities.⁸⁷

Raymond (1999) expresses her reaction towards I.L.O.'s demand for recognition of the sex industry, which in fact will lead to degradation of the status of women in the society.⁸⁸

Pushpangadan and Murugan (2000) bring to light the gender bias among the fishing and scheduled tribe communities in Kerala. Females are found to have lower well-being and bargaining power with regard to break down position, perceived interest and perceived contribution.⁸⁹

Bisnath (2001) argues that, protective labour legislation like forbidding night shift has the paradoxical result of protecting men's jobs and re-enforcing violence against women, primarily because it forecloses discussions of men using violence, to regulate women's lives and maintain their privilege in an insecure labour market.⁹⁰

Lindberg (2001) observes that caste continues to dominate the mindset of the workers in Kerala. It continues to be the normative field for determining family bonding, social relations, solidarity and distribution of work among women. She looks for the emergence of a new culture that transcends caste at the work place.⁹¹

Patel (2002) examining the declining sex ratio of children in the 0-6 age group, points to the possibility of sex selective abortions in Kerala also, in the context of low fertility and preference for male child to keep the family line going.⁹²

Krishnaji and James (2002), state that the consensus among demographers is that the deficit in sex ratio are the result of higher female death rates upto the age of 45 or so; and that discrimination against girls and neglect of women are responsible for the higher rates.⁹³

Jain and Sharma (2002) state that the differential paradigms of honour which resulted in developing control mechanisms and processes of socialization are severely restricting women's mobility and work sphere. This is achieved through the formulation of stringent ethical standards, behavioural pattern and code of conduct that governed them in all life stages.⁹⁴

Ramanathan (2004) opines that family structures in the developing countries like India perpetuate the subordinate position of women. Several hidden social constraints and customs inhibit women's free choice and access to education and employment opportunities.⁹⁵

Though the above authors have dealt with the topics of empowerment and employment, none of them has made a study to measure the empowerment that is conferred upon a woman by employment. In this study an attempt is made to analyse the degree of empowerment woman attains through various types of employment. The analysis will be made by breaking up the different aspects of empowerment in different fields of activity of a woman like the household, work place and in the society at large.

1.11. Scope of the study

The present study analyses the problem of empowerment of women in the context of high literacy rate and low employment opportunities in Kerala. The study, it is hoped, will help us in understanding the extent of empowerment as well as the problems faced by the women folk in Kerala. The study is confined to Empowerment through employment alone, and relates only to Kerala state.

1.12. Limitations

1. The study is based on a sample population in Kerala. The conclusions drawn may be appropriate to the state of Kerala, but need not necessarily be applicable to the whole of India, since employment situations and labour force participation vary from state to state.
2. The samples are drawn mainly from the organized service sector where Kerala women are employed in large numbers. Professionals like doctors and engineers are excluded.
3. Comparative study of employed and unemployed women is not made since empowerment measurement in this study is aimed basically in an organizational set up.

1.13. Framework of the Report

The whole study is presented in seven chapters. Chapter 1 deals with the introduction, statement of the problem, research design, scope and period of study and literature review. The second chapter evaluates the status of women in Kerala and India. Chapter 3 discusses the present employment scenario and deals with the problem of low labour force participation of women in the country and the state. Chapter 4 deals with the topic of empowerment in detail. The analysis of primary data is done in Chapter 5 and 6. The distribution of sample is included in chapter 5. Chi-square values were calculated to measure inter-district variations in the sample. In chapter 6, empowerment elements are analysed separately at the work place, within the person, family and society with the help of the Likert scale, and the Satisfaction Index for each was computed. Chapter 7, the last chapter, summarises the findings of the study, presents the conclusions derived, and makes a few recommendations for enhancing the empowerment of women.

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WOMEN IN KERALA

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Chapter II
Women in Kerala

CHAPTER II

WOMEN IN KERALA

Introduction

The concept of womanhood and the status of women have been ever changing in India. There have been infinite variations in the status of women due to many factors like culture, family structure, caste, property rights and religious laws. Women have always been marginalized to an inferior or secondary status in Indian society. But women in Kerala stand out as an exception. Though not considered equals with men, they enjoy a better position than women in the other parts of the country. The social and developmental indices highlight this fact. In determining the relative position of women in each society, its cultural, social and historical factors play an important role¹. Hence, a study on the empowerment of women should consider this relative position to assess the need for empowerment. In this chapter an attempt is made to discuss these factors.

2.1. A HISTORICAL ANALYSIS OF THE STATUS OF WOMEN IN INDIA

There have been three distinct phases in the struggle for a better status, life and opportunity for women in India. The first was in the 19th century, led by male reformers aided by religious groups of both Hindus and Christians. The second was the participation in the freedom movement which culminated in independence in 1947, and the third, the post-independence period upto Women's International Year 1975.² In the following pages, a historical overview of the position of Indian women in the pre-independence and post-independence periods is presented, followed by a historical analysis of women in Kerala.

2.1.1. Women in the Pre-independence Society

Vedas, Puranas, Samhitas and Smritis played a dominant role in fabricating the life and culture of the pre-British Indian society. Manu's teaching, 'na sthree swathanthryamarhathi', (woman does not deserve freedom) had great influence on the society. Patriarchy was prevalent during the Vedic period. While the birth of a boy was eagerly looked forward to, that of a girl was considered as a misfortune. But she was not discriminated from a son in the matter of education. There were at least twenty women among the composers of Rig Vedic hymns. Women also chanted Sama hymns.³

In the pre-vedic period women were highly honoured among the agricultural groups settled in fertile regions. Men and women worked on the soil together to reap her blessings and bounty. "The clan life in which the mother headed the family, created the mother goddess and raised her to the supreme position. Women, like the earth, gave life, sustenance and strength."⁴

The Post-Vedic society experienced a change towards rigidification. Manu conferred upon Brahmins new privileges, while deprived women and Sudras many of their rights which they enjoyed during the Vedic period. They had an inferior status in the Post-Vedic society. He had a theoretical basis for the social and legal subordination of women. Woman's say in the selection of her life partner was curtailed substantially and age of marriage was also reduced, thus giving room for manipulation. Kautilya's Arthasasthra cited age 12 as the age at which a girl attained maturity. The Epic period also had the tendency of keeping woman in seclusion and her freedom of movement was greatly suppressed. The steadily rigidifying Brahmanism directly and indirectly degraded woman. Buddhism opened all portals of religion to all human beings irrespective of their caste affiliation.⁵ Buddhism and Jainism tried to liberate woman from the bondages the society created for her.⁶

Muslim invasion of India further worsened the position of women. They tried to impose their coercive norms on the Hindus. In the meantime the Hindu society itself became more rigid, curtailing rights and freedom of women and the lower castes. Muslims practised polygamy and the use of purdah was prevalent. Brahmins started observing sati after the muslims invaded India. During and after the 15th century, those who did not observe sati were held in great dishonour.

The latter half of the 18th century (the time of advent of the British) was marked by the maximum deterioration of the position of women in India. The unkind social institutions and customs conferred an inferior status on the Indian women and prevented the free growth of personality. Some of the facts recorded by the British servants of the East India Company shows how India appeared to Western eyes. "To murder an unwanted daughter, to burn a widow alive, to push a child into the river among crocodiles or sharks- these were the things that, to the servants of the Company seemed cruel and wicked"⁷

The introduction of new economic system as well as education in the British India created new social forces in the Indian society. Nationalist movements emerged. The liberalism in the social, political, economic and cultural movements resulted in the emancipation of the Indian women too.

In the pre-independence period many fought for the cause of freedom for women. The abolition of sati was the result of the earnest works of Raja Ram Mohan Roy. The Widow Remarriage Act of 1856 was passed by the efforts of Iswar Chandra Vidyasagar. Justice M.G. Ranade laid down 12 and 18 years as the minimum age for marriage and 16 and 25 years as the age of consummation for girls and boys respectively. Maharshi Karve, who lost his wife at a very young age married a widow, which raised the prestige of social reformers. Swami Vivekananda who received Western education identified the oppression of women and the undemocratic caste system as the two main evils

in India. Swami Dayanand Saraswathi devised an educational scheme to help women to build up both intelligence and physical strength as well as to bring to her, the means of economic independence. Annie Besant opposed child marriage and demanded freedom and new opportunities for women.

2.1.2. Women and the Indian National Movement

Women began to show interest in the political movement during the first decade of the 20th century. Annie Besant founded the Home Rule Movement. Sarojini Naidu also appeared on the scene, with a group of women, demanding voting rights for women in 1917 and demanded equal participation for women in Government. From 1919, which really marked the beginning of the revolutionary movement under Gandhi, upto independence in 1947, the women's movement gained momentum, first by attacking old customs, working for women's education and later on all aspects of legal reforms.⁸ Mahatma Gandhi, the Father of our Nation, took an equalitarian and democratic stand in defining the rights of man and woman. He condemned child marriage, supported widow remarriage and strongly opposed the purdah system and the Devadasi system. He believed that woman has a right to education and insisted on the participation of women in politics. As a result, women in big numbers took part bravely in the Indian Independence struggle.⁹ The All India Women's Conference was founded, which supported the National liberation movement and pursued social reform issues.

2.1.3. Women in the Post-Independence Period

During the post-independence period, the democratically elected Governments both at the Centre and the States considered women's problems, found solutions and legislated them into law. Women were given the opportunity in all fields which are open to men. They also became a part of the

decision making bodies such as village panchayat, legislative assembly and even the parliament.¹⁰

Women's organisations, academicians and social workers have all contributed to bringing about a sea change in the status of women in independent India. Numerous struggles held against dowry murders, rape, female illiteracy, female mortality, female infanticide and feticide not only highlighted the gender-based structures of oppression, but also linked them with other social and economic structures at the national level.¹¹ Yet there are people who still reel under caste orthodoxy and male chauvinism. Dowry deaths are not uncommon. Educational attainment and literacy level of females are not at all encouraging. Consequent to the exhortations of the United Nations and the study of the status of women in India in 1975, the Government of India in 1986 brought out a package of measures aimed at the upliftment of women. Centres for women's studies were set up in a few parts of the country to enable academicians to concentrate on identifying and tackling the problems of women.¹²

2.2. A HISTORICAL ANALYSIS OF STATUS OF WOMEN IN KERALA

The position of women in Kerala is far better than that of those in other parts of the country in many respects. Educational attainment, literacy level, age for marriage, low infant and maternal mortality rate etc., of this state are really encouraging. This attainment is due to the concerted and gradual effort over a long period of time. During the British period, the state was under the rule of kings who showed special interest in the fields of education, health and administration. After the formation of the state in 1956, efforts were continued by the successive democratically elected Governments to see that the achievements made earlier do not go in vain.¹³

2.2.1. Socio-cultural Factors

The earliest references to Kerala society can be obtained from 'sangam' literature. In it, there are many references to the position of Kerala (Chera) women. During the sangam age, ie., the first five centuries of the Christian era, women enjoyed a high status, with many privileges and freedom in life. They even went with men to the war front. The systems of polygamy and polyandry did not exist then, and education as it existed at the time was universal. Women of all classes participated in all social and religious activities. But this enviable position of women began to change during the late sangam period. With the Aryanisation of Kerala society in the 8th century, A.D., the status of women began to degenerate. The caste system that the Aryans introduced not only compartmentalised the society, but also lowered the status of women.¹⁴

2.2.2. Matriliney

No discussion can be made regarding the current status and role of Kerala women without referring to matriliney. It is believed that matriliney became common in the 10th or 11th century A.D. and was accepted by all castes by the 14th century. Anthropologists like L.K.Balaratnam and L.A. Krishna Iyer have proved that matriliney existed among tribal people of Kerala from the ancient period itself.¹⁵ It had several features which affected the status of women. The family called 'tarawad' consisted of all the descendants of a common ancestor in the female line. The children belonged to the wife and her natal family. The family property was administered by the Karanavar (the eldest male member) of the tarawad. But he had no right of alienation of property without the consent of all the members.¹⁶

As a result of this very different system of family relationship including marriage and other family practices, women in general had more influence over their lives. It gave them a unique status and importance in their families when

compared to women in the rest of the country. There was no child marriage and age for marriage was relatively high. Marriage was a simple ceremony without much dowry transfer. The traumatic experience of leaving the parental home was not needed and there was no question of abdicating the rights in the natal home. Female children were not only welcome, but also desired to keep the family line going. Female visibility and mobility were not constrained. Nair women used to adorn themselves with the best dress and ornaments and throng public places in the company of their men. They also practised polyandry without any social stigma being attached to it. Purdah was unknown among these castes and remarriage was allowed to widows. This pervasive influence of the matrilineal system was important in determining social attitudes in Kerala towards women's welfare, education and health.¹⁷

But all groups of Hindu women in Kerala were not equally fortunate. Gender relations in Kerala assumed different forms across caste boundaries. Namboodiri caste in itself was patriarchal and there was seclusion of female members in the family. Namboodiri men enjoyed not only high religious and social status but also considerable economic and political clout.¹⁸

Women lived in polygamous households with very rigid rules of female chastity, religious rituals and seclusion. The only choice for a Namboodiri woman was to become one of the many wives of a Namboodiri man or to lead a cloistered life of spinsterhood in their own illams. They were called 'antarjanam' or 'akathamma' which means, belonging to indoors.¹⁹ Since numerically Namboodiris constituted only one per cent of the population, the problems their women faced affected only a minority. But it had its influence on the society, since this minority belonged to a caste that enjoyed the highest social and religious status. The younger Namboodiri men had no rights to family property or to establish a family life of their own. They could have liaisons outside the caste, mainly from Nair, without any obligation to the

children. Sambandam, an institution which, by debauching the women of one class (Nair), punish the women of another (Namboodiri) to life long and enforced celibacy, was condemned by the Malabar Marriage Commission in 1891. Both Namboodiri men and women fought against this system and won their equal rights to marry within the caste by 1930.²⁰

Ezhavas comprise another major caste group which was subject to many social disabilities. There are both matrilineal and patrilineal groups among them. The position and status of women from the lower castes of Pulayas and Parayas, which constituted 10 % of the population of the state were far from satisfactory. Until the abolition of slavery in 1843, they were known as the slave castes. Women as well as men suffered from severe civil disabilities.²¹

2.2.3. Decline of Matriliney

By the turn of the 19th century, matrilineal men and women found their customs inappropriate and were anxious to reorganise their family life and inheritance on patrilineal patterns followed elsewhere. Junior men among the Nairs and the Namboodiris who had marginal roles in the family were the principal protagonists of change. For the women of Kerala, the disappearance of matriliney and its replacement by patrilineal monogamous households should have represented a retrograde step. A system that allocated strength and advantages to Kerala women was completely dismantled. Women did not realise then what they were being asked to give up. Legislative attempts to reform matriliney began in the 1950's and within a period of 25-30 years, the three regions of Kerala had legislation recognising marriage and permitting inheritance through fathers. These legislations while recognising 'sambandham' as marriage, also permitted a man to bequeath half of his self-acquired property to his wife and children. Previously, his own property passed automatically into the collective property of his matrilineal joint family. Polygamy was outlawed and family branches were permitted to divide. The

Hindu Succession Act of 1956, applicable to the whole of India specifically gave the right to demand per capita division to members of matrilineal families also.²² The final blow was struck however, through the legislation of 1976 whereby all surviving matrilineal families were deemed to be divided on per capita basis. As a result, the autonomy of the Nair women, vis-a-vis men has declined; their status and position has worsened, although it remains higher than that of the majority of Indian women.²³

Women seemed convinced that monogamy and the institution of patrilineal marriages gave them more security. Also they felt that these new practices conformed to the norms of men and women in the rest of India and the majority of the world cultures and that they did not want to be different. Additionally, under reformed patriliney now in force in Kerala, women of the present generation feel that they have access both to their natal homes, immovable property and legal claim to their husband's property. A new synthesis is evolved of the new and the old which means that women have improved their material position even further.

2.2.4. Socio-Political Participation of Women

Literacy brought a lot of socio-political changes in Kerala. The writings of Karl Marx attracted the educated youngsters then started a chain of struggles against slavery, caste system, bonded labour etc. Women also involved in these struggles. Their involvement brought them to the main stream of development.²⁴ Struggles were organised in Kuttanad where a small number of landlords managed paddy cultivation with the help of large number of low caste workers, of which 70 % were women. As a result of the 'Upper Cloth Revolt', women of all castes were granted the right to cover their bodies with an upper garment in 1859. Till then, only high caste women could wear an upper cloth.²⁵ Those who converted to Christianity had permission to wear jacket (kuppayam).²⁶ The decade from 1940 to 1950 witnessed quite a few

struggles by the agricultural workers of Travancore and the participation of women in these struggles was quite significant. The social movements of Punnapra Vayalar, Karivelloor, and Kayyoor are few examples. As a result of the struggles, the Land Reform Act was passed in 1969 and by 1980 there was abolition of tenancy of land and the bestowal of ownership on tens of thousands of hut dwellers.

2.2.5. Christian influence on Education and Social Changes in Kerala

It was with the coming of Christian Missions and their active involvement in the field of education that social reform got a better chance to spread out to the larger community.²⁷ All Christian denominations, earlier or later were possibly unanimous in wanting change in what they considered wrong and unethical with the social practices in Kerala, especially the evils of the caste system.

The presence of Christian community in Kerala, consequent to the arrival of St. Thomas in A.D. 52, is referred by historians.²⁸ The first Jesuit missionary, St. Francis Xavier arrived in India in 1542. Jesuits established the first printing press in Kerala. The first book in Indian language, in Malabar Tamil was printed in 1578. The first Malayalam newspaper, 'Rajya samacharam' came out in 1847. The first journal dealing with women's issues called 'Keraleeya Suguna Bodhini' was started in 1887. Many other such journals including Sarada and Laxmibai followed.²⁹

The credit for introducing western education goes mainly to the 19th century Christian Missionaries and the local princes. The tremendous strides the state has made in literacy and education today had its seeds sown in these early beginnings. In 1806, W.T. Ringletaube, a German Missionary with the London Missionary Society was the first to start a modern school in Thiruvananthapuram. In 1817, school attendance was made compulsory for

children between the age of five and ten. But it was not effective, especially in the case of girls. By 1898, in the two Princely states of Cochin and Travancore, 14 % and 19 % respectively of girls in the school age group attended primary schools. By the period of independence, in 1950, 80 % of girls attended schools in these two regions of Kerala. Meanwhile a number of convent schools were started for girls, which gave them easy access to education.³⁰ All these historical factors have a direct bearing on the position enjoyed by women in Kerala today, in the form of high indicators of development of women which has attracted world-wide attention.

2.2.6. Kerala Model of Development

The much-publicized Kerala Model of Development, with the help of social statistics asserts that women in Kerala enjoy a higher status when compared to women in the rest of India. It raises Kerala closer to high-income, developed countries than to its counterparts in the developing, low-income countries. Kerala presents a bright picture as far as women's development is concerned. The major highlights of women development in Kerala as revealed by Census 2001 are briefly summarised below:

- Among the Indian states Kerala has the highest Human Development Index and Gender Related Development Index.
- Kerala has 1058 women for every 1000 men. Consistently Kerala has a favourable sex ratio for women.
- The literacy of Kerala women is 87.86 per cent as against 54 percent at the all India level.
- Kerala is in the forefront in life expectancy for females at 74 years (as against 68 years for males) as compared to 64 years for women and 62 years for men in India.

- In Kerala, Infant Mortality Rate is 15.6 and Maternal Mortality Rate is 1.4 as against 71.6 and 4.08 respectively for India.
- The mean age for marriage is 22 years in Kerala as against 20.54 for all India. While 65% of women in India marry before 18 years, in Kerala it is 7% and in Rajasthan 82%.(Annual Report 2001-02 DWCD).
- Girls enrolment rate at school and college levels is near total. Though the enrolment of girls is near equality at Lower and Upper Primary levels, it is greater than equality at High School level. The enrolment rate at higher secondary and college levels are 58 per cent and 61 per cent respectively. At degree level girls enrolment is 64 per cent and at PG level it is 73 per cent.
- The proportion of women teachers is 68 per cent at school level and 53 per cent at college level.
- Employment status of women is that the private sector is the largest employer of women in Kerala. Among the 42.38 lakh work seekers, women constitute more than 55 per cent.
- In Kerala 97 per cent of the deliveries are institutionalized as against the average of about 60 per cent in India. This has reduced the maternal mortality rate considerably.
- The immunization coverage is universal and the health check up programme launched for adolescent girls is yet another landmark.
- Kerala has experienced the sharpest fertility decline in India in the last two decades. During the course of past 30 years, the fertility rate in Kerala declined from an average level of six children per couple to less than 2 children. The total fertility rate estimate for 1991 and 2001 is 1.8 in Kerala while it is 3.6 for India.

- The registration of marriage, births and deaths is almost universal in Kerala. This is due to the high level of literacy and wide spread women education and social awakening.
- Another indicator of women development is the large number of movements in which women are active participants. The Mahilasamajams, the neighbourhood groups of women, women wings of residential association, self-help groups etc., are examples. Such movements have strengthened women's power in the state. Out of 50,411 voluntary agencies in Kerala about 20,000 are Mahilasamajams.³¹

2.2.7. Human Development in Kerala

Kerala holds the first rank among the Indian states with regard to Human Development Index, Gender Related Development Index and Gender Empowerment Measure.

Human Development Index (HDI)

Human development index is a composite index derived from per capita consumption expenditure, incidence of poverty, access to safe drinking water, proportion of pucca houses, literacy rate for the age group 7 years and above, intensity of formal education, life expectancy at age one and infant mortality rate. It is the measure of three critical dimensions of well being (a) **longevity** - the ability to live long and healthy life: (b) **Education** - the ability to read, write and acquire knowledge; and (c) **command over resources** - the ability to enjoy a decent standard of living and have a socially meaningful life. Table 2.1 shows the HDI ranks for the states of India for 1981,91 and 2001.

Table 2.1

Human Development Index

States	1981		1991		2001	
	Index	Rank	Index	Rank	Index	Rank
1. Andhra Pradesh	0.298	9	0.377	9	0.416	10
2. Assam	0.272	10	0.348	10	0.386	14
3. Bihar	0.237	15	0.38	15	0.367	15
4. Gujarat	0.360	4	0.431	6	0.479	6
5. Haryana	0.360	5	0.443	5	0.509	5
6. Karnataka	0.346	6	0.412	7	0.478	7
7. Kerala	0.500	1	0.591	1	0.638	1
8. Madhyapradesh	0.245	14	0.238	13	0.394	12
9. Maharashtra	0.363	3	0.452	4	0.523	4
10. Orissa	0.267	11	0.345	12	0.404	11
11. Punjab	0.411	2	0.475	2	0.537	2
12. Rajasthan	0.256	12	0.347	11	0.424	9
13. Tamil Nadu	0.343	7	0.466	3	0.531	3
14. Uttar Pradesh	0.255	13	0.314	14	0.388	13
15. West Bengal	0.305	8	0.404	8	0.472	8
All India	0.302	-	0.381	-	0.472	-

Source: National Human Development Report (NHDR) 2001, Rank at National level.

Kerala ranks first in human development with an index of 0.638. This position is consistent since 1981, thanks to the Physical Quality of Life (PQL) prevalent in the state over the decades. Punjab (0.537) stood next to Kerala, followed by Tamil Nadu, (0.531) Maharashtra (0.523) and Haryana (0.509). States like Bihar (0.367), Uttar Pradesh (0.388) and Madhya Pradesh (0.394) were at the other end.

2.2.8. Population and Sex Ratio

Among the states in India, Kerala ranks second in population density of 819 persons per sq.k.m. as against the national average of 267. The increase is from 165 in 1901. In the population composition of India, males have consistently exceeded females in every census period. But Kerala follows the pattern of developed countries. The sex ratio in Kerala is unique in the country. It is the only state in India having an excess of females over males. Kerala shares 3.1 per cent of India's population of 102 crores in 2001. The women population in Kerala constituted 164 lakhs which is 51.4% of the state total of 318 lakhs as per 2001 census with a sex ratio of 1058 females for 1000 males, while the all India sex ratio is 933.

2.3. SOME NEGATIVE ASPECTS RELATING TO DEVELOPMENT OF WOMEN

2.3.1. Declining Sex Ratio of 0-6 Age Group

An alarming decline in the sex ratio of 0-6 age group has been noted in India, in the latest Census 2001, which has caught the attention of demographers worldwide. In fact, sex ratio has been continuously on the decline for the past few decades. As per Census 2001, the child sex ratio was 927, as against 945 in 1991 and 962 in 1981. Families want fewer children and only boys. So female foetuses are aborted illegally. The accepted sex ratio at birth is 105 boys per 100 girls, which will be equalised gradually due to the higher life expectancy of girls.³² Though Kerala is considered to be the most female friendly state, the micro-level analysis of the Census 2001 reveals the fact that 43 per cent of urban area in Kerala has a sex ratio, highly unfavourable to girls.³³

2.3.2. Abortions in Kerala

DHS data reveal that, in Kerala, a large number of abortions are taking place, including illegal abortion for girls below 15 years. There were 1.5 lakhs abortions in the year 2002-2003. During the month of October 2000 alone 3665 abortions were reported. Unreported cases are multi-fold. Majority of abortions take place between the age group of 20 and 29. This shows that abortion is resorted to, in the absence of proper family planning. Abortion below the age of 19 years comes to 155 and out of that 11 cases are below 15 years.³⁴

Maximum cases are reported in Kozhikode (2616) and Malappuram (1946). Another point revealed is that, the two Muslim dominated districts together account for one third of abortions in the state. This may be due to the lack of awareness regarding reproductive health among the teenage mothers in the Muslim community. Early marriage and low education among this group hinder the development of women to a great extent.

The sample study by the Women's Commission also showed that in the Muslim dominated area, more than 17% of women were married before the age of 15. It was also found that five per cent in coastal area, 15% in the slums, 12.5% women in Malappuram and 5% women in Kasargod were married before the age of 18. Though age of marriage is fixed by law as 18, these figures indicate that, certain groups are not following the norms. It was also found that 90 percent of women in Malappuram District were married before 20 years.³⁵

2.3.3. Low enrolment for Professional Education

It has been noticed that, while majority of girls in Kerala opt for traditional courses, very few get enrolled for professional courses. The amount spent on education by the State Government forms 75 % of expense on social

services. This has greatly influenced the general education of women in the state. In India 85% girls between 6 and 11 years old got enrolled into primary schools, but 42% dropped out in 1999-2000. Kerala's position is that it has only 5% drop out rate for girls. It is unique that girls enrolment is near universal. Another phenomenon noticed in Kerala is that, as the level of education increases, the enrolment rate of girls also increases. Majority of students enrolled at the graduate and post graduate level are girls. In 2002, exactly two-third of the post graduate students were girls. (10,000 out of 15,000).³⁶ Out of 144,199 undergraduates enrolled in 2003, 61 per cent was women.³⁷

In the case of Professional education, the story is different. At present, there are 69 Engineering Colleges, 56 Polytechnics and 39 Technical High Schools in Kerala. In all the Engineering Colleges, the percentage of female students has been around 20 to 25 %. In the Polytechnics 10,344 women constituted 37 % in 2003. Out of 1679 teachers, 409 (24%) are women. Out of 6255 students in Technical High Schools, only 10 per cent (615) are women. Out of 1015 teachers, 18 per cent (183) are women. Out of 18,673 students in Engineering Colleges, only a small percentage constituted women. There are 38 Medical Colleges in Kerala for M.B.B.S., B.D.S., Ayurveda and Homeopathy. (13 Government colleges, 7 Co-operative colleges and 18 Self financing colleges are of recent origin). Out of the total intake, women were around 50 per cent in Medicine and about 90 per cent in nursing.³⁸

2.3.4. Low Labour Force Participation

Despite the high level of literacy and education of Kerala women, their labour force participation is pathetically low. As per Census 2001, it is as low as 15.3 per cent as against 25.7 per cent for India. As per the latest report of Central Statistical Organisation, (2001), the Female Labour Force Participation rate in Kerala is only 27% in the rural and 25% in the urban areas, with 14th and

31st positions respectively among the Indian states. The gender difference in work participation at the All India Level is 26 as per 2001 Census, which is one of the highest. The issue is dealt with in detail in the chapter on employment.

2.3.5. Crimes against Women

Violence against women and girls happen in every segment of society, regardless of class, ethnicity and culture.³⁹ Data regarding crimes against women show the contradiction regarding the status of women in Kerala. Kerala ranks 10th among 35 States and Union Territories in the matter of crimes against women. While the crime rates against women in India is 14 in 2001, it is 17.1 for Kerala. Thiruvananthapuram and the Muslim dominated districts of Malappuram and Kozhikode have recorded the maximum number of crimes (859, 842 and 806) out of 7441 cases in 2002. The lowest is 290, in Wayanad district. The category-wise crime is highest in the case of torture (2705). (State Crime Bureau).

Table 2. 2

Details of Atrocities Committed Against Women-Kerala and India

Offences	Kerala					All India			
	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	1997	1998	1999	2000
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Rape	588	589	423	552	550	15330	15151	15468	16496
Molestation	1561	1773	1643	1695	2033	307664	30959	32311	32940
Kidnapping	160	130	123	89	125	15617	16351	15962	15023
Eve-teasing	70	96	50	69	86	0	0	0	0
Dowry death	25	21	31	25	24	6006	6975	6699	6995
Torture	1675	2125	2488	2418	2579	36592	41376	43823	45778
Others	3227	2739	2985	2773	2171	8633	11968	1245	14626
Total	7306	7473	7743	7621	7568	112942	122780	115508	131858

Source: State Crime Bureau.

Table 2.2 gives the data regarding crimes against women for various years. According to the latest Crime Bureau report of 2003, 7222 cases were registered, of which 23 were dowry deaths and 2866 were tortures.⁴⁰ Compared to other indicators of women development, these figures show a dismal picture. Torture and dowry death occur in the family atmosphere and hence status of women in the family needs special attention.

In a sample study regarding atrocities conducted by the Kerala Women's Commission, it was seen that there was a uniform distribution of atrocities suffered by Kerala women irrespective of education, caste or religion. It was noticed that 23% of them suffer from some kind of atrocities. It was also seen that women do not take recourse to legal remedy. Only 7% preferred to complain, though they are aware of Family Courts, Kerala Women's Commission and other Government agencies. Majority of disputes are settled by elders in the family or mediators from neighbourhood. Women with lower educational levels, less family income and older age are more vulnerable to atrocities. Domestic violence and discrimination at work are experienced by majority of women.⁴¹

2.3.6. Complaints received by the Women's Commission in 2003

A total of 2988 complaints were received by the Kerala Women's Commission during the Year 2003. The maximum number of cases belong to the category- harassment (1110). It includes harassment by husband (389), general harassment (419), Dowry harassment (188) and sexual harassment (114). There were 250 cases of violence, 95 cases of suspicious death, 229 cases of property related and 60 cases of job related issues. The maximum complaints were received in Thiruvananthapuram district (1075) and minimum in Kasaragod district (97). It has been noticed that, there is a spurt in the number of suspicious deaths from 63 in 2002 to 95 in 2003.

Though Kerala leads in Human Development, the number of suicides is increasing alarmingly in the state. Kerala continues to be the state with the highest number of suicides. According to the state crime bureau, there were 9,572 suicides in Kerala during the year 2001, of which, 2785 were women. More than one-fifth of female suicides was due to family problems. The total number of suicides increased to 9810 in 2002, of which 2645 were women.

2.3.7. Domestic Violence

Domestic violence is a significant problem in Kerala. According to the National Family Health Survey 1998-99, at least one in ten married women in Kerala experience domestic violence.⁴² In a study conducted in Thiruvananthapuram district, about 35.7% of married women reported at least one form of violent physical behaviour and 64.9% reported at least one form of psychologically abusive behaviour in their marital life. (Panda, 2002).⁴³ Increasing alcoholism of men, liberal liquor policy of the state with a view to increase the revenue and easy availability of liquor at any moment and place is an important reason behind violent behaviour of men.⁴⁴

2.4. WOMEN AND GOVERNANCE

Though women in Kerala turn out in large numbers in electioneering, the proportion of women among those contesting the elections and getting elected, tends to be negligible. Women's representation in the parliament and state cabinet also remain near nullity. Important portfolios have often gone to men, leaving a few exceptions. While a handful of women have reached the top, it has been possible only by their sheer grit and determination. The fact that women have held high positions in the state's judiciary and bureaucracy shows that whatever opportunity is available, is utilised by them.

2.4.1. Women Participation in Government through Panchayat Raj

The passing of the 73rd and 74th amendments to the constitution can be considered as the greatest event for women's empowerment as one third of the seats are reserved for women in the local bodies.⁴⁵ It has created political space for women. Though women have to encounter various obstacles from party, patriarchy and bureaucracy, those who have gained experience through voluntary organisations demonstrated reasonably good level of courage to face the challenges. Their performance on the basis of qualitative indicators shows that they are in no way inferior to the male heads of Panchayats.⁴⁶

2.4.2. Representation of Women in Lokh Sabha

In the thirteenth Lok Sabha, the number of women contestants was only 284 out of a total of 4364 contestants. Their participation varied from 3 to 6.5 percentage during the past elections. (Election Commission of India 2001). Though the representation of women in the Lok Sabha showed an increasing trend in the beginning, from 4.4 % in the first to 6.8% in the third Lok Sabha, it has reached only 7.9% in the 12th Lok Sabha. From 1957 to 1996 only six women representatives got the fortune to be elected to the Lok Sabha from Kerala.⁴⁷

The situation is not much different with regard to the representation of women in the Kerala Legislative Assembly. From Table 2.3, it is clear that women's representation in legislative bodies, are abysmally low in Kerala. It ranges from 0 to 2 in the Parliament and 5 to 12 in the Legislative Assembly during the period 1957 to 1996. In spite of the high education and literacy the representation of Kerala women in higher political fields is very limited.

Table 2.3**Participation of Women in Kerala Legislative Assembly and Parliament (1957-1996)**

Year	Kerala Legislative Assembly			Parliament		
	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total
1957	6	121	127	0	19	19
1980	5	136	141	1	19	20
1991	8	133	141	2	18	20
1996	12	129	141	1	19	20

Source: Compiled from Records of Lok Sabha.

2.4.3. Kerala Women in Local Self Government (LSG)

As the debate is going on endlessly regarding 33% reservation for women in the parliament and the Bill had been shelved repeatedly by the male dominated house, discussion goes on outside, regarding the performance of newly elected women representatives in the LSGs. It has been often criticised that women members are just proxies of their husbands, and that they lack in ability and experience. This may be true regarding women in those states where female literacy and education is very low and women are never exposed to any public activity. But the situation is entirely different in Kerala where women are highly literate and perhaps comparatively more educated. The 33% reservation of seats for women in Panchayat Raj institutions brought 36.4% of women in Kerala into local politics. In Kerala, there are 991 grama panchayats, 152 block panchayats and 14 district panchayats. Besides these local bodies, there are 53 municipal councils and five municipal corporations. 6184 seats are

reserved for women in Kerala. The number of seats reserved for women in LSGs is given in Table 2.4

Table 2.4
No. of seats reserved for Women in LSGIs in Kerala

Sl. No.	LSGs	Total No.	No. of wards	No. of seats reserved for women			
				SC	ST	General	Total
1.	Grama Panchayat	991	13255	422	48	4330	4800
2.	Block Panchayat	152	1638	39	5	585	629
3.	District Panchayat	14	307	13	1	91	105
4.	Municipality	53	1597	45	1	504	550
5.	Corporation	5	298	11	0	89	100
	Total	1215	17095	530	5	5599	6184

Source: State Election Commission.

Women in LSGIs in Kerala were given a series of training on various aspects like Governmental procedures, public speaking, social awareness, gender disparity, project management, total empowerment etc. This helped them in performing their duties in the LSGI effectively. High level of literacy and education has helped them to take full advantage of all these opportunities. Most of them were active members of service organisations, trade unions and other women's organisations.

The educational background of women in the LSGIs based on a sample study conducted by Kerala Women's Commission shows that, unlike the women representatives in other states, not even a single member is illiterate or semi-illiterate. The lowest qualification ranges from 5th to 7th standard. Only 10% is below SSLC. 62.5% of the respondents belonging to the district

panchayat have degree qualification and 5.2% have PG or professional qualification.⁴⁸

Majority are deeply involved in activities such as women and child development, water and sanitation problems, grama sabhas, kudumbasree etc. They have received the co-operation and support from various segments of the local community. The vast leadership qualities inherent in them see a bloom into action when they are given opportunities. Hence reservation of women in the political field seems to be a step in the right direction, which will help a lot in the empowerment of women.

2.4.4. Gender Budgeting:

The gender budgeting initiatives in India started in July 2000. Australia was the first country to develop a gender sensitive budget in 1984. In the 2001-02 budget there were as many as 30 schemes specifically drawn up and implemented for women in Kerala. Nearly 5% of the plan outlay was spent on women specific schemes including grant in aid allocation to LSGIs. It is a landmark decision that Kerala allocated 10 percent of the grant in aid to LSGIs to be utilised for projects benefiting women. An amount of Rs. 130 crores per year is earmarked for women development.⁴⁹

2.5. LESS PRIVILEGED SECTIONS OF WOMEN IN KERALA

The internationally acclaimed social development model has an equity problem in the sense that benefits, opportunities and well-being are not uniformly distributed across regions, communities and individuals.⁵⁰ On the one side, the higher strata of the community in Kerala enjoys all the facilities and amenities available in developed countries, while on the other side, millions of people belonging to the lower strata live without even meeting the basic necessities of life. As the gap between the poor and the rich is widening in the state, a new work culture is emerging where more women are ready to

take up work as sales girls, home nurses and home maids in the upper class families under the banner of some agencies in an organised manner. This results in transferring an income for subsistence from the rich to the poor as well as adding a little bit of dignity to such work considered mean earlier.

The under-privileged groups of women are mainly the fisher women, Dalit women, Tribal women, women in the plantations and certain groups of Muslim women in different areas. A sample study made by the Kerala women's commission with special emphasis on some of these sections reveals the following, realities about their lives.⁵¹

2.5.1. Fisher women

Fisher women in Kerala have always had a poor status among the backward classes. Educational and literacy levels among them are lower than the other backward groups. Early entry into work is a major reason for school dropouts among boys as well as girls. 78% of fisher women have only primary school or lesser education. A sample study by CDS showed that 39% of women were illiterates at a time when the state is nearing full literacy. Postponement of taking meals during day time due to absence of in-house latrine facilities, insufficient food supply, absence of sanitation and poor drinking water increase morbidity and mortality among them. Female proportion among fisherfolk is lower than that for the state as a whole, indicating female deprivation.⁵²

Modernisation in fishing is turning fisher women into wage workers at the prawn peeling sheds or throwing them out of work altogether. Hundreds of poor young girls are recruited to prawn peeling centres in other states.⁵³ Vending sites had begun to be monopolised by big male merchants and women are denied access to fish for vending. Women are increasingly becoming victims of domestic violence and other social aggression.⁵⁴

2.5.2. Dalit Women

Dalit women of Kerala remain with no access to economic resources, technology and knowledge. They undergo double suppression under the patriarchal upper caste domination as well as by the male domination within their own community.

2.5.3. Tribal Women

Tribal women of Kerala are another lot oppressed at multiple levels. Untutored as they are in worldly ways, they are easily exploited, grabbing of their lands and livelihood, as well as their bodies. There is an increasing sexual exploitation and violence against tribal women and there is an increase in the number of unwed mothers among them.⁵⁵

2.5.4. Poor Reproductive Health of the Less-privileged

Though the health indicators show a better picture in Kerala than other states, women in the backward groups are far from these achievements. Many women suffer from poor health, nutritional anaemia, uterine complaints and post-abortion complications. It is also found that home deliveries are still prevalent among the tribal (40%), rural (10%), Muslim dominated (10%), coastal (10%) and slum (5%) people.

In the year 2000 alone 57,548 babies were born with less than the birth weight of 2.5 kg. It is a serious threat to the health concern of Kerala. It was also found that, in Malappuram there are 20% adolescent mothers and in Wayanad 60%. Around the state, thousands of young women die each year from complications due to an unplanned pregnancy, many of them resulting from clandestine abortions.

Low levels of education and lack of control over material resources constrain the development of different groups of women in Kerala. Self

complacency regarding the development of women will lead to the neglect of the needs of these special groups of women who are unprivileged and continue to live in deprivations.⁵⁶

2.5.5. Women in Undeveloped Areas

A sizable proportion of the female population in undeveloped areas constitute adolescent girls, most of whom are drop-outs from schools. They are particularly vulnerable and neglected, coming under the purview of government programmes only once they are pregnant. Illiterate women are less likely to use maternal health care services and access to health care facilities is difficult in rural areas.⁵⁷ Complications of pregnancy, prenatal and neo-natal mortality and low birth weight are much higher among adolescent girls than among elder women. A focus on the health needs of adolescent girls, their reproductive health needs, their nutritional status and the risk of early marriage and child-bearing is urgently required (DHS).

2.6. STATUS OF AN AVERAGE KERALA WOMAN AT PRESENT

The condition of a Kerala woman is full of contradictions. On the one hand, she is highly educated, holding a high position compared to women in other regions. On the other hand she experiences extreme lack of freedom. Even now women dare not be on the road before dawn and after sun set unaccompanied; otherwise she will be inviting disaster upon herself. In most of the families, women are totally under the control of husband. If a woman wants to achieve anything in her life it should be with the full permission of her husband. Divorce is considered a great crime if initiated by the woman. Women tolerate the whole of their life an alcoholic, abusive or immoral husband, bearing in silence and tears all the burdens such a life brings to her. Many women face harassment inside and outside her family. She is in a pitiable position without any property right. Once married with a dowry, she

has no claim either to parents' property or husband's family property. What she possesses is some ornaments, which may often be used by husband's family. She is completely at the mercy of her husband and family members. If she is lucky enough to get a good husband, her life will be happy; otherwise she has to lead a hellish life. This is the picture of an average Kerala woman, who is unemployed. There are tragic situations where literacy or health figures cannot help her and the number of suicides increases in such cases.

The increase in crimes such as dowry death, dowry harassment, sexual abuse, kidnapping, rape etc., question the relevance and validity of the established facts and urge the need to examine the various parameters of women's living conditions, micro and macro factors which perpetuate gender discrimination in all spheres of society. Violence against women manifested in different forms is responsible for the phenomenon of marginalisation of women in the development process.

2.6.1. Position of women in the family

Though women in Kerala are said to have a good status in families, some grass-root level studies bring to light a different picture. According to Singh, women in Kerala have a larger role in bringing water, collection of fuel and agriculture than the national average. But their status is perceived as very low in 189 (84%) communities against a national average of 72.19%. Equal status is given in 37 (16.44%) communities as against the national average of 25.74% communities.⁵⁸ The public private dichotomy regarding the role of women exists in Kerala also. The roles and responsibilities are allotted on the basis of gender. Women have to take up the roles of wives and mothers and their prime responsibilities are bearing and rearing children and taking care of the household duties, which are not considered as productive and having no place in the hierarchy of occupations. The sexual division of labour is naturalized through a broad range of social, cultural and religious discourse;

and the familial ideology has great significance in constructing gender differences. Family is understood as the basic unit of society and it is considered as natural and existing prior to the relations.

2.6.2. Women and Household Decision Making

Perhaps the most cruel aspect of gender subordination is women's lack of control over their fundamental rights, freedom of choice and physical and mental safety. Generally, Kerala women do not have much say in choosing a life partner.⁵⁹ Marriage is usually a contract between the two families and even today, majority of girls do not convey to anyone, their personal likes or dislikes, towards an alliance. A girl choosing her partner by herself, is not approved by the families and societies. Inter- caste marriage often invites the expulsion from both families. Rejection by family means isolation, and therefore women are unwilling to assert themselves. Or in other words girls usually consider and accept the decision by the family regarding the spouse as her own decision.

The decision making power of women is generally limited to certain routine activities. According to NFHS-2, in Kerala, while 42% of women who earn cash make decision about the use of their earnings, another 23% have no decision about the use of their earnings. 57% decide what to cook, 55% take decision regarding health care, 21% regarding purchase of jewellery, and 21% in staying with own parents.⁶⁰

2.6.3. Ownership of Assets

The status of women significantly improves with ownership and control over productive resources. In many communities in India, the law tend to favour men with regard to the right of inheritance. The situation in Kerala is slightly different. Certain castes among the predominantly Hindu and Christian communities have granted absolute or equal rights for women in matters of

inheritance of family wealth. But after marriage, most of the Kerala women are seen to be willing to relinquish their rights over assets, in order to avoid conflict within the family. Women accept these methods of subordination due to social pressures and make themselves devoid of any assets within a few years of marriage, especially in lower middle class and lower class families.

Traditionally the earnings of men are utilized for wealth creation by investing in fixed assets and properties. The earnings of women are mostly used to meet household expenses, education of children, family welfare and other recurring expenses. This leaves women vulnerable, because they are not in a position to acquire personal property or assets to support them in old age. In the long run, women's earnings does not translate into property or asset.⁶¹

2.6.4. Mobility

In the matter of mobility, Kerala women are better off than their North Indian counterparts. Higher educational status, employment considerations and nuclear family system have facilitated women's mobility in Kerala. Though the mobility of Kerala women takes them to many countries all over the globe, within Kerala, her mobility is restricted mainly due to the increasing atrocities against women. Curtailment of girls' freedom and mobility stems from parents' anxieties about their safety coupled with fear inculcated from pre-adolescent period about sexual harassment in streets and public places.⁶² This prevents the free growth, personality development and job opportunities of Kerala girls. Job market researches shows that, women in Kerala are more suited for vacancies in the present job market than their male counterparts, due to their superior communication skills. But they fail to make use of these opportunities due to the peculiar mindset of the people here. Observers note that the Malayalee mindset is still uncomfortable with girls doing field-work or working odd hours, especially night shifts in call centres. They are unwilling to venture into

new areas, preferring the stability and security of traditional vocations like teaching and nursing.⁶³

2.6.5. Women and Religion

The three main religions of Kerala-Hindu, Christian and Muslim- decisively determine the position of women in this part of India. Women's place in the society is defined in terms of traditional attitudes and belief patterns. In the multi-caste and multi-religious Kerala society, the perpetuation of gender inequality is achieved through the social conditioning through religious and social customs, education, media, and political and economic activity.

The patriarchal ideology that women are inferior to men, stands in the way of gender equality. Moreover, the state has allowed a number of personal laws with diverse and even contradictory rules regarding family, marriage, property, succession, inheritance, adoption etc., under the compulsion of historical, socio-cultural, economic and traditional forces operating in the society.

2.6.6. Dowry System in Kerala

One of the social evils affecting Kerala women economically and socially is the dowry system.⁶⁴ Elaborate and extravagant customs and practices related to marriage and dowry, which were alien to original Kerala culture, have crept into Kerala society and it has curbed the autonomy of women in modern Kerala.⁶⁵ Dowry Prohibition Act remains inefficient and inactive like any other law for protecting women. Paying huge dowry has become status symbol of families, which results in increase in the amount of dowry paid and received. This results in increase in the number of sphinsters among the poor, which further leads to social evils like mental illness and suicide,⁶⁶ prostitution, blue film making etc., Conducting Marriage Bureaus

and acting as marriage brokers have become flourishing business in the state, which again increases dowry, since their income is proportionate to the dowry from both sides. Studies show that, dowry has emerged among the largest number of communities in Kerala (97) at a level of 43.11%, which is higher than the national average of 39.89%. The fact that cash dowries are now paid at marriage in almost all castes of Kerala perhaps testifies to the low economic value ascribed to the married woman's labour as well as to the more egalitarian distribution of wealth between sons and daughters.⁶⁷

2.6.7. Changing Culture

Kerala has its unique culture and value systems, which promoted simplicity than luxury. Now the society has become the prey of consumerist culture and people are more interested in quick money. The increasing unemployment, migration for jobs to other Indian states and abroad, the increasing female-headed households etc., affect women. Many women are pushed into trafficking on the pretext of assurance for employment. Though Kerala has not identified with the brothel culture prostitution, production of blue film is flourishing in different corners of the state. The 'Aids' scare has resulted in using young girls for prostitution. Street sex workers have formed their organisation in Kerala. Sexual illiteracy is prevalent among the literacy boasted society.⁶⁸

Status of women is often measured by various agencies in terms of socio-demographic and health and family planning indicators. Merely focusing on certain established usual indicators, which show male-female comparison is inadequate in assessing the status of women. The measures such as property ownership, pattern of inheritance, rights in divorce and widow-hood, dowry, purdah, occupational segregation, self-employment, work outside home are also useful indicators of status in the present context.

2.7. WOMEN DEVELOPMENT AGENCIES IN KERALA

Several agencies, government and non-government institutions are involved in implementing women specific schemes in the state. The major governmental institutions are Kerala State Women Development Corporation, Kudumbasree and Women's Commission. The activities and achievements of these institutions are given below.

2.7.1. Kerala State Women Development Corporation (KSWDC)

Started in the year 1988, with the objective of social and economic empowerment and training in modern trades, KSWDC is the nodal agency for implementing STEP and NORAD schemes through mobilising fund from NBCFDC and NMDFC and GOI. During 2002-03, it mobilised Rs.100 lakhs from NBCFDC and 100.62 lakhs from NMDFC and provided self-employment assistance to 1029 women and training to 1058 women.⁶⁹ It is also running six working-women hostels benefiting 300 inmates. So far it has assisted and trained 12,050 women. The Tenth Plan aims at benefiting 25,000 women for which the proposed State commitment is Rs.1000 lakhs.⁷⁰

2.7.2. Kudumbasree

This is a comprehensive net-work approach of State Poverty Eradication Mission started in 1999 as a partnership of GOK, GOI, LSGIs and NABARD. The objective is eradication of poverty from the state within a decade. The core activities include women empowerment initiatives, micro finance operation, micro enterprise promotion and convergent community action carried out through women below the poverty line.

Kudumbasree functions in a three-tier structure with Neighbourhood Groups (NHGs) at the lowest level. At present, 7,24,735 NHGs and 631 ADSs

are functioning in the urban areas, covering 2.72 lakh families. In the rural areas 1,16,016 NHGs and 13,135 ADSs are functioning covering 23.49 lakh families below the Poverty Line. About 26 lakh families in the rural and urban areas together are linked with the thrift programme and about Rs. 393 crores disbursed as loan during 2003. Kudumbasree has been identified by the Planning Commission and UNDP as one of the timely best practices of governance in the country.⁷¹

The proposed outlay for the Tenth Plan is Rs.7500 lakhs of which, Rs.1800 lakhs is intended for the Annual plan. The Annual plan provision is distributed as Rs.1425 lakhs for State level activities and Rs.375 lakhs for the activities at the grama panchayat level.⁷²

2.7.3. Kerala Women's Commission (KWC)

KWC was established in 1996 with the objective of improving the status of women in Kerala and to enquire into unfair practices against women. So far, 40,000 complaints were received by the commission. Due to lack of necessary juridical powers it could act only as an agency providing legal help and advice to women. Tenth Plan outlay for the functioning of the Commission is Rs. 100 lakhs, of which 15 lakhs was allotted for the year 2002-03, which was utilised mainly for improving the infrastructure facilities, conducting adalaths, seminars, D.N.A. tests etc.,⁷³

2.8. WOMEN'S ORGANISATIONS IN KERALA

About 50,000 'Mahila Samajams' were participating in the various Government schemes in Kerala. Though their number is impressive, many of them become defunct when the government funds become unavailable. So far, there has been no major movement taken shape at the state level to voice the concerns of women. The immediate concerns of Kerala women may not be quite the same as in the rest of India like sati or immolation of widows. But

the problems of violence, rape, gender discrimination in wages and employment are as serious as in the other parts of the country.

There are a good number of women's groups/organisations and network which are working in the areas of development, action, research, documentation, and particularly the empowerment and mobilisation of women belonging to Dalit, Tribal, Rural and Fishermen communities of Kerala. Activities of a few of them are detailed below.

2.8.1. Self Employed Women's Association (SEWA)

Formally established in 1986 in Thiruvananthapuram and registered under the Charitable Societies Act, it is a membership-based organisation. The increasing marginalisation of women from their traditional occupations like fish vending and reed work, creating several problems, specially related to the sustenance of their families, was the motivation behind the inception of SEWA in Trivandrum. Now Sewa has eight hundred members in Trivandrum, three thousand in Ernakulam and about a hundred in Trichur. Sewa is affiliated with SEWA BHART, the national trade union of women in the unorganised sector. Sewa gives training to women in home nursing, office cleaning, canteen management etc., and ensures minimum wages, leave, pension and provident fund. The founder of SEWA at the national level is Elaben Bhatt, whose vision had been, 'making economically challenged women self-dependent'. SEWA Bank is one of the first micro-finance institutions in India, providing finance to the 'unbankable masses'.⁷⁴

2.8.2. Socio Economic Unit Foundation (SEU)

SEU foundation was started in 1996, with registered office at Trivandrum and regional offices in districts. They function with the financial support from Royal Netherlands Embassy, UNICEF, World Bank, District Panchayat, Grama Panchayat, Municipalities and Blocks. Issues and areas

covered by SEU are water and sanitation, capacity building, People's participation with special emphasis on women, supporting women's skill development especially in masonry. Gender awareness education is provided to Panchayat members, Council members, Karmasamithi, Leaders of Self help groups, etc.,

2.8.3. Dalit Women's Society

Dalit women's society is a voluntary organisation started in the year 1992 at Kurichi of Kottayam district with a conviction that Dalit women have specific problems of their own which are never addressed by the general women's groups or movement.

2.8.4. Anweshi (Women's Counselling Centre)

Anweshi is an active women's group having feminist perspective of class, caste and gender analysis. It is an action oriented registered counselling centre for women started in 1993, and has around five hundred members. Anweshi got financial aid from UNFPA in 1999 through the Ministry of health and family welfare. It is acting as a support system for women to deal with violence against women, dowry death, desertion, maintenance, sex racket problems, sexual harassment at workplace, public place abuse and domestic violence.

2.8.5. Sakhi-Resource Centre for Women

Sakhi, set up in 1996 at Trivandrum, as a resource centre for women, aims at mainstreaming gender issues in the economic, social, cultural and political realms in Kerala. It is trying to be a bridge between existing grassroot level women's groups and NGO's and other civil society organisations and the international and national organisations and networks by empowering them through information sharing, education, communication and advocacy.

2.8.6. NISA

Nisa, registered in 1997, is a progressive Muslim women's forum, working for the rights of Muslim women. Nisa means 'woman'. Suhara, the key founder member of Nisa, who was a victim of child marriage, after several years of bitter life experiences felt that Muslim women themselves should speak out their problems and denial of rights. The major issues faced are related to Muslim personal laws regarding marriage, divorce, and property rights. Nisa demands that these anti-women personal laws must be amended and equal rights should be given to women within the marriage. Nisa's geographical area of work is the entire state in general and Calicut in particular.

2.8.7. Theeradesa Vanitha Vedi (Coastal women's forum)

This is a part of fisher workers union, with the participation of around five thousand women from the fishermen community. Women-related occupational issues as well as violence against women are the major issues highlighted by the coastal women's forum.

2.8.8. Kerala Sthree Vedi

Kerala Sthreevedi, established in 1995 is a network of women's groups. This network is working as a common non-party political platform for action for women's cause in Kerala. About thirty women's groups and several individuals have membership in this forum. Sthreevedi is facilitating collective responses, research and actions on women's issues.

2.8.9. Self-Help Groups (SHGs)

SHGs are basically associations of women constituted mainly for the purpose of uplifting women belonging to the BPL categories to the 'Above Poverty Line' (APL) Category. At the government level the groups are formed

at each development Block under the leadership of women's welfare and extension officers. Identified poor women from adjacent families are formed into a group consisting of 10-15 members.

Major activities of the group are income generation programmes, informal banking/credit unions, health and nutritional programmes etc. The SHGs formed under each development block will be later converted into SGSY units. The SHGs promoted by Development blocks were not involved much in Entrepreneurship Development Programme. At the same time, the SHGs promoted by NGOs are actively involved in income generation programmes and small scale and cottage industries.

Conclusion

Kerala, when compared to other states in India, is in the forefront with regard to the indicators of social development and quality of life. The fact that Kerala has achieved a high standard of living in the context of a low per capita income, has been universally acknowledged as the Kerala model of development. But, the status of women cannot be measured on the mere basis of the above-mentioned social and development indices alone. Despite all these favourable conditions, a good number of women in Kerala are denied the basic human rights of an individual. Atrocities against women and suicide rates of women are increasing and women are becoming the victims of feminisation of poverty, job exodus and consumerism. The male-centric social attitude, social evils like dowry system and social taboos deny woman her rightful position in the society. Women should enter the public, which have been restricted for them. The high level of education of women has not resulted in increased work participation, which is the major drawback of the pattern of women development in the state. This is discussed in the next chapter.

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WOMEN AND EMPLOYMENT

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Chapter III
Women and Employment

CHAPTER III

WOMEN AND EMPLOYMENT

Introduction

India, accommodating 16% of the world population, is the second most populous country in the world, next to China and has crossed one billion with a population of 102.702 crores. One out of every six human beings on this planet is an Indian. According to census 2001, India has 53.128 crore males and 49.574 crore females.¹ The problem of unemployment is faced by its people, both men and women. The relative scarcity of capital for investments in agriculture, industry and other service sectors, compared to the large population-base in the sub-continent has left the country still in the group of 'less developed' and its people 'poor' despite creditable achievements in agricultural and industrial output and technological advancement². This fact has been acknowledged and declared before the world by the figures of Human Development Index (HDI), Gender Development Index (GDI) and Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM) presented annually in the Human Development Report (HDR) published by the United Nations(UN). According to HDR 2003, India is ranked 127th in a comity of 175 nations.³ India has skipped down from 124th in 2002 and 115th in 2001. It is a matter of great concern to the country that its HDI rank is coming down, though there is a slight increase in the index from 0.577 to 0.590.

The economic participation of women is of crucial importance in the measurement of HDI, GDI and GEM. Some of the South Asian Countries including India have a low female labour force participation. While the LFPR for men exceed 85 per cent in most of the South Asian Countries that of women vary from a figure as low as 9.6 per cent in Bangladesh to 49.4 per cent in Sri Lanka. India stands in the middle with 31.8 per cent⁴. In this

chapter, the female labour force participation of women in India and Kerala are discussed.

3.1. FEMALE LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION IN INDIA AND KERALA

Studies on female labour and related issues do not have a long history in India. It was after the publication of the report of the Committee on the Status of Women in India (1975) that the interest of the researchers in this area intensified. In the 1980's the focus of the studies took a new turn subsequent upon the publication of the results of the various rounds of the NSS on 'Employment and Unemployment'. The research in this area mainly, focused on trends and patterns in women's employment, the impact of the technology on female work and the link between domestic work and labour market.⁵

The low WPR and LFPR of women has become a permanent feature of Indian economy. For the past 35 years the work participation rates of women in India declined rather sharply. For males, it has decreased for the school age group mainly and for all age groups marginally. But for women, the decline is substantial and is seen in all age groups, leading to the conclusion that women are largely being excluded from employment in India. Due to increasing levels of education and changes in economic structure, LFPR of women has been showing a rising trend after 1985. But, this improvement has not altered the basic fact of unemployment rates among women.⁶

The State of Kerala, which ranks first among the Indian states in terms of HDI and GDI, however presents a very poor picture in terms of female work participation. There is a continuous decline of female work participation rate from 16.6 in 1981 to 15.3 in 2001.

Table 3.1
Gender Difference in Work Participation – State-wise-2001

Rank	States	WGAP	FLFPR- 1999-2000	
			Rural	Urban
1	Daman& Diu	48	-	20.3
2	Delhi	43	3.6	10.9
3	Chandigarh	42	12.8	15.3
4	Andaman & Nicobar Islands	41	19.3	24.9
5	Lakshadweep	36	19.9	22.1
6	West Bengal	36	16.5	12.9
7	Pondicherry	36	29.4	18.1
8	Kerala	35	27.3	25.4
9	Punjab	35	28.2	12.8
10	Goa	33	21.5	15.9
11	Uttar Pradesh	31	20.1	9.7
12	Tripura	30	7.6	8.1
13	Bihar	29	17.4	8.2
14	Assam	29	16.1	13.8
15	Jammu & Kashmir	28	33	6.8
16	Orissa	28	30.2	15.3
17	Gujarat	27	41.3	-
18	Tamil Nadu	27	43.4	22.7
19	Karnataka	25	38.1	18.6
20	Haryana	23	20.2	10.1
21	Dadra & Nagar Haveli	23	35.4	11.2
22	Jharkhand	22	-	-
23	Andhra Pradesh	21	48	18.4
24	Maharashtra	20	43.7	14.6
25	Uttaranchal	19	-	-
26	Sikkim	19	24.5	22.5
27	Madhya Pradesh	19	38.3	13.6
28	Rajasthan	17	38.9	14.1
29	Arunachal Pradesh	15	31	11
30	Meghalaya	13	41.9	21.1
31	Chhatisgarh	13	-	-
32	Himachal Pradesh	11	47.4	14.2
33	Nagaland	9	45.1	21.7
34	Mizoram	9	44.1	26.5
35	Manipur	8	25.7	22.5
	INDIA	26	30.2	14.7

Source: Economic Review, 2002.

Perhaps, the most tragic failure of development in the state is the acute unemployment and low labour force participation rates for both men and women, despite the remarkable achievements in the fields of education and health. It seems that improvement in the educational levels of women in Kerala has created a strong preference for white collar and salaried jobs reducing their willingness to take up manual work. The pattern of female employment in the state is distinctly different from the national pattern due to several factors – demographic, social, economic and political.⁷

Table 3.1 shows the gender gap in work participation for different states of India. The figures show that Kerala with a gender gap of 35 is one among the few states with wide gender gap, in spite of its unparalleled development in literacy and education of women. Gender gap for India as a whole is 26.

At all India level and for Kerala, the total work participation rate and the work participation rate in the rural as well as urban areas have shown a steady increase over the 1981 level. Though the male work participation rate for India has shown a declining trend during 1981-1991 it has shown an increasing trend in 2001 (51.9 per cent). For Kerala it has shown a steady increase from 1981 onwards. As against the steady increase in male work participation rate in Kerala, in the case of females, the work participation rate has decreased from 16.6 per cent in 1981 to 15.3 per cent in 2001. In rural areas of the State also the female work participation rate has shown a steady declining trend. The female work participation rate has however shown a steady increase in urban areas from 11.8 per cent to 13.5 per cent in 2001 contrary to the general trend in the State. The phenomenon of lower work participation rate for Kerala as compared to India holds good in all the three censuses of 1981, 1991 and 2001. Table 3.2 shows the work participation rate in India and Kerala for the period 1981 to 2001.

Table 3.2

Work Participation Rates by Sex 1981 to 2001-India and Kerala

Census	India						Kerala					
	Total		Rural		Urban		Total		Rural		Urban	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
1981	52.6	19.7	53.8	23.1	49.1	8.3	44.9	16.6	45.2	17.7	43.4	11.8
1991	51.6	22.3	52.6	26.8	48.9	9.2	47.6	15.9	47.9	16.9	46.8	13.00
2001	51.9	25.7	52.4	31.00	50.9	11.6	50.4	15.3	50.2	15.9	50.8	13.5

Source: Census of India 2001.

In Kerala, the total work participation rate was 31.4 per cent in 1991 census with a break-up of 32.1 per cent in rural and 29.6 per cent in urban. The State has witnessed an increase in the total work participation rate in 2001 census as compared to 1991. It is also true for rural and urban areas. The sex-wise pattern further reveals that while in the case of males the total work participation rate has increased during the period 1991 to 2001 in all areas, as well as rural and urban areas, in the case of females a reverse trend has been observed in all areas and rural areas where the female work participation rate has declined from 15.9 per cent in 1991 to 15.3 per cent in 2001 in the State as a whole and from 16.9 per cent in 1991 to 15.9 per cent in 2001 in rural areas.

In the case of main workers, the work participation rate has witnessed decline in the State as well as in its rural and urban sectors. However, rural area has accounted for about 3.3 per cent decline against 0.5 per cent decline in urban area. This pattern of decline is also true in case of male and female main workers. A significant trend has been observed in the case of marginal workers in comparison to 1991 census data. About 4 per cent increase in the work participation rate of marginal workers has been noticed in the State i.e., from 2.9 per cent in 1991 to 6.4 per cent in 2001. It is interesting to note that with the increase in the work participation rate of marginal workers in 2001

census, the non-workers in the State has been reduced by about 1 per cent. In the case of male non-workers there are about 4 per cent decline in the urban area as against about 3 per cent decline in all areas and 2 per cent in rural area.

Table 3.3
Percentage of Main, Marginal and Non-workers in Kerala

		Percentage to Total Population							
		Workers						Non workers	
		Total Workers		Main workers		Marginal Workers			
1991	2001	1991	2001	1991	2001	1991	2001		
T	P	31.4	32.3	28.5	25.9	2.9	6.4	68.6	67.7
	M	47.6	50.4	44.8	41.9	2.8	8.5	52.4	49.6
	F	15.9	15.3	12.8	10.8	3.1	4.5	84.1	84.7
R	P	32.1	32.6	28.8	25.5	3.3	7.1	67.9	67.4
	M	47.9	50.2	44.9	41.0	3.0	9.2	52.1	49.8
	F	16.9	15.9	13.4	10.8	3.5	5.1	83.1	84.1
U	P	29.6	31.6	27.6	27.1	2.0	4.5	70.4	68.4
	M	46.8	50.8	44.6	44.5	2.2	6.3	53.2	49.2
	F	13.0	13.5	11.3	10.6	1.7	2.9	87.0	86.5

Source: Census of India, 2001.

3.1.1. Female Work Participation Rate in Districts

As per the census figures, the female work participation rate of the state has registered a decrease from 15.9 per cent in 1991 to 15.3 per cent in 2001. The highest rank in female work participation rate is shared by Wayanad and Idukki districts and the lowest by Malappuram District at the

census of 1991. Seven districts each have female work participation rate above as well as below the state average of 15.3 per cent in 2001 census.

A further analysis of work participation rate by rural and urban areas reveals that in the State, the work participation rate in rural areas is higher than in urban areas both in 1991 and 2001 censuses. In the rural areas of the districts, Idukki District is having the first rank in 2001 census (43.8 per cent). The lowest rank goes to Malappuram District (24.1 per cent). Eight districts have total work participation rate higher than the State average for rural areas and for six districts it is below the State average in 2001. The corresponding position in 1991 shows that nine districts had total work participation rate in rural areas higher and five districts lower than the State average.

In the country there are 40.25 crore total workers of which, 31.31 crore are main workers and 8.93 crore are marginal workers. Male workers are predominant in all the States / Union Territories. This is true for main workers also. But in the case of marginal workers, all the States / UTs, except Kerala Chandigarh, Pondicherry, Lakshadweep and Andaman & Nicobar Islands, are having more female marginal workers than male marginal workers. In Kerala there are 7.43 lakh female marginal workers in 2001 Census as against 5.4 crore female marginal workers in India thus constituting only 1.4 per cent of the total female marginal workers of the country. Kerala is the only state in the country having female marginal workers less than the male marginal workers. In Kerala, female marginal workers constitute 4.5 percent of the female population of the state. Female main workers of the State come to 10.8 percent of the female population which is more than double the percentage of female marginal workers. The female non-workers constitute 84.7 percent of the female population.

3.1.2. Reasons for Low Labour Force Participation Rate (LFPR) of Women

Unlike the labour force participation of men, the participation of women is a very complicated phenomenon, affected by multiplicity of factors. What emerges from the labour force research on women in developing countries is that, in order to understand the underlying nuances of women's employment behaviour, one must take into account gender and familial relations, household circumstances, family resources and cultural expectations, in addition to the standard labour supply hypotheses from an individual perspective. Although empirical work on this issue is limited, this is especially the case in Asian countries including India.⁸

The existence of 'Statistical Purdah' or invisibility of Indian women in statistical records, subordination of Indian women,⁹ socio-cultural factors,¹⁰ patriarchal tradition,¹¹ influence of family,¹² religious conservatism, presence of children, presence of SC and Muslim population,¹³ economic condition,¹⁴ caste concept and caste based division of work,¹⁵ husband's status, status of women, crimes against women, educational mismatch in labour market¹⁶ and withdrawal from labour force after a period of unsuccessful search for employment¹⁷ are some of the factors which affect either positively or negatively the LFPR of women.

Lack of availability of jobs commensurating with the high qualifications is an important problem experienced by Kerala women. This is clearly evident from the qualification levels of women constables passed out on Nov. 20, 2003. The third batch of 205 constables, selected according to the P.S.C ranking included 8 Double P.G. Degree holders, 29 Post Graduates, and 102 graduates. Totally there are 54 Double P.G Degree holders, 22 L.L.Bs and more than 50 B.Ed Degree Holders and hundreds of Graduates,

out of the 1022 women constables.¹⁸ The situation is not much different in the case of women in clerical posts in banks and other institutions.

3.1.3. Regional Differences in Work Participation

One of the striking structural characteristics of female labour in India is the regional differences. Female LFPR exhibits an uneven pattern across various states in the country. While FWPR is high in the southern states, northern states have low participation rates. In the north, the patriarchal traditions are severe, inhibiting women from working outside the home.¹⁹

3.1.4. Structure of Women's Employment

Agriculture accounts for majority of the female work force in most South Asian countries. In India, 82% of the women workers are in agricultural sector.²⁰ Women workers in non-agricultural activities like manufacturing and services are mostly concentrated in low wage occupations and in informal segments of these sectors.²¹ In manufacturing and service sectors, there is a further break up as organised and unorganised sector, which determines the relative quality of women's employment. In India, about 90% of total employment is in unorganised sector, and of the women workers, a still higher proportion of about 97% is in the unorganised sector. The percentage of regular employees on wage or salary basis among the women workers is only around 7% in India.²² Women are ready to work at low wages as their opportunity cost is zero as envisaged by them.²³

Recently, there has been an increasing trend in the labour force participation of women in the South Asian countries during the last two decades. In India female LFPR according to the population census, increased from 20% in 1971 to 32% in 1981 and to 41% in 1991. Part of this increase may be poverty induced, but a major part is due to improvement in their literacy and educational levels. An assessment of the changes in various

aspects of the structure of employment of women, suggests a certain degree of qualitative improvement.²⁴

3.2. EFFECT OF MODERNISATION, GLOBALISATION AND STRUCTURAL ADJUSTMENT PROGRAMMES ON EMPLOYMENT OF WOMEN

3.2.1. Globalisation

While many nations and economists look at globalisation as a means for global development of mankind, others see it as a threat to developing nations and societies. In the manufacturing sector and to a lesser extent in the tertiary sector, management strategies regarding flexibility have taken various forms such as restructuring of entire business and companies; control over variable capital through various means; ban on recruitment of permanent category of workers; increasing recourse to temporary and casual type of workers; retrenchment; shutting down entire departments or even entire units; transfer of jobs from bargainable to non-bargainable categories; insistence on direct functional flexibility; pressure to intensify the working day through increase in productivity; opening of new parallel plants/ units; employing contract or sham-contract workers; and sub-contracting out production. It is within this context of the broader changing nature of work, work place and work organisation in contemporary society that the issue of women employment needs to be considered.²⁵

3.2.2. Globalisation and Women

In the industrial sector, women suffer as a result of processes of globalisation. Wages and working conditions for women employed in export processing zones have worsened as governments scramble to attract investments by lowering labour standards. Due to dismantling of institutions of social protection, women's unpaid work in the home has multiplied as

governments relinquish their role as providers of social services, under the guise of free market structure.

As agriculture gets more affected by global and commercial forces, women will lose their traditional roles in agriculture and crop processing. This will result in their marginalisation from the social mainstream to a greater extent than before. In agricultural sector, manifestations of globalisation syndrome are to be seen in terms of increasing centralisation of market and product and shifting from food crops to cash crops. Cash crops bring cash to the hands of men, in the present market system, where women have less accessibility.²⁶

3.2.3. Modernisation

When we examine the pattern of women employment in the past decades, an overall downward trend in the percentage of female workers in relation to the total female population and their percentage to the labour force after 1921 has been observed. The most dramatic fall took from 27.9% in 1961 to 12.31% in 1971. Technological change in agriculture has displaced a large number of women in harvesting and post harvesting activities. Land reform, technology infusion and access to modern inputs or loans have been explicitly male biased in India. Studies confirm that between 1961 and 1981, 3.3 million women lost their jobs due to the modernisation of traditional occupations. Even though investments have grown under various plans, they have been more capital than labour absorbing.²⁷ Commercialisation of agriculture also marginalised women beyond the reach of most rural women, while Cash crops delivered cash into the hands of men.²⁸ Women continue to get jobs only in those areas where traditional methods and techniques are used. If agricultural sector adopts new technology extensively, women will be further marginalized.²⁹

3.2.4. Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP)

SAP often creates an adverse impact on employment, at least in the short run, usually in the form of labour redundancy in the organised sector. Downsizing of firms, closing down of sick units and the adoption of different production strategies and management styles may lead to redundancy. The importance of public sector is being gradually eroded by restructuring programmes. Privatisation of public enterprises usually results in retrenchment of excess labour, which will affect women adversely.³⁰ The experiences of East European countries and Soviet Union clearly shows that whatever be the transformation possible in the long run, the present situation is one of growing unemployment, the victims of which are mostly women.³¹ Instead of the majority controlling the natural wealth of the world, a handful of companies, motivated purely by profit and power, control and exploit it, ultimately leading to the detriment of the poor and the women.³²

3.2.5. SAP in India

India has embarked upon a course of restructuring its economy and development policy framework since 1991. An assessment of the impact of the policies is difficult, since many of the policies, with respect to the SAP, are still unfolding and their effect on women is yet to be seen.

Stabilisation policies and SAPs entailing budget compression, reduction of government expenditure and devaluation might in the end result in transitional costs on the poor, mostly on poor women. While expansion of employment opportunities tend to take place in export oriented industries, cash-crop cultivation, agricultural business, finance and insurance sectors and high-tech areas and traditional sectors which are among the largest employers of women tend to diminish in importance. The urgency is therefore, to help women shift from traditional to non-traditional areas of employment.³³

SAP is still in the initial stage of implementation in Kerala. As part of SAP in Kerala, Modernising Government Programme (MGP) schemes are formulated and it is planned to restructure around 70 public sector enterprises within three years. Enterprise reforms committee has already recommended restructuring of 28 units. Of these, decision have been taken by the government in 16 cases. Subsequently 3 units and one division were closed down. Five enterprises are offered to be taken over by private agencies. So far, around 300 employees have been brought under the Social Safety Net Programme. Govt. of Netherlands estimates a financial requirement of Rs.1300 crores for implementing reform programme for the manufacturing enterprises in the state. Of this 675 crores is to come as Structural Adjustment Loan from ADB. The manufacturing units, on an average, incur a cash loss of around Rs.30,000 a year for every person employed. Rejuvenation of traditional plantation-based public sector enterprises will be done with consulting support under technical assistance from the ADB/Netherlands Govt. Resistance from trade unions, non-availability of funds for meeting closure of unviable units, settlement of Govt.-guaranteed loans and payment to retrenched employees are the hurdles foreseen. In the Govt. offices, 7000 posts were found excess of which 4000 have already stopped and the process is continued in the midst of agitation.³⁴

In this context, the question of human resource development is the most vexatious from the employment point of view. It is bound to become more vexatious in the coming years as globalisation grows apace and India opens more of its doors to international trade and investment. If privatisation of public enterprises takes place, it may result in the retrenchment of excess jobs, a scenario most likely to overtake India in the near future.

Table 3.4**Women's Share in the Workforce in Selected Countries**

Country	1980	1995
Brazil	28	35
Indonesia	35	40
Sri Lanka	27	35
UK	39	43
USA	42	46
Japan	38	41

Source : Murthy and Gaur, p.326.

Table 3.4 shows that though very diverse in nature, modernisation has resulted in substantial increase in WPR of women in the developed countries during the period 1980-1995. The same can be repeated in India if things go well and women get trained.

3.3. SECTORAL DISTRIBUTION OF WORKERS OVER THE YEARS

In the last four decades, the share of agriculture in the gross domestic product of the country has declined from an estimated 48-50% in the early 1950s to about 32% during the 1990s. The changes in the structure of the work force, however, have been much slower. The fall in the proportion of workers in the primary sector since the early 1970s has been accompanied by a compensating gain by the tertiary sector. The secondary sector has also declined, particularly after 1987-88.³⁵

Table 3.5 depicts the sectoral changes in employment for the country and the states. At the national level, the share of employment in primary sector reduced from 58.8% in 1987-88 to 58.4% in 1993-94 and to 52.4% in 1999-2000, whereas the proportion of the tertiary sector increased from 30.3% in 1987-88 to 31.5% in 93-94 and to 36.7% in 1999-2000.

Among the states, Kerala exhibits a unique pattern with a clear shift in employment for both men and women from the primary to the tertiary sector. Employment in primary sector steeply reduced from 47.9 per cent in 1987-88 to 45.4 per cent in 1993-94 and further to 34.7 per cent in 1999-2000 while that under tertiary sector moved up from 36.2 per cent in 1987-88 to 39.7 per cent in 1993-94 and further to 49.7 per cent in 1999-2000. While in several better off states, the major share of employment is under primary sector, in Kerala it is under tertiary sector, with the maximum share of 49.7 per cent. When the share of employment under primary sector in respect of backward states of Bihar, Madhya Pradesh and Orissa are 73.6 per cent, 68.6 per cent and 69 per cent respectively, for Kerala, it is only 34.7 per cent which is the lowest among the states. In secondary sector also, Kerala's share is higher i.e., 15.6 against the national average of 10.9. This pattern unique for Kerala, is similar to developed countries.

Table 3. 5
Employment by Industrial Sectors (usual principal status) (Per cent)

State	1987-88			1993-94			1999-2000		
	Primary	Second-ary	Terti-ary	Primary	Second-ary	Terti-ary	Prima-ry	Secon-dary	Ter-tiary
1. Andhra Pradesh	67.4	10.3	22.3	68.0	9.1	22.9	60.6	9.3	30.2
2. Assam	69.30	3.00	27.70	71.64	3.04	25.32	57.90	3.81	38.29
3. Bihar	75.70	6.70	17.60	76.62	4.86	18.52	73.55	7.32	19.33
4. Gujarat	55.90	12.90	31.20	57.40	16.20	26.40	52.90	14.00	33.52
5. Haryana	58.90	12.70	28.40	46.60	11.00	42.40	45.15	12.45	42.40
6. Karnataka	66.8	12.0	21.2	66.4	10.6	23.0	58.4	11.5	30.1
7. Kerala	47.9	15.9	36.2	45.4	14.9	39.7	34.7	15.6	49.7
8. Madhya Pradesh	77.00	7.60	15.40	77.60	5.80	16.60	68.62	7.56	23.82
9. Maharashtra	63.20	11.30	25.50	60.40	11.20	28.40	49.96	12.63	37.41
10. Orissa	69.80	9.10	21.10	73.95	7.23	18.82	68.96	9.10	21.94
11. Punjab	52.10	14.50	33.40	49.36	11.73	38.91	43.48	13.30	43.22
12. Rajasthan	65.40	8.30	26.30	67.00	7.00	26.00	61.42	8.66	29.92
13. Tamil Nadu	51.2	19.9	28.9	52.4	18.1	29.5	41.9	20.1	38.0
14. Uttar Pradesh	70.20	9.20	20.60	66.97	9.57	23.46	60.19	11.87	27.94
15. West Bengal	52.30	17.70	30.00	48.34	18.75	32.91	47.34	17.56	35.10
All India (23 States)	58.8	10.6	30.3	58.4	10.1	31.5	52.4	10.9	36.7

Source: Economic Review, 2002.

A shift away from the primary sector is taking place among the females in Kerala, whereas, at the national level, more and more proportion of workers is engaged in the primary sector which is generally considered as a sector where wages are relatively low. Nation-wide, major shift for women between 1971 and 81 is from agricultural labour category to cultivators. Thus the status of women between these two census periods has shifted from agricultural labourers to unpaid family workers.³⁶ Unlike the other states, in Kerala, there is a clear shift in occupation of women from the primary to the tertiary sector.

3.4. FEATURES OF WOMEN EMPLOYMENT

There has been some recent changes in the nature of employment of women as a result of modernisation. It is often said that female employment become increasingly informal and casual. Marginalisation and feminisation is seen to be taking place in many sectors of employment.

3.4.1. Informalisation

Informalisation of women denotes the excessive presence or concentration of women labour in the informal sector of the economy. As we have already seen, only 4% of the working women are in the organised sector. 96% are in the informal sector where they suffer a lot of disadvantages and inequities compared to their counterparts in the organised sector. The emphasis on the employment of women in the organised sector is with reference to the availability of social security measures through various legal provisions for its employers. 96% of working women are out of the safety net since they have no access to any facilities by being in the informal sector.³⁷

Out of 49.574 crore women in the country, hardly 41% are working women and out of that majority are agricultural workers and cultivators. All of them are excluded from the benefits of the Protective Laws like Equal

Remuneration Act, Maternity Benefit Act etc.,³⁸ There is over-crowding of women in the informal sector in certain women specific jobs. In some cases, women themselves opt for the informal sector, partly due to the flexibility of work in this sector and the comparatively easy entry into and out of it.³⁹ Unprotected female workers in the unorganised sector receive only about half or less than what the men receive and the earnings of self-employed women is still lower.⁴⁰

3.4.2. Casualisation

A visible change in work participation during the 1980's and 90's is the 'casualisation' of workforce, which is higher in the case of women, compared to men.⁴¹ This phenomenon is seen both in rural and urban areas. It means that women employment in India is being characterised by increasing casualisation.⁴²

To escape the provisions on maternity benefit, creche etc., employers in major industries recruit women as casual workers.⁴³ The adoption of subcontracting methods in the production process led to transfer of employees in general and that of women in particular, from the organised to the unorganised sectors.⁴⁴

Sub-contracting system is being popularised in Kerala also. Even big manufacturers like Hindustan Latex Company in the public sector are employing hundreds of women under the subcontracting system. The companies are in no way responsible towards the contract workers.⁴⁵ Sometimes women work at home according to the orders received. In this case, women are isolated from each other and piece rate system flourishes due to women's desperate need to earn.⁴⁶

3.4.3. Feminisation vs. Marginalisation

The term feminisation points towards the increasing participation of women in economic activities resulting mainly from the substitution of relatively low-paid women workers for the males.⁴⁷ In most developing countries across the globe, the period since 1980 has been notable for the increasing participation of women in recognized paid employment and this trend has further intensified since 1990. This hypothesis acknowledges the existence of discrimination in the labour market in terms of wages and segregation. It also predicts that these tendencies would disappear in the long run when rapid economic growth allocates better jobs to women.

The marginalisation hypothesis on the other hand heavily criticises the feminisation hypothesis on the ground that it has failed to take into account the diverse economic factors that have affected women's employment. The advocates of the 'marginalisation hypothesis in India argues that those sectors, where there was an increase in female participation were relatively small and that the over emphasis on numbers was at the expense of the quality of female work in these sectors.

For example, industries located in Export processing zones (EPZs) attract more female labour than male. Demand in these light industries is for semi-skilled labour with basic education (middle to secondary level schooling) and minimum on-the-job training. Women are seen to be more suitable for these jobs because they are used to doing repetitive work and have considerable dexterity.⁴⁸

On the self employment front, relative lack of access to productive assets, credit and training and other support systems have led to women's confinement particularly to low productivity informal sector activities. Efforts therefore, have been made in several countries to improve women's access to

productive assets and credit programmes run by governments and non-governments.⁴⁹

3.4.4. Investment in Women

There is an urgent need to introduce a systematic and integrated programme for women's training. It will help to increase the female work participation rate. The National Vocational Training Institute (NVTI), Noida, U.P, and the Regional Vocational Training Institute (RVTI) for women in different parts of India, imparted basic and advanced level training for the modernisation and establishment of women's industrial training institute (ITI) under the World Bank aided Vocational training project.⁵⁰

Though it is often said that girls are not facing discrimination in the matter of education in Kerala, it is not fully true. In the present scenario, there is a clear cut distinction, in treatment towards a boy and a girl in the matter of higher education. In most of the families, there are only 2 children, the average number of children for the state being 1.8. Generally boys are sent for some professional course, most preferably Medicine or Engineering and girls to some traditional graduate and postgraduate course. Parents are ready to spend any amount of money for the professional education of boys. Girls are given a chance to attempt for the entrance test and if she doesn't get through, she has to turn to the traditional course offered at low cost in the Universities and Colleges in Kerala. Dowry is playing the role of a villain since the parents have to accumulate a huge amount to send the daughter in marriage to a good family, whether she has taken a professional degree or not. Hence the doors to professional courses are only 'half open' to girls in Kerala which will restrict their employment prospects, in future. When we take the case of India as a whole, the picture is still worse.⁵¹

India has a growing illiterate population. The absolute number of illiterates increased from 294 million in 1951 to 482 million in 1991, an increase of 4.7 million per year. For the first time there has been a decrease in the number of illiterates according to census 2001. India is said to be the largest single producer of the world's illiterates, majority among them being women. The high rate of illiteracy has been a great barrier to the development of women during the past few decades. Sharma and Rutherford have projected that at the existing rate it may take about seven decades or more for the country to reach the goal of full literacy or universal education in the age group of 5 to 14 years. This is a tragic situation, not only for women, but for the whole nation. Though India has a well-developed higher education system, with 196 university level institutions serving 4.3 million students, women's colleges have been providing mostly traditional education for girls although attempts are being made to change this trend.⁵²

3.5. PRESENCE OF WOMEN IN VARIOUS CATEGORIES OF INDUSTRIES

The Census of India looks at employment in 9 broad Industrial categories, irrespective of whether it is in the organised or unorganised sector. According to census 1991, the largest proportion of main workers from both sexes was in Category 1 (Cultivator). But according to Census 2001, the largest proportion is of other workers category (37.5 per cent). Nearly 31.7 per cent of the workers in the country are cultivators. Agricultural labourers constitute 26.7 per cent. Only a small proportion of about 4.1 per cent are engaged in household industry. This general pattern is reflected in the case of distribution of male workers also. However in the case of females, the largest proportion is of agricultural labourers (39.4 per cent) followed by cultivators (32.5 per cent). About 21.7 per cent of female workers are 'other workers' while about 6.4 per cent are in household industry. In the other categories,

though the proportion of women workers is much smaller, there is concentration of women workers in a few occupations under these broad industry categories. Table 3.6 presents data on the distribution of workers by broad categories of cultivators, agricultural labourers, workers in household industry and other workers for India by sex in 2001.

Table 3.6
Category- wise distribution of workers

Category	Total(%)	Female(%)
Cultivators	31.7	32.5
Agricultural Labourers	26.7	39.4
House-hold Industry	4.1	6.4
Other Workers	37.5	21.7
Total	100	100

Source: Census of India, 2001.

In the rural areas, the proportion of cultivators is 40.1 per cent followed by 33.2 per cent in agricultural labourers. This is naturally in sharp contrast with the distribution of workers in urban areas where 87.0 per cent are other workers and only small proportion of 3.2 per cent are cultivators and 4.7 per cent are agricultural labourers. In the rural areas, however, the largest proportion of workers among females is in agricultural labour while in the case of males, this is as cultivators. In the urban areas, both in the case of males and females, the largest proportion of workers are other workers.

National Sample Survey (NSS) looks at more detailed industrial division of workers in a three-digit Industrial classification based on the 0-9 major divisions. 384 divisions of industry are classified by NSSO. It is found that the employment of women in greater intensity is only in a few Industrial

divisions. In 55 types of industries, more than 40% of the workers are women. Of these industries, four have women employment between 80-89%, eight each have 70-79 %, and 60-69%, 12 have 50-59% and 26 have 40-49% of women employment.

The largest employment is in the production of cereals under categories I and II in the census data. Industries which employ over 1 million women workers are cattle and goat breeding and production of milk, manufacturing of beedi and textile, education services and domestic services. In all other industries employment is below 1 million. These 55 industries with concentration of women workers, need special attention from the point of view of skill up-gradation, development, technology transfer, technology development etc., for increasing their productivity and improving their incomes.⁵³ At the state level also there are certain industries where more than 50 per cent workers are women. They are cattle and goat breeding, manufacturing of beedi, matches, wooden and cane boxes, cotton spinning, processing of edible nuts, embroidery, weaving wool, cotton, khadi and coir.⁵⁴

Census figures revealed that the work participation rate for females in India has steadily gone up from 19.7% in 1981 to 22.3% in 91 and further to 25.7% in 2001. In rural areas FWPR has gone up from 23.1% in 1981 to 26.8% in 1991 and to 31% in 2001 and in urban areas from 8.3 to 9.2% and to 11.6%.

The question is whether this higher participation rate of females in the primary sector in rural areas is indicative of their worsening economic situation or indicative of the impact of urbanisation, modernisation and the movement for the emancipation of women. According to Ashish Bose, "It is just possible that the increasing feminine tilt in Indian work force is really a symptom of economic stagnation and unemployment which are pushing

women into the labour force particularly in the impoverished and unorganised sector. It is also attributed to the increase in literacy and education of women.

The WPR varies substantially in the different regions. The District-wise break up shows, the range for female WPR vary between 0.9% and above 60% whereas for males it is above 30% in all districts in the country. The intensity of women agricultural workers is between 80 and 95% in more districts than for men.⁵⁵

3.5.1. Women Workers in Agricultural Sector

Census data disclose the heavy reliance of men and women on agriculture for their livelihood and employment. According to Census 2001, in rural areas 73.3% of the main workers are in the agricultural sector. The proportion of cultivators is 40.1 per cent followed by 33.2 per cent agricultural labourers. This is naturally in sharp contrast with the distribution of workers in urban areas where 87.0 per cent are other workers and only small proportion of 3.2 per cent are cultivators and 4.7 per cent are agricultural labourers. In the rural areas, however, the largest proportion of workers among females is in agricultural labour while in the case of males, this is as cultivators. In the urban areas, both in the case of males and females, the largest proportion of workers are other workers.

In the State, cultivable land constitutes 3164287 hectares against 740403 cultivators. The number of cultivators per 100 hectares of cultivable land in the State is 23. Pathanamthitta district with 42 cultivators per 100 hectares predominates among the districts, closely followed by Idukki with 38. In Kozhikode District, there are 11 cultivators per 100 hectares and is the lowest in this regard.⁵⁶

3.5.2. Women in Paddy Cultivation

Among the crops cultivated in India, paddy is the single largest employment generator. It is the third major crop of Kerala, cultivated on 3.32 lakh hectares or 11% of the total cropped area at present.⁵⁷ 64% of employment belongs to women as they are involved in various processes of cultivation. The range of involvement of women in wage labour varies from 0 to 100% for different castes and socio-economic groups. The loss of 3 lakh hectares of land (31%) under paddy cultivation in favour of cash crops and other uses over the last four decades has meant a loss of substantial employment opportunities for women in the agricultural sector in Kerala.⁵⁸

In Kerala, agricultural sector is reeling under, a severe crisis and farmers caught up on debt trap, committing suicide. The fall in prices of the state's main farm commodities like rubber and coconut was the root cause of the recession in the agricultural economy of the state during the second half of the Nineties. Along with paddy, these two crops cover 57% of the total cropped area in the state. With the prices now showing a healthy trend, not only the agricultural economy, but also the overall economy of the state is recovering from recession.⁵⁹

3.5.3. Women Workers in Plantations

Women are involved in substantial numbers in plantations of coffee, tea, cardamom, rubber and cashew. 50% of work in all plantations is done by women. Women workers in plantations enjoy support services, which are compulsory under the Plantation Labour Act (1951), Maternity Benefit Act (1961) and Equal Remuneration Act (1976).

Around 12% of the total Indian Area under tea is in Kerala State. Women play an important role in the production and processing of tea. One lakh families depend on coffee as agricultural labourers for their livelihood.⁶⁰

3.5.4. Women in Dairy

According to Census 1991, one million women are employed in dairy. But it was estimated in 1985 that Five million men and 75 million women are working in dairy. Commercialisation of dairy has transferred the earnings from milk- sales to the male members of the family, while the toil remains with the women. As a result of different development programmes, poor women are drawn into dairy sector.⁶¹ In Kerala, out of a total of 55 lakh families, 32 lakh families are engaged in animal husbandry.⁶²

3.5.5. Women in Fisheries

With its long coast line and large water resources, in India and especially in Kerala, Fisheries form an important means of livelihood for people. Export processing units in fisheries employ approximately 81,000 women. They are largely involved in fish vending, fish curing and drying.

3.5.6. Women in Poultry

Poultry is a women intensive occupation. There are many tiny enterprises started with the help of NGO's. Decentralized poultry industry guarantee sustained income and regular employment for the entrepreneurs, especially in the context of changing consumption pattern.

3.5.7. Women in Sericulture

Sericulture has been recognised as an intensive employment area for women. Kerala State Sericulture co-operative Federation (Serified) is the nodal agency for promoting sericulture activities in Kerala. The number of additional farmers in the field is 445 in 2000-01 and 568 in 2001-02. Now Kerala is a 100% Bivoltine rearing zone, producing 100% internationally gradable Bivoltine silk. 2561 kg silk was produced in 2002. Still the industry is not popularised in Kerala as an occupation.⁶³

3.5.8. Emerging Areas of Off-farm Activities

Floriculture, horticulture, ornamental plants, orchids, nurseries for variety of plants and trees, mushroom and vegetable cultivation are now picking up as an income generating activity. Women are involved in all these activities including Aqua Culture.

3.5.9. Women in Food Processing and Related Activities



Food processing is considered a thrust sector in the Industrial policy 2001 and has been given special attention by the Government.⁶⁴ Kerala's export of food products is 25% of India's total food exports.⁶⁵ The Tenth Plan outlay for the sector is Rs.770 lakhs.⁶⁶ It tops the list in terms of employment, constituting 16.7% of country's Industrial labour of 1.2 million persons. 19% of total manufacturing units in India are in this sector. Women are concentrated in Food Processing among the manufacturing industries. Food Processing would continue to be an important sector of employment for women even at higher technology level if women are accessed to the technologies.

3.5.10. Women in Construction Industry

Kerala ranks third among the Indian states in per capita consumption of cement, which is an indicator of continuing high investment in housing and other buildings.⁶⁷ Thousands of men and women are employed in this field. In this industry, almost 100% of women are employed in the unskilled category, though they are to do hard labour, moving from place to place in different construction sites. There is a great degree of wage discrimination, but it is generally accepted as a norm. Wage rates are very high in Kerala ranging from Rs.100 to 150 for women and Rs.150 to 200 for men. For skilled labourers, it is Rs. 275 per day. It is quite surprising that women are never trained in any of the skilled category jobs in this industry, largely due to

sex stereotyping of jobs. In the highly paid carpentry which needs less amount of physical strength and more artistic taste also women are not found.⁶⁸

3.5.11. Women in Small Scale Industries (SSI)

Kerala was one of the states which received very little attention in the heavy industrialization strategy pursued within the centralised planning framework in the post independence period.⁶⁹ SSI units are the largest provider of employment in the state. The total employment in SSI in Kerala comes to 11,73, 474 persons. Of the 2,58,010 units, 45,985 are run by women, which is less than 1/5 of the total ie, 17.8%. Ernakulam District ranks 1st with a total of 33,627 units. All districts have more than 12,000 units except Wayanad with 4417 units and Idukki with 6842 units. In all districts except Kasaragod (864) more than 1500 units are run by women, the number varying from 1563 in Wayanad to 5843 in Kollam. Kollam District provides the greatest number of employment (1,63,537) and Ernakulam follows with an employment of 1,57,483. Wayanad District has the smallest number of employees in Small Scale Industries (15,504). This may be because Wayanad is mainly an agricultural District. District-wise data of number of SSI, employment provided and units run by women are given in table 3.7.

Total number of SSI units registered during 2001-02 are 18,114, out of which 4316 are women's units (23.8%). Additional employment offered is 55,587. In the year 2001-02, no units were registered by women in Pathanamthitta and Kasaragod. Wayanad has put up a new face with 93 out of 279 units registered by women. Women units in other districts vary from 115 in Idukki to 650 units in Ernakulam.⁷⁰

Table No. 3.7

**District-wise Details of Small Scale Industrial Units Registered in Kerala
as on 31st March 2002**

District	Number of SSI Units promoted by		Total investment (Rs.in lakhs)	Value of goods and services produced (Rs.in lakhs)	Employment provided (number)
	Women	Total			
1	2	4	5	6	7
Thiruvananthapuram	5612	27535	30804.73	103575.42	108410
Kollam	5843	24522	32206.87	80520.27	163537
Pathanamthitta	2421	12405	11500.43	25035.61	42164
Alappuzha	4900	23556	25972.59	93393.41	109314
Kottayam	4241	26458	29957.54	64608.64	88212
Idukki	2241	6842	8045.79	23784.75	24179
Ernakulam	4564	33627	82661.25	352837.23	157483
Thrissur	3973	27025	51380.64	151951.44	110221
Palakkad	3770	20593	29639.89	54587.03	976
Malappuram	1779	12164	19016.97	66691.97	48192
Kozhikode	2612	18987	20386.67	78284.41	81023
Wayanad	1563	4417	5001.16	10581.44	15504
Kannur	1572	13186	18329.49	95657.91	91110
Kasaragod	864	6693	7739.36	19928.09	36514
Total	45985	258010	372643.38	1221437.62	1173474

Source: Directorate of Industries & Commerce, Trivandrum

Majority of employees in handloom, coir, cashew, khadi and handicrafts are women. Handloom is a traditional industry of Kerala, providing employment to about 2.5 lakh persons. The state contributes to 13% of the total handloom exports from the country. Coir industry provides direct employment to 2,74,233 workers of which 84% are women. Coir industry is passing through a crisis of low demand in export, due to the

emergence of substitutes. Employment is irregular and payment below subsistence level even in the coir co-operatives. Cashew is the second largest foreign exchange earner among the agricultural products exported from India. Kerala's share in production was 18.90% in 2002. The Kerala State Cashew Development Corporation and Kerala State Cashew Workers Apex Industrial Co-operation Society (CAPEX) are the 2 state agencies engaged in the industry. Total number of employees in the Corporation as on 31.3.02 stood at 20,673 which included only 5, appointed in 2001-02. Many factories are not functioning due to non-availability of cashew and the employment provided was only for 23 days during 2001-02. CAPEX has 10 primary societies having 4300 workers and 252 other employees. Khadi and Village Industries provided employment to 1,78,302 workers in 2001-02. Self-employment is also promoted to a large extent.

Various agencies engaged in the promotion of handicrafts industry in the state are 1) The Kerala State Handicrafts Apex Co-operative Society Limited (SURABHI) ii) Artisans Development Corporation , iii) Handicrafts Development Corporation and iv) Bamboo Development Corporation. At present about 102 primary Co-operative Societies with more than 30,000 artisans members market their products through 18 sales show rooms inside and outside the state by SURABHI; under the house-cum work shed for handicraft artisans, about 500 artisans were benefited. The number of employees in the Kerala State Bamboo Corporation stood at 260 as on 31.3.2002.⁷¹

Most of the traditional industries like coir, cashew, bamboo, handloom etc., are run by co-operatives now. Out of 1194 Co-operative Societies in Kerala, 451 are managed by women. The number of women co-operative Societies in districts vary from just one in Idukki to 68 in

Thiruvananthapuram. Thus women's co-operatives amount to 37.8% as on 30th June 2002.⁷²

3.5.12. Women Factory Workers

The number of factories increased from 12,448 in 1990 to 18,554 in 2000. The decadal growth in number of factories from 1990 to 2000 is 6006. This is mainly due to increase in the private sector. This is a great achievement since there is an increase of almost 50%. The growth in employment is only 83,200, for the period i.e., 23.4%. The number of factories in 2001 according to the provisional estimate is 18,621. But the employment reduced from 4,38,750 in 2000 to 4,34,918 in 2001 showing a marginal decrease of 0.87% from 2000. While 78% (3,38,764) workers are in the private sector, only 22% (96,154) are in the public sector. The marginal decrease in the total number of workers is the effect of a significant decrease in the number of public sector workers. The number of workers are increasing in the private sector.⁷³

Compared to other states, government owned companies and government employment are very less in Kerala. As on 31st March 2002, fifteen Government of India companies functioning in Kerala, together provided an employment of 19,298.⁷⁴ Fifteen State Government owned companies provided an employment of 2,061.⁷⁵ Government majority companies, together provided an employment of 6730 as on 2001-02.⁷⁶

District-wise details of women employees are given in Table 3.8. Total number of women employees in the state is 4,85,915, out of which, 2,92,404 are in the Private sector and 1,93,511 are in the public sector. Thus the private sector outnumber the public sector by almost one lakh. More than 50% of employees in the private sector are women. But their presence in the public sector is only 30%.

Table 3.8
District wise Number of Women Employees-2000 & 2001

District	2000				2001			
	Public		Private		Public		Private	
	Total	Women	Total	Women	Total	Women	Total	Women
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Thiruvananthapuram	132580	36855	41790	23000	133800	37152	45527	24780
2. Kollam	49353	23734	54604	41406	51682	24570	52064	38707
3. Alappuzha	33130	11570	27497	11557	32750	11558	27665	11476
4. Pathanamthitta	24980	8980	13612	6696	26365	9372	15666	7404
5. Kottayam	34631	10998	28884	9918	34282	11000	28163	9486
6. Idukki	16342	4197	73702	39355	16534	4255	75729	40527
7. Ernakulam	99111	23312	67059	22540	92982	21275	68013	22557
8. Thrissur	50238	8237	48550	24303	52527	19195	57725	27711
9. Palakkad	49361	9947	33818	12217	50223	10032	29927	11379
10. Malappuram	38201	12058	31269	14243	37956	11950	31644	14332
11. Kozhikode	46133	11621	50272	18118	45460	11577	50188	18213
12. Wayanad	12617	3106	19131	11033	12652	3107	19598	11046
13. Kannur	38122	11649	55077	22358	36832	11132	54499	23390
14. Kasaragod	19173	6303	36686	29156	20861	7336	40380	31396
Total	643972	192567	581951	285900	644906	193511	596788	292404

Source: Employment Directorate.

Table 3.9 gives the details regarding the number and percentage of women employed in factories in Kerala from 1990 to 1998. During the period there has occurred only a slight increase in the number as well as percentage of women employees. The increase in absolute number was from 73,830 to 79,345. The meagre increase in percentage was from 38.54 to 39.55. More than 60 per cent of employees of registered factories submitting return are men.

Table 3.9**Percentage of Women Employment in Registered Factories**

Category	1990			1995			1998		
	Public Sector	Private Sector	Total	Public Sector	Private Sector	Total	Public Sector	Private Sector	Total
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Total number of registered working factories	413	12035	12448	491	14840	15331	542	17177	17719
No. of factories submitting returns	297	7390	7687	178	4419	4597	259	7022	7281
Total employment in the factories submitting returns	58762	132811	191573	30372	75714	106086	56854	143745	200604
Women employment in the factories submitting returns	24579	49251	73830	4266	17887	22153	23189	56156	79345
Percentage of women employment in factories submitting returns	41.83	37.08	38.54	14.05	23.62	20.88	40.78	39.07	39.55

Source: Directorate of Economics & Statistics.

Table 3.10 shows the participation of women in Khadi and Village industries sector. The maximum participation of women is in Khadi and Polyvastra with 90.98% each. Textile and match industry employ 77% and 62% of women respectively. Both Rubber and Village Pottery employ 55% of women. More than 40% women work in Fibre, Cane and Bamboo, Plastic, Agarbathi, etc.

Table 3.10
Women Participation in Khadi and Village Industries Sector

Sl. No.	Industries	Employment				Percentage of Women participation	
		1999-2000		2000-2001		1999-00	2000-01
		Women	Total	Women	Total	%	%
I	Khadi	6375	6573	5035	5534	96.99	90.98
II	Village Industries						
1	Cottage Match	4105	6665	4090	6635	61.59	61.64
2	Village Leather	936	2615	571	1631	35.79	35.01
3	Fibre	28514	60670	27912	60642	47.00	46.03
4	Rubber	898	1962	1034	1880	45.77	55.00
5	H.M.P	194	554	177	507	35.02	34.91
6	Village Pottery	11752	23936	6189	11255	49.10	54.99
7	Service	253	845	330	945	29.94	34.92
8	Village Oil	135	1403	95	1128	9.62	8.42
9	N.E.O.S	479	1381	554	1230	34.69	45.04
10	P.C.P	6178	14370	5798	14490	42.99	40.01
11	F.V.P.	1315	3126	1285	3135	42.07	40.99
12	Ayurvedic	394	1073	387	1072	36.72	36.10
13	Cane and Bamboo	1318	3063	1350	3158	43.03	42.75
14	Textile	3968	6465	4746	6178	61.38	76.82
15	Aluminium	119	916	115	900	12.99	12.78
16	Electronics	307	932	286	877	32.94	32.61
17	Plastic	96	187	96	201	51.34	47.76
18	Lime	3019	9192	2997	9157	32.84	32.73
19	Bee-keeping	428	18032	412	17958	2.37	2.29
20	Blacksmithy and Carpentry	794	6519	776	6486	12.18	11.96
21	Gurkhandasari	323	2500	281	2441	12.92	11.51
22	Palmgur	3433	8701	3279	8502	39.46	38.57
23	Agarbathy	657	1500	606	1456	43.80	41.62
24	Polyvastra	691	755	666	732	91.52	90.98
25	Bell Metal		10			0.00	
II	Village Industries Total	70306	177372	64032	162596	39.64	39.38
	Grand Total	76681	183945	69067	168130	41.69	41.08

Source: Khadi & Village Industries Board

3.5.13. Women Entrepreneurship

Women entrepreneurs represent a group of women who have broken away from the beaten track and exploring new avenues of economic participation. It can be said that the only field in which women have attained equality with men globally is in the case of number of micro-enterprises. According to UN estimates, women operate approximately half of the worlds' micro-enterprises. In developed countries like the United States and Canada, women own 30 per cent of the total business, which constitute 7.7 million firms employing 15.5 million workers, generating nearly \$1.4 billion worth of sales. These firms collectively employ over one-third (35%) more people in the United States than the Fortune 500 companies world wide. In Latin America, Women represent 15 to 20 per cent entrepreneurs. In 1972, women owned less than 3% units in United States comprising of 4,02,025 units. The incredible growth of women entrepreneurship is evident from the fact that women are establishing business enterprises at twice the rate of establishment of business units by men. It is encouraging to note that the proportion of women entrepreneurship has grown from 4per cent in 1980 to 13 per cent in 1996.⁷⁷

In India, according to the 1991 census, self-employed women constituted 12.3 per cent as against 5.2 per cent in 1981. In Kerala, the number of women entrepreneurs in 1975-76 was 73, which has increased to 4,190 in 1993-94. We can find women entrepreneurs in Kerala at the top of all industries right from ready made garments to high-tech computers. 4316 SSI units were started by women in 2001-02. A large number of schemes such as IMY, RMK, STEP, NORAD, ARVIND started by NABARD, DWCRA, TRYSEM, WIP etc. are providing a lot of assistance to enthusiastic women.⁷⁸ Institutions like DBI conduct special Entrepreneurial Development Programmes through which training is given to women. National Equity

Fund set up under IDBI offers financial assistance to the extent of 15% of the project cost as equity support on a service charge of 1%. Promoter's contribution is 10% and the balance is given as loan. Initial advance, which amounts to 15% of cost, need to be repaid only within 10 years. To facilitate easy access, single window approach is adopted, through SFCs. Organised banking sector has opened up for women giving credit as well as training. In Kerala, a lot of small units are springing up through government activities such as Kudumbasree, as well as through the thrift and credit groups under the NGOs. A large number of SSI units and micro-enterprises are functioning successfully. The new race of women entrepreneurs are emerging in substantial numbers which would give a strong support to the economy as well as raise the status of women.⁷⁹

A lot of problems are faced by women entrepreneurs such as raw material procurement, marketing, finance etc. There are large scale processing and marketing co-operatives which integrate scattered petty producers. Organisations like WWF, SEWA etc., impart participatory skill in internal management. Women entrepreneurs have organised themselves under the Indian Council of Women Entrepreneurs, which represent their case to the Government.⁸⁰

The greatest problem experienced by women entrepreneurs is the problem of marketing. Lack of access to good markets and low mobility experienced as women are identified as the greatest of difficulties.⁸¹ Exploitation by traders and middlemen comes in the form of paying extremely low piece rates, penalising them in case of delay in delivery of goods and by avoiding payment for petty reasons. Some traders earn huge profits by selling at high costs to the customers in their big shops in cities, and reducing as far as they can, the rates of the petty producers.⁸²

3.5.14. Self Employed Women

In India, 56 per cent of the workers in rural areas and 42 per cent in the urban areas were self-employed in the year 1999-2000 and majority among them are women. In 1988 the Prime Minister Rajiv Gandhi agreed to appoint the National Commission on Self-Employed Women and nominated Ela Bhatt as the chairperson of the Commission. Its report, "Shramshakti" (women's labour power) was the result of a research at grass root level interviewing women in their work places, in the fields and mines, on construction sites, in streets and markets. It made visible the problems of self-employed women at national level and gave a comprehensive set of policy recommendations.

The National Centre for Labour is a recently formed apex body of NGOs and Trade Union Organisations defending the interests of the informal sector workers which are not represented by the established trade unions in the formal sector. Out of 350 million informal sector women workers world wide, 30 million toil as home-based workers. At international level, the SEWA succeeded in pushing forward an ILO Convention for the Protection of Home-based Workers.⁸³

3.6. WOMEN IN TERTIARY SECTOR

In the organised Sector, women employed in the services sector was 2.65 millions in 93, constituting 66% of women employed in all sectors. In this sector, women's share of employment was 16%. Community, personal and social Services division claimed most of the employment viz. 2.27 millions. In the organised services sector, women employment was predominantly in the public sector.

3.6.1. Distribution of Women in Central Government Services and Various Ministries

Employment of women in Central Government has been increasing steadily from 1961 onwards. The progress of 3.64 in 1981 to 7.5% in 1990 is a definite reflection of change in attitude of women to come forward to take part in various fields of development. Among the Central Government employees, only 3.3% constitute gazetted officers, while the rest is non-gazetted. At the senior management level, in Government of India, representation has increased marginally from 931 in 1986 (5.6%) to 994 (5.8%) in 1987. Employment in communication ministry and 'other ministries' are over 10%.⁸⁴

Table 3.11 shows the district-wise employment of women in various sections of government, public sector and private sector during the year 2000 in Kerala. The total employment of women in the state was 4.78 lakh which constitutes 39.03 percentage. The total employment of women was 18,154 in the Central government, 1.05 lakh in the State Government, 61,246 in quasi government and 7,905 in local body. While the total public sector employment was 1,92,562 which constituted 29.9%, the total private sector employment was 2,85,900 which constituted 49.13%. The maximum public sector employment of 36,855 is in Thiruvananthapuram district. Total as well as private sector employment is maximum in Kollam district which accounts for 75.83 per cent of private sector and 62.66 per cent of total employment. While the lowest employment in absolute numbers is in Wayanad district, the lowest percentage of women employment is in Palakkad district.

Table 3.11

**Women Employees in Public and Private Sectors in Kerala
as on 31st March 2000**

District	Central Government	State Government	Quasi Government	Local Body	Total Public sector	% of women employment in Public Sector	Total Private Sector	% of women employment in Private sectors	Total Public & Private Sector	Total % of Women employment
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Thiruvananthapuram	5794	18671	10709	1681	36855	27.80	23000	55.04	59855	34.33
Kollam	221	7456	15244	813	23734	48.09	41406	75.83	65140	62.66
Pathanamthitta	719	4055	3714	492	8980	35.94	6696	49.19	15676	40.62
Alappuzha	340	6611	4094	525	11570	34.92	11557	42.03	23127	38.15
Kottayam	625	6786	3179	408	10998	31.75	9918	34.34	20916	32.93
Idukki	268	3032	641	256	4197	25.68	39355	53.40	43552	48.37
Ernakulam	4033	10264	8079	936	23312	23.52	22540	33.61	45852	27.59
Thrissur	1455	11158	4788	845	18246	36.32	24303	50.06	42549	43.07
Palakkad	2043	6826	817	247	9933	20.12	12217	36.13	22150	26.63
Malappuram	423	9777	1456	402	12058	31.56	14243	28.33	26301	37.86
Kozhikode	1224	7272	2461	664	11621	25.19	18118	36.04	29739	30.85
Wayanad	42	2771	220	73	3106	24.62	11033	57.67	14139	44.54
Kannur	791	5776	4632	450	11649	30.56	22358	40.59	34007	36.49
Kasaragod	176	4802	1212	113	6303	32.87	29156	79.47	35459	63.48
State	18154	105257	61246	7905	192562	29.90	285900	49.13	478462	39.03

Source: Employment Directorate

3.6.2. Women in Decision Making in Government

For the purpose of reviewing the position with regard to women in decision making in the Government, we may consider the number of women in the two top services of IAS and IPS, as these categories generally occupy the position of senior management levels in the administration of Government. Researchers on the women's employment situation point out that the concentration of women's employment is greater in the lower echelons which tapers sharply as the pyramid rises. It may take many more years for this picture to change, though some social scientists believe that women are

the better administrators as they are natural managers.⁸⁵ There is also a feeling that gender discrimination prevails in getting opportunities to handle certain kinds of jobs.

Table No.3.12

Women Representation in IAS/IPS Services-All India and Kerala

	India						Kerala					
	1987		1997		2000		1987		1997		2000	
	F	Total	F	Total	F	Total	F	Total	F	Total	F	Total
IAS	339 (8.1)	4204	512 (10.2)	4991	535 (10.4)	5159	7 (8)	88	13 (8.7)	150	17 (10.2)	167
IPS	21 (0.9)	2418	67 (2.2)	3045	110 (3.3)	3301	1 (2)	48	1 (1.1)	91	1 (1)	99
TOTAL	360 (5.4)	6622	579 (7.2)	8036	645 (7.6)	8460	8 (5.9)	136	14 (5.8)	241	18 (6.8)	266

Source: Planning Commission: Social Development and Women's Programme Division, 2000.

Table 3.12 gives the percentage of women employed in higher category jobs in India and Kerala. The number of women in I.A.S cadre in India has increased from 8.1% in 1987 to 10.4% in 2000. The number of women in I.P.S. has increased from 0.9% to 3.3% during the period. The figures show that only a meagre percentage of women are in the above categories. There is increased governmental efforts to recruit more women to the civil services. The percentage of women in the field of administration in Kerala during the same period is lower than that at the national level. It is only 18 (6.8%) out of 266 in 2000. There has been only one I.P.S., throughout the period.

3.6.3. Women in the Police Force

At present there are 1,022 women constables in Kerala, including one S.P, 21 Circle Inspectors and 70 Sub Inspectors. The first batch of 490 passed out on Aug. 14, 2002, second batch of 327 on May 23, 2003 and the third batch of 205 on Nov. 20, 2003. Fourth batch of 247 and 5th batch of 353 are

undergoing training. The government decision is to augment their number to 10 percent of total police force by Dec.2004. By then, there will be women constables in all the 426 police stations. Kerala has to its credit, the first state to recruit women to the police force as well as in constituting 10% of the police force. In 1938, five women were recruited. In 1961, a woman A.S.I was given direct appointment. Up to 1990, they were part of armed forces. The first woman only police station was established in Calicut in 1973.⁸⁶ It is hoped that the presence of women in the police stations will help to provide better service and approachability to women in trouble and reduce the problem of sexual harassment on convicts.

3.6.4. Women in the Service Sector in Kerala

The remarkable presence of women in the service sector is a unique achievement of Kerala, among the Indian states. A good number of educated women are employed in Education, Banking, Hospital, Government Offices and in IT Sector. This is possible because of the high qualification of women population in Kerala. An average Kerala woman is a graduate and a good number are post-graduates and some are professional degree holders.

3.6.5. Women in Education

Women in education need special mention, since there is a dominant presence of women in Education, both in the teaching field as well as in enrolment for higher education. It is known world-wide that Kerala places education of women in top priority. The following table gives the details of Teachers Training Institutes (TTI) in Kerala.

There are 102 Teachers Training Institutes in Kerala, of which, 38 are in the Government sector and 64 are run by Private management, but aided by Government. Total number of teachers in the Training Institute is 646, out of which 336 are women (52%). In the case of students, girls outnumber boys in

these ITIs. In 2000-01, total number of students were 7105, out of which 5531 (78%) were girls. This bears witness to the link between women and education.

Table 3.13

Management-wise Teachers Training Institutions, Student strength and Number of Teachers (1999-2000 & 2000-01)

Management	No. of Institutions	T.T.I.					
		Student strength			No. of Teachers		
		Boys	Girls	Total	Men	Women	Total
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1999-2000							
Government	38	535	1946	2481	216	97	313
Aided	64	684	3339	4023	85	205	290
Unaided	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Total	102	1219	5285	6504	30	302	603
2000-01							
Government	38	533	2218	2751	195	108	303
Aided	64	1041	3313	4354	115	228	343
Unaided	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Total	102	1574	5531	7105	310	336	646

Source: DPI, Thiruvananthapuram.

Regarding the number of school teachers also, women are in the forefront. It varies from 60.5% to 72.6% in all levels of education such as LP, UP, High School and T.T.I. The maximum of 72.6% women teachers are working in the L.P. Section.

Table 3.14 shows the strong presence of women in teaching field in all the universities in Kerala. Out of 3,690 teachers in Kerala University, 2354 (63.9%) are women. In M.G. University out of 3898, 2012 (51.61%) are women. Out of 3179 teachers in Calicut University 43.94% are women. Out of 876 teachers in Kannur University, 363 (41.43%) are women. Out of a

total of 11,643 teachers in Arts and Science Colleges, 6126 (52.61%) are women. In Kerala University there is a steady increase in the percentage of women from 56 to 60 and further to 64 per cent.

Table 3.14

Number of Teachers in Arts & Science Colleges 1998-2000

Name of University	1998			1999			2000		
	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total
Kerala University	1728	2241 (56.46)	3969	1403	2078 (59.69)	3481	1336	2354 (63.90)	3690
M.G. University	1878	1736 (48.03)	3614	1976	2606 (56.87)	4582	1886	2012 (51.61)	3898
Calicut University	1765	2942 (62.50)	4707	1852	1783 (49.05)	3635	1782	1397 (43.94)	3179
Kannur University	615	230 (27.22)	845	515	618 (54.54)	1133	513	363 (41.43)	876
Total	5986	7149 (54.43)	13135	5746	7085 (55.22)	12831	5517	6126 (52.61)	11643

Source: DCE, Thiruvananthapuram. (Figures in brackets represent percentage)

In M.G. University it increased from 48 to 57 and then reduced to 52. But in Calicut University there is a sudden drop from 62.5 to 49 per cent and then to 44 per cent. While the number of men increased, women reduced from 2942 to 1783 in 1999. Though there is strong presence of women in these universities, so far, no woman had been fortunate enough to be promoted to the superior posts in the universities of Kerala.

3.7. WOMEN IN IT SECTOR

IT revolution is supposed to create a parallel revolution in the women employment scenario world wide, since it topples down all those traditional concepts of gender-based division of labour. IT has brought out a shift in paradigm from the 'muscle power' of man to the 'intellectual and mental powers of both women and men'. There is nothing that prevents a woman

from operating a computer in the same way as a man. This was not the case with installation of machinery and application of technology before the advent of PCs. Women were always kept away from technological development on the basis of 'injury to health and foetus', 'dangerous machinery', so on and so forth. IT has opened wide a new world for woman, where she can prove her efficiency and excellence and make use of her intellectual powers fearlessly. Many are the avenues open before women in the field of hardware and software technology and IT enabled services.⁸⁷

The India Government's policy paper on "Technology Vision-2000" aims to strengthen indigenous efforts in Science & Technology. The quantum leap made by the software industry in this country demonstrates the success that can be achieved by its educated men and women. Regarding Kerala, its greatest asset is its intelligent, well educated man-power which has proved its excellence in countries all over the world. Statistics show that a greater proportion of women than men in Kerala are graduates and post graduates. Computer-related subjects in the curriculum, formal government and private institutions as well as the informal computer training centres peppered throughout Kerala gives ample opportunities for educated women to be transformed into computer professionals.⁸⁸

3.7.1. IT Enabled Services (ITES)

ITES means the services making use of IT. It includes tele-working ie, working from a distant place using the combined capabilities of IT, Telecommunications and Net working. Certain examples of Teleworking are Business Process Outsourcing (BPO), Customer Interaction, Service (call centres), Transcription, Legal databases, Translation, Back Office Operation, Digitising, Animation, Website Services etc., Hundreds of women are working in the field of ITES in Kerala. Tele-working offers wide opportunities for women computer professionals. The advantage is that,

women can work from outside the office ; often from their homes. They will be able to balance their multiple roles without struggling with time and energy and hence they need not make a choice between the home and career since they work at home. Another important avenue for women could be the setting up of tele-kiosks and co-operative tele-centres.⁸⁹

3.7.2. Employment Potential in IT Sector:

IT offers a bright future to the young educated women and men in India, who are professionals in software development. IT export for the year 2002 was Rs.45,000 crores. As growth rate in export of 26 per cent is ample proof of the prosperous future of this sector which contributes to 16 per cent of the total exports of the country. According to the estimates of National Association of Software and Service Companies (NASSCOM) export will be worth 77 Billion dollars by 2008.⁹⁰ The Information, Communication and Technology Sector (ICT) has estimated an employment possibility of 2,50,000 knowledge workers by 2008, to meet this target In 2001-02, US represented 66 per cent of total software exports. Efforts are taken to extend the market to other countries also.⁹¹

During the second week of October 2003, it was estimated that there will be a deficiency of 56 lakh workers in America by 2010. Visa will be issued to 24 lakh professionals and off-shore work will be offered for 32 lakh persons. It is also known that companies including IBM will transfer the work of 30 lakh people to countries outside, including India.⁹²

A note-worthy development in the last year was the enhanced visibility of Kerala as one of India's most IT ready states and the increased level of investor confidence in the state particularly in the IT Enabled services. Kochi is rated as the second most attractive location in the country for ITES, by NASSCOM. It is estimated that about 70,000 people, are directly employed in

ICT related activities in the state. Technopark at Trivandrum emerged as one of the leading IT parks in the country, hosting 47 companies employing 5,000 persons, of which 75 per cent are women. 13 companies have set up call centres in Kerala so far. 323 companies based in Cochin Special Economic Zone contributed to export of Rs.125 crores, employing over 2,500 people. Kerala's major share of IT industry is comprised of Hardware assemblers and vendors which employs over 15,000 people, recording a revenue close to Rs.500 crores. There are about 2,450 units in the state under this category.

The State has about 2000 units of IT training institutes and 2,500 internet cafes/DTP centres. Training industry employs 8000 IT professionals. About 4000 people find employment in internet Cafes. About 300 small and micro software Companies in IT sector generate revenue of about Rs.30 crores employing about 3600 IT professionals statewide. Seven internet providers were functioning in the state during the year 2002-2003. In the field of e-governance, government have established single window electronic counters called FRIENDS in all the 14 district head quarters. About 650 staff are deployed at these centres.⁹³

3.7.3. Akshaya: State Government Programme for Computer Literacy

In November 2002, state government launched 'Akshaya', a programme to universalise computer literacy in the state. Malappuram District was selected for the first phase of the pilot project. Nearly 4 lakh people, including 60% women, have attained cyber fluency through 612 Akshaya centres in Malappuram District after the Kerala Information Technology Mission launched by the Akshaya – Bridging the Digital Divide Project in the district exactly a year ago. About 3,000 people in the District would indirectly get employment by this scheme. 60% of those enrolled are women, who will be transformed into efficient IT professionals in the near future.⁹⁴

3.8. TOURISM

Tourism is becoming a major provider of employment and wealth to the State. Kerala is considered as one among the ten heavenly tourist centres in the world. This is a prospective field for Kerala while its performance in industry and agriculture is reducing and prospects in the Middle East are also fading. Kerala is expected to register a record growth of 23.5 per cent in the tourism sector in the next ten years. WTTC forecasts suggest that Kerala would triple its travel and tourism economy employment from 0.7 million at present to 2 million in 2012.⁹⁵ In 2002, there was a growth of 11% foreign tourists and 6% domestic tourists. In 2003, the sector is reported to have a record growth of 30 per cent.⁹⁶ Enthusiastic women are entering this field, which is in the initial stage of its development. Efficiency in communication and fluency in English language can be utilised in offering fruitful services in the Tourism sector.

3.9. WOMEN AND MIGRATION

At present migration has become all pervasive in the economic and social life in the state and has outpaced migration within India.⁹⁷ Migration has caused nearly a million married women in Kerala to live away from their husbands. Their sense of autonomy, independent status, management skills and experience in dealing with the world outside their homes would remain with them for the rest of their lives for the benefit of their families and the society at large.⁹⁸ A positive aspect of out-migration of one or more members in the family is the enhancement of the status of women in that family, as they take over the leadership.⁹⁹ Lack of employment opportunities in Kerala has made its people ready for migration. Migration from Kerala to other states in India and to countries outside is common and its impact is felt on every aspect of life in the state. Till 1940's Kerala had a basically non-migrating population. Skilled labour in various categories including IT professionals

has attracted foreign markets to a great extent. In terms of emigrants per 100 households, Malappuaram was in the lead with a rate of 49; Pathanamthitta came second with a rate of 33.

There are 11.41 lakh Keralites working in different parts of the world. The migrants constitute about 3.6% of total population of Kerala and 95.6% of the migrants are in Gulf countries with Saudi Arabia alone accounting for nearly 40% of the total.¹⁰⁰ According to a survey conducted by the State Government in 1999, there are 2.18 lakh female migrants in the state, constituting 15.72% of the total. Out of them, 76,265 (35%) are employed. Out of the unemployed, 42% are below 20 years. Out of the total female employed migrants, 15,784 (21%) are in the Government service, 8,889 in semi-government and 57,592 (76%) in private firms.¹⁰¹

3.10. GOVERNMENT INITIATIVES TO FIGHT UNEMPLOYMENT OF WOMEN

Numerous programmes were initiated by the Government for the promotion of employment in general and self-employment of women. They are National Rural Employment Programme (NREP), Rural Landless Employment Guarantee Programme (RLEGP), Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP), Training for Rural Youth in Self Employment (TRYSEM) and Jawahar Rozgar Yojana (JRY). In JRY, which is a merger of the first two, 30% of employment is reserved for women. Since April 1st 1999, JRY has been renamed as Jawahar Gram Samridhi Yojana (JGSY).¹⁰²

Under Swarna Jayanti Shahari Rozgar Yojana (SJSRY), groups of urban poor women setting up self-employment ventures are eligible for subsidy up to 50 per cent of the project cost. The Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP) with its allied program (Training of Youth for Self Employment) TRYSEM is believed to be the largest of its kind in the

world and 40% of beneficiaries are to be women. DWCRA and DWCUA are women specific development programmes which benefited a lot of women. PMRY, Youth Employment Promotion programmes (YEPPs) and General Employment Promotion Programmes (GEPPs), Swarnajayanti Gram Swarozgar Yojana (SGSY), Pradhan Mantri Gramodaya Yojana (PMGY) and Jawahar Rozgar Yojana (JRY) are seemed to deliver better results¹⁰³

3.10.1. Programmes with Special Thrust on Employment and Training for Women in the Women specific Sector, under the Department of Women and child Development:

In line with the Eighth Plan strategy, the nodal Department of Women and Child Development has reset its priorities to accord special emphasis on employment and income generation activities for women. Some of the important programmes initiated by the Department are Support to Training and Employment Projects (STEP), Training-cum-Employment-cum Production Centres (NORAD), Socio-Economic Programme (SEP), Condensed courses of Education and Vocation Training for Adult Women (CCE & VT), Rashtriya Mahila Kosh: (RMK). Swayam Sidha and Swadhar are the latest to join the list of schemes.

3.10.2. Support Services

Government provides certain support services which represent an important plank for the employment of women as they reduce the burden of child care and employment related problems such as hostels for working Women, Creches for Working/Ailing Mother's Children, Integrated Child Development Services (ICDS) and Scheme for Adolescent Girls.

Though women have benefited to some extent through the development projects, the implementation was not very successful. The development agencies, in their eagerness to complete their targets, are not

concerned whether there is an adequate coverage of women. The implementation machinery is largely insensitive to the needs of women in poverty.¹⁰⁴ Collaboration with N.G.O's at the implementation level seems to be more fruitful.¹⁰⁵

3.10.3. 'Women in Agriculture Programme'

The National Agricultural policy 2000 and the National Policy for Empowerment of Women 2001 have highlighted the need for incorporating gender issues in the agricultural development agenda to provide recognition of women's role as farmers and providing them adequate training, loans and equipments. The State has formulated a programme called 'Women in Agriculture' in congruence with the policy for the economic empowerment of women, with the ultimate objective of making all potential women, economically independent and self-reliant. The programme implemented by the Department of Agriculture has a provision of 100 lakhs for providing assistance for women.¹⁰⁶

3.11. PROBLEMS FACED BY EMPLOYED WOMEN

Though employment confers a lot of benefits on women it also brings with it a bundle of problems that they have to tackle in their daily life. But women neglect these difficulties since the advantages of employment outweigh the negative effects of employment. Some of the problems faced by employed women are given below.

3.11.1. The Problem of Double Burden

The most prominent of the problems faced by working women is the 'dual responsibility' or double burden of looking after the home as well as the job outside. Though they are earning, they are fully responsible for all the duties related to home management.¹⁰⁷

3.11.2. Discrimination against women

Discrimination against women continues in employment as women get lower wages in spite of the law to enforce equal pay for equal work. Thousands of women are involved in the small scale sector or in home-based industries; but their supervisors, contractors and middlemen are all men. As a result, women are severely exploited both on wages and conditions of work.¹⁰⁸ In higher level jobs, women with the same qualifications as men are often assigned jobs requiring less qualifications than they possess. And due to their lower status jobs, they earn lesser than men of the same qualification.¹⁰⁹ Women are considered inferior in organisations where occupational culture is defined in masculine terms.¹¹⁰

3.11.3. Concept of Glass Ceiling

The under-representation or marginal status of women at senior management levels suggests the presence of an invisible barrier, which effectively precludes women from attaining executive management positions. This concept of a 'glass ceiling' is based on the view that the under representation of women at senior management levels is not a matter of choice on the part of women, but a structural barrier erected through some form of direct or indirect discrimination in the workplace. They are considered to be either 'unsuccessful' or if successful 'unfeminine' or exhibiting male behaviour pattern.¹¹¹ Even in developed countries over the past decade, women are still seriously under-represented at senior management levels in most organisations with a slight improvement in their position.¹¹²

3.11.4. Problems Faced by Women in the Unorganised Sector

National Commission for Women has identified certain problems related to employment, faced by poor women in the unorganised sector. They

are fewer and poorer opportunities to work, greater impact of unemployment, under-employment and casual nature of work, lesser mobility, heavy responsibilities, social practice of under-rating women's work, lack of access to better technologies, tools and productive assets, moving between the status of self-employed, casual labourer and unemployed, discriminated in the family itself, in terms of distribution of income, consumption and assets etc., The strain and tension of all these problems is aggravated with increased domestic violence.¹¹³ Sexual harassment is another problem faced by many women to varying extent. They experience extreme helplessness, as they risk losing their jobs.¹¹⁴

Conclusion

Unemployment level has increased from 5.99 per cent in 1993-94 to 7.32 in 1999-2000 in India. Kerala continues to be the state experiencing the maximum rate of unemployment in India, which has increased from 15.5 to 21 per cent during the same period.¹¹⁵ Female employment rate in Kerala is abysmally low. Female work seekers in Kerala out-number the males, unlike in the other states. They constitute 57% (38.56 lakhs) of the total work seekers, which means that, majority of women are willing to work. Fifty percent of them have qualifications above SSLC.¹¹⁶ Number of graduates and post-graduates are higher among women than men. But there exists a wide gap between the emerging needs of the labour market and the skills and knowledge of those young women coming out of the formal educational and training systems. Employability in new areas is a major challenge facing educated women of Kerala. The high female sex ratio, low mortality rate, higher percentage of elderly women, aggressive dowry system are all posing great problems for women. The crimes against women and suicide rates are on the increase in the state. Hence urgent steps should be taken to enhance the employability as well as opportunities of employment to women who are

willing and qualified in the state. Providing employment is an important route to empowerment of women. The term empowerment, its meaning, definition and various aspects and measures of empowerment is discussed in the next chapter.

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WOMEN AND EMPOWERMENT

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Chapter IV
Women and Empowerment

CHAPTER IV

WOMEN AND EMPOWERMENT

Introduction

The previous chapter has dealt with various aspects of employment of women in Kerala and India. In an analysis relating to employment and empowerment, it seems proper to have an in-depth analysis of the term empowerment and the various techniques available to measure the same. In this chapter, an attempt is made to discuss the elements of empowerment, evolution of women development theories, different levels of empowerment, arenas of empowerment and measures of empowerment.

4.1. ELEMENTS OF EMPOWERMENT

The term 'empowerment' began to be applied in the women's movements in the mid 1970s. The international use of the term probably began with the appearance of the book, "Development, Crisis and Alternative Vision: Third World Perspectives" (1985), prepared by Sen and Grown, for the Nairobi conference at the end of the U.N Decade of Women. Even before that the term had been in use in Management Sciences.¹

The dictionary meaning of the term 'to empower' is, 'to invest legally or formally with power, to enable or to permit.' Since the word 'empowerment' is built around the notion of 'power', let us have a detour into the variety of meanings of power.

4.1.1. Power

The dominant understanding of power has been as 'power over', where one person or group of people is able to control in some way, the actions or options of another. Other notions of power are variously described as 'power

to', 'power with' and 'power from within', all of which allow the construction of a very different meaning for empowerment. Hartsock (1985) brings out an 'energy' definition of power. This is power which does not involve the domination of 'power over', but which is generative such as 'the power some people have of stimulating activity in others and raising their morale'. Some analysts also identify 'power with', when a group tackles problems together. According to Foucault, power is not a finite entity that can be located; power is relational, and is something which exists only in its exercise. For Radtka and Stam (1994), power is the capacity to have an impact or produce an effect' so that 'power is both the source of oppression in its abuse and the source of emancipation in its use'² In Layman's parlance, power means having the capacity and the means to direct one's life towards desired social, political and economic goals. The crux of power lies in the possession of and/or access to and control over means and resources.³

4.1.2. Empowerment

Empowerment is a goal to be achieved. At the same time it is also an ongoing process which is undergone by individuals, groups and communities. Nelly Stormquist, defines empowerment as "a process to change the distribution of power both in interpersonal relations and in institutions throughout society". Lucy Lazo describes it as "a process of acquiring, providing, bestowing the resources and the means for enabling the access to and control over such means and resources." Both the definitions recognise a process of transformation in the person as well as in relationships. According to Depthnews, "it is a process in which women gain control over their own lives by knowing and claiming their rights at all levels of society at the international, local and house hold levels. Self empowerment means that women gain autonomy, are able to set their own agenda and are fully involved in the economic, political and social decision making process."⁴

Therefore, once empowerment is achieved by a person, it extends to all kinds of relationships and environments he gets involved in. From immediate relationships, it permeates to other arenas like the local, national, international as well as economic, political and social.

4.1.3. Empowerment as a Process

Though the term 'empowerment' has got a variety of definitions, the most appealing of them in the context of empowering women is the notion of empowerment as a process. It is a transformative action either self-propelling or propelled by others. It is a self-propelling process if it dawns on a woman that her life will become better if she tried to act upon such thoughts, link up with the source of resources and facilitates her own empowerment

In the first stage, Empowerment enables a person to gain insight and have an awareness of what is undesirable and unfavourable and realising what is within her reach and what she should do to get to a better situation. This characterisation of empowerment implies that the process could involve a change of perceptions about the self, the environment and the relationship of the self and the environment. It is a process that involves the generation of a "push" to act or what psychologists call "motivation". Secondly, Empowerment enables a woman to 'generate choices' and as an outcome of having such choices, she 'acquires leverage and bargaining power'. It makes the person able to choose her goals, generate opportunities to reach the goals and determine the overall direction of her life. This makes the notion of empowerment a fascinating and powerful one. In the final stage, empowerment enables a woman to gain 'relative strength' as a result of having choices and bargaining power. Ultimately, empowerment should lead to the improvement of women's socio-economic status.⁵

Women's empowerment can be viewed as a continuum of several inter-related and mutually re-inforcing components.⁶ According to Shetty, empowerment is not an end-of-project product or a state that can be attained within defined time frames. Instead, empowerment is a dynamic and on going process which can only be located on a continuum.⁷ The diagram below visualises this concept. One can move from an extreme state of absolute lack of power to the other extreme of having absolute power. The extreme ends of the continuum are of course "idealised" states.⁸

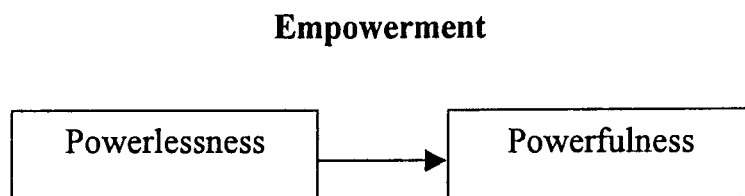


Fig. 4.1.

The power continuum

Thus, empowerment is the process as well as the result of the process—whereby the powerless or less powerful members of a society gain greater access and control over material and knowledge resources, and challenge the ideologies of discrimination and subordination, which justify its unequal distribution. Empowerment manifests as a changing balance of power in terms of resource distribution and changes in ideology or ways of thinking.⁹

4.1.4. Powerlessness

Women's state of powerlessness is borne by a 'combination and interaction of environmental and personal factors'. Women's powerlessness arises from their illiteracy, lack of awareness, lack of information and knowledge, lack of skills, overall lack of self esteem and self confidence, lack of money, lack of job opportunities and lack of connection to those who can provide jobs and lend them money to start their own small enterprises.¹⁰

Lucita identifies variables of power as well as powerlessness from a study conducted on a group of 'home workers'. The following figure depicts the variables of powerlessness in four levels-personal, household, workplace and society.

Illustrative Analysis of the Variables of Powerlessness

Personal	Environmental/Sociological Factors	Outcome
Lack of literacy Lack of skills Lack of information Lack of money Lack of awareness Lack of self-esteem Lack of self-confidence Lack of efficacy	1. Working conditions Isolation, fragmentation, unregistered Atomization, lack of organization No work contract No clear status as workers No direct contact with the employer	Invisibility Vulnerability Exploitability No social protection Dependence on middle men
	2. Household conditions Female headed Big family size High dependency ratio	
	3. Societal conditions Weak economy Labour surplus No gender ideology No public awareness Policy No protective laws for women	No job options No job options Discrimination No government Women's invisibility No social protection

Source: Rao, Digumarti Bhaskara Ed. p. 33.

4.1.5. Components of Empowerment

Four components of empowerment has been identified by Carolyn and Bettina such as cognitive, psychological, economic and political.

The cognitive component would include the "Women's understanding of their conditions of subordination and the causes of such conditions at both micro and macro levels of society". It involves understanding the self and the need to make choices that may go against cultural and social expectations and understanding patterns of behaviour that create dependence, interdependence and autonomy within the family and society at large.

The psychological component, on the other hand, would include the "development of feelings that women can act at personal and societal levels to improve their condition as well as formation of the belief that they can succeed in their change efforts." It deals with the 'learned helplessness' of women through socialisation from early childhood.

The economic component requires that women be able to engage in a productive activity that will allow them some degree of autonomy, no matter how small it be and how hard to obtain it at the beginning. It is this economic component which is going to be the focus of this study. And other components will follow it in the process of empowerment.

The political component would encompass the ability to analyse the surrounding environment in political and social terms; it also means ability to organise and mobilise for social change. Consequently an empowerment process must involve not only individual awareness but also collective awareness and collective actions. The notion of collective action is fundamental to the aim of attaining social transformation. Empowerment ultimately involves a political process to produce consciousness among policy makers about women and to create pressure to bring about societal change.¹¹

Thus empowerment occurs at various levels such as the cognitive, psychological, economic and political. It involves a change within the person

as well as in the environment. It builds up aspirations, hopes and expectations and keeps the women going.

4.2. EVOLUTION OF 'WOMEN DEVELOPMENT THEORIES - FROM WELFARE TO EMPOWERMENT'

The changes in the thinking on 'women development' have been analysed, categorised and labelled mainly by women researchers and academics. Approaches followed during the last 3 decades have been labelled as WID (Women In Development), WAD (Women And Development) and GAD (Gender and Development). These labels try to capture the trends, which were set in motion from the ground up, by millions of women and men all over the world who were dissatisfied with the treatment meted out to the majority of the world's population, by insensitive analysts, planners and policy-makers. For the majority, their concern is not more 'progress' but survival.¹²

During the decades which followed the World War II, it was believed that, modernisation would eradicate poverty and increase welfare in developing countries, primarily through economic growth.¹³ It was thought that industrialisation and modern agriculture would assure in growth and development, and the focus was on industrialists, land-owners, rich farmers, and entrepreneurs, assuming that the benefits of development would "trickle down" to the poor majorities. Little attention was paid to the poor and to women and women's contribution to the household and to the economy was neither recognised nor valued. During the United Nations' first decade, 1960-1970, it became clear that the benefits of development were not reaching the poor majority. The goals of development and the means for their achievement were re-examined during the second development decade, 1970-80. 'Gender-blind' development plans generally ignored women and they were not given access to educational and training opportunities and technology. Most

training, information and credit for agriculture, horticulture and animal husbandry have been given to male farmers in spite of the major contribution of women to these activities.¹⁴

4.2.1. Women And Development or The Welfare Approach (WAD)

The welfare approach dates from the 1950s, when development efforts first began. It is often the major approach taken by older and more traditional women's organizations. It is criticized that WAD protects and supports women's home-making and reproductive roles. These organisations provide important basic services in health and education and frequently have significant political, religious and financial support. However this approach is top-down; women are seen as 'passive recipients' rather than 'active participants' and 'decision makers'.¹⁵

4.2.2. Women in Development (WID)

The WID concept recognised women's productive role. Women were noted as the poorest and most backward income group for whom special efforts were required in all spheres of life and efforts to increase their productivity and income.¹⁶

The concept of development of women initially centred on integrating women into development and had been called the WID approach. But it was found that WID policies and programmes did not address the subordination and oppression of women, nor did they question the anti-poor biases of development thinking and programmes.¹⁷ WID includes three approaches namely, a) The equity or equality approach, b) The Anti-poverty approach and c) The efficiency and effectiveness approach.¹⁸

a. The Equity or Equality Approach

The Equity or Equality Approach dates from mid 1970s. It draws on research highlighting women's significant economic contributions and the adverse impact of conventional development strategies on women's productive capacity and overall status. The purpose is to gain equality for women in all spheres of life. Of all the approaches, this one is most identified with western feminism, although the principles of equality of opportunity and legal equality have been accepted by many governments from all regions of the world. These principles are included in the Convention on Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW)

b. The Anti-poverty Approach

The Anti-poverty Approach recognises that women "are the poorest of the poor" in the world, and focuses on their productive roles, usually through small scale income generation projects. This approach also has been criticised for its failure to link women's poverty with other aspects of subordination.

c. The Efficiency and Effectiveness Approach

It is based on a range of research findings which show that projects are more likely to be successful if they are designed to take into account the gender division of labour and social responsibilities and if women are effectively mobilised and resourced to take part in the project. Women are seen as under-utilised resource for development. In practice, this view gives far more weight to "what women can do for a project", than how development can support women.

4.2.3. Gender and Development (GAD) or Empowerment Approach

It was in the 1980s that the focus shifted from women to gender, and from welfare, basic needs and efficiency approaches to a women's

empowerment approach, which seeks to address the patriarchal system at the root of women's subordination. The concept of gender emphasised that the problem was not with the women, but with the socio-cultural definition given to women and men, which determined their rights and responsibilities, their work and spaces and so on. It is now widely recognised that women must be empowered and that the systems and ideologies which keep them subordinate, dismantled. Women must be equal partners in decision making in all institutions and at all levels, and they must be subjects, not objects, or just beneficiaries of development policies and programmes. GAD aims at empowerment of women in all spheres of life.¹⁹

The Empowerment Approach arises from a strong commitment to the women's right and capacity to make their own decisions about development strategies. There is a recognition that top down legislative changes or marginal economic improvements will not by themselves change women's status. These strategies need to be matched by popular education or consciousness raising of women and men, strong local level organisation and political mobilisation. The assumption that women or men want to be 'integrated' into current development strategies is soundly rejected.²⁰

To conclude, this empowerment approach as explained above and as envisioned by the theorists calls for the constant presence of an agency, all over the world, to conduct the empowerment programme for women. And the quest for equality will have only a weak base if women are not employed and have to depend solely on the husbands' income for her survival. And after a small stir in the atmosphere, the same old gender relations will prevail, if empowerment is sought for without economic independence. So a better strategy will be first to equip women with education and employment. Along with that they can be made gender-aware and empowered.

4.3. DIFFERENT LEVELS OF EMPOWERMENT

Empowerment is a multifaceted phenomenon. From the discussions held so far regarding empowerment and various ways of its manifestation, four levels of empowerment can be identified; 1.empowerment within the person or personal empowerment, 2.empowerment in family or close relationships, 3.empowerment in organisation or institution and 4.empowerment in the society.

All these levels are interconnected and empowerment in one level may contribute in varying degrees to the empowerment in others. But the relationship need not be linear; that is, a certain degree of empowerment in one level need not induce the same degree of empowerment in another. The relationship may be spiral in the sense, a person when empowered within herself, may most probably manifest a greater degree of empowerment in the organisational level. After a certain period, that may further enhance the empowerment in her personal life. This will go on and on.²¹

4.3.1. Empowerment within the Person

According to Shetty (1992), 'an empowered individual would be one, who experiences a sense of self confidence and self worth; a person who critically analyses his/her social and political environment; a person who is able to exercise control over decisions that affect his or her life.'²²

Women's greatest resources are themselves-their personal capacities including their self-image. To be empowered, women must learn to respect themselves as capable. It includes improvement of their self-image and their self-appraisals. The empowerment process includes building up the women's arsenal of resources-physical, economic, social and psychological. The age-old strategy of minimising or reducing weaknesses and enhancing strengths

remains as valid as ever. It means giving the capacity, to give themselves power, even if only psychologically.

Empowerment of women on the input side has two factors. One is 'personal capacity building', which includes organising, education and training. The second one is 'facilitating access to social services and resources' which includes availing of resources and services, product consultancy and marketing, assistance, credit schemes, revolving funds etc., On the output side, there is 'socio-economic up-gradation of women's status', which involves changes in the women's skills, incomes and conditions of work. She gives the empowerment equation as given in the diagram.²³

$\text{Empowerment} = \text{Personal Capacity (self-esteem, technical skills, management skills)} * \text{Physical Powerfulness (capital, facilities)}$

Fig. 4.2

The Empowerment Equation

4.3.2. Empowerment in Organisation

Nancy Foy identifies the arsenals of empowerment in organisation as performance, teamwork, leadership and communication. According to her, "Every meaningful model for change includes the basic elements of empowerment; 1.performance 2.teams 3.leadership 4.communication."²⁴

She recognises the role of self expression, participation in planning and decision making which improves the performance. "Empowerment is simply gaining the power to make your voice heard, to contribute to plans and decisions that affect you, to use your expertise at the work to improve your performance and with it, the performance of your whole organisation."

Here the concern is placed on an empowerment, which springs up from an organisational set up. Empowerment which originates from a collectivity has been recognised by many authors. This is made possible either through involvement in a group activity or with the help of an outside agency like N.G.O. Empowerment is achieved by the members through mutual interaction in the group or in a work environment.

4.3.3. Empowerment in Family

In patriarchal societies, the subordinate status of women signifies a lack of empowerment-in the sense that they are unable to take part in the decision-making processes on an equal footing with men, either within the household or in the society at large. This lack of empowerment is manifested, in the relative weakness of their bargaining power in situations characterised by 'co-operative conflict', ie., situations in which it is in the interest of both men and women to co-operate, but in which a conflict of interest is also involved. Most intra-household decisions, including those relating to the allocation of household resources, involve such cooperative conflicts. In situations like these, the party with superior bargaining power can influence the outcome of the cooperative effort in their own favour. The inferior bargaining power of women, entailed by their lack of empowerment, thus biases the allocation of scarce household resources. In general, relative bargaining power, and hence the allocation of resources within a household will depend on three characteristics of the bargaining parties; a) their status quo or breakdown position, b) perceived interests and c) perceived contribution to household resources.

a. Breakdown Position

The breakdown position represents the position of the party in the event of breakdown of co-operation. It plays a critical role in determining the

strength or vulnerability of a person in the bargaining process. Given other things, if the breakdown position of a person is worse, then the outcome of the bargaining process will be less favourable for that person. Women's breakdown position is worse because of their gender specific problems, like the demand of pregnancy, childcare etc., There are some socially generated asymmetries between men and women, in ownership of assets, acquisition of education and training and in access to certain kinds of economic activities.

b. Perceived Interest (Interest in one's Personal Welfare)

The perception of self worth of members within the household is an important component in determining their bargaining power. A person whose perceived interests of his or her own well being may receive a worse deal in the bargaining outcome. Many women do not even realise their deprivation due to socialisation within this culture since childhood. In intra-household bargaining, therefore, women fare worse than men by being too much willing to sacrifice their own interests.

c. Perceived Contribution

Given other things, bargaining power is greater for the person who is perceived to be making a larger contribution to the overall wealth of the family. Perceived contribution is different from actual contribution. Though women usually work harder and longer hours, they are not perceived to be making much contribution since their work does not normally make a direct financial contribution to the family as does men's. Since co-operative outcome goes in favour of those whose perceived contribution is greater and women fare worse in the bargaining process.²⁵

Thus anything that can improve the breakdown position of women, or enhance their perception of self interest, or increase their perceived

contribution to the household, will strengthen their bargaining power and will thus enable them to improve their position within the household.

There are three dimensions of gender power relations according to Mandakini Pant, such as, inter-personal decision making capacity, division of labour among members of the household and socially structured and culturally patterned behaviour and practices within the household. According to Amartya Sen, women are less likely to secure favorable outcomes for themselves in household decision making processes. They feel that their long term security lies in subordinating their well being to that of male authority figures.²⁶ In Longwe's framework of empowerment, the balance of power between men and women are equal and neither party has dominance over the other.²⁷

4.3.4. Empowerment in Society

The position of an individual in society is not only determined by his or her contribution to the economic process but also by his or her control over business. Control over resources influences the bargaining power of an individual in the decision making process.²⁸ When norms of any given society support men's right to power, such power becomes legitimised and is transformed into authority. Hence the existing power structures remain undisturbed even when women earn and exercise considerable power in decision making within the household.²⁹

There are different modes of reaching out to the society. Organisations like Women's and Mother's clubs make possible the creation of free and socially accepted space for women. Although many of their activities do not seek transformational objectives, the clubs can provide fertile ground for empowering processes. Social and political participation will enhance the empowerment of women.³⁰

4.4. ARENAS OF EMPOWERMENT

Empowerment of women is a holistic concept. It is multidimensional in approach and involves a basic realisation and awareness of one's powers and potentials, capacities and competencies and of one's rights and opportunities for development in important spheres of life. Such dimensions of development or empowerment may broadly be categorised as legal, political, economic and social. Of all these facets of women's development their economic independence or economic empowerment occupies an area of utmost significance for a lasting and sustainable development of society.³¹

4.4.1. Economic Empowerment

Women's lack of empowerment in various societies emanates, to a large extent, from their relatively low participation in 'gainful' activities. It is generally believed that their increased participation in the economic sphere will lead to or at least facilitate their empowerment (Boserup, 1970).³² A woman's ability to secure items and services herself is an important measure of her empowerment.³³ Her over-dependence on others is often abused and exploited by those very persons on whom they are dependent.³⁴ If women could find enough opportunities to work and be economically free, then their dependence on men for their livelihood would diminish. Only then they would be in a position to participate in decision making process with regard to their marriage, raising and distribution of income, investments and expenditure at all levels both in and outside their households as equal partners in the society.³⁵

Even though outside work for women often means a double burden, the empirical evidence supports the notion that access to work increases a woman's economic independence and with it a greater level of general independence is created. As Hall (1992) notes, economic subordination must

be neutralised for women to be empowered. The economic component of empowerment requires that women be able to engage in a productive activity that will allow them some degree of financial autonomy, no matter how small and hard to obtain at the beginning.³⁶ Household wealth is not an important determinant of a woman's decision-making authority. In fact, women from poorer homes have greater mobility, almost certainly necessitated by their circumstances. It is not poverty, but work outside their homes that assures women a greater share of decision-making and authority within it.³⁷

Earning more income and accessing more resources for survival were among the primary concerns of women groups who believed that, "without building their economic strength, women can do nothing". One may doubt whether women working in poor conditions will be empowered. It is seen that whatever be the job, it contributes to some extent to their empowerment. Though many poor women work outside the home to support their families and the tasks they perform are exhausting and meagerly rewarded, access to income improves their authority in the home. Working women, regardless of how inferior their position and small their income, have a greater sense of control over resources within the family than non-working women.³⁸

Self-reliance is undoubtedly a necessary condition for emancipation. Yet, it is by no means the only one, and certainly not a sufficient condition. Women should be empowered socially and politically. But many think that, in the present circumstances, empowerment of women is possible more effectively through economic empowerment rather than through reservation of some seats in parliament or state legislature.³⁹ If women make adequate economic contributions to the family, they are bound to be treated at par with men.⁴⁰ Employment is considered to be more empowering than education.⁴¹

4.4.2. Legal Empowerment

Women all over the world are facing a lot of discrimination in every walk of life. Atrocities committed against women are increasing day by day. One of the reasons is that, women are considered the 'weaker sex' both by themselves and by the offenders. Hence law alone can protect women amidst the numerous hostilities faced by them.

a. Women in Indian Constitution

With the grant of constitutional gender-equality in free India, legal support for women came through a series of legislations. While dealing with gender issues, it is important to mention that the Constitution of India has guaranteed equality before law and equal protection of law (Article 14) and prohibits discrimination on the ground of sex alone and it has empowered the State to make special provisions for women and children (Article 15). It has made provisions to prohibit traffic in human beings and to provide for just and humane conditions of work along with maternity relief (Articles 23 and 42). It is a constitutional duty of every citizen to renounce practices derogatory to the dignity of women (Article 51A). In this respect, India's Constitution has a place of distinction among the comity of nations. The Indian constitution made a deliberate radical departure from the age-old poor social status of women by granting them equal, social and political status.⁴²

b. Women-specific Provisions in the Criminal Law

The Indian Penal Code (IPC) provides for equal protection to men and women with regard to their personal security, individual freedom, property and dignity. However, after giving due consideration to certain specific physical nature (disadvantages) of women, some special protections are incorporated into the criminal law. Sections 312 to 316 speak about causing a woman with child to miscarry. Section 354 is regarding outraging modesty.

Section 366-A and B are about the offence of procuring and the importing of a girl from a foreign country. Sections 375 and 376 deal with sexual offences. Gender-sensitive considerations that a woman victim of rape is entitled to have a different kind of treatment is recognized in the Criminal Law (Amendment) Act 1983. Sections 493 to 498 are provisions relating to matrimonial offences, including domestic violence. Section 506 provides for criminal intimidation. Section 509 is against eave teasing.

c. Personal Laws

The personal laws specify laws for women belonging to various religions. For the Hindus, the important laws are the Hindu Marriage Act, 1955 and the Hindu Succession Act 1956. These laws are also applicable to the Sikhs, Buddhists and Jains. The Acts for Christians includes Indian Christian Marriage Act 1872 and Indian Succession Act. But, recently a new act for Christians was made by repealing the existing Indian Divorce Act 1869, The Indian Christian Marriage Act 1872, The Indian and Colonial Divorce Jurisdiction Act 1926 and 1940 and Cochin Christian Marriage Act 1945. The laws concerning Muslims are the Hanafi Muslim Law, Dissolution of Muslim Marriage Act 1939 and Muslim Women's Protection of Rights Act 1986.

Other laws for the protection of women are The Married women's property Act 1874, Child Marriage Restraint Act 1929, Immoral Traffic (Prevention) Act 1956, Maternity Benefits Act 1961, Dowry Prohibition Act 1961, Medical Termination of Pregnancy Act 1971, The Kerala Joint Hindu Family System (Abolition) Act 1975, The commission of Sati Prevention Act 1987, Indecent Representation of Women (Prohibition) Act 1986, Social security and employment welfare laws, National Commission of Women Act 1990, Pre-Natal Diagnostic Technique (Regulation of Prevention and

Misuse) Act 1994 and Pre-conception and pre-natal Diagnostic Techniques (Prohibition of sex selection) Act 2002.

The Building and Construction workers (Regulation of Employment and condition of service) Act 1996, The Mines Act 1952, The Interstate Migrant Workmen (Regulation of Employment and condition of Service) Act 1979, The Plantation Labour Act 1951, The Contract Labour (Regulation and Abolition) Act 1970 , The Employees State Insurances (General) Regulation, 1950 etc., have protective provisions for women. Apart from these Acts, Acts like Mica Mines labour Welfare Fund Act 1946, Beedi Workers Welfare Fund Act 1976, Iron Ore Mines and Chrome ore Mines Labour welfare Fund Act 1976, Limestone and Dolomite Mines Labour Welfare Fund Act 1972, etc., make the appointment of a woman member in Advisory Committee and Central Advisory Committee mandatory.

Equal Remuneration Act 1976 provides for equal pay for men and women doing the same or similar work. It prohibits discrimination on the basis of sex at the time of recruitment and while in employment. No discrimination is permissible in service conditions except where employment of women is prohibited or restricted by or under any law. The act also prohibits discrimination against women in matters of employment, promotions, training, transfer, etc.,⁴³

The Family Court's Act 1984 came into force in Kerala state on October 21, 1989. Family courts were established for the areas of the Revenue districts of Trivandrum, Kollam, Ernakulam, Thrissur, Kozhikode, Kannur, Manjeri and Pathanamthitta. Family courts were established with a view to promote conciliation and to secure speedy settlement of disputes relating to marriage and family affairs. It is essentially a socially beneficent legislation.⁴⁴ The draft, protection from Domestic Violence Bill 2001 empowers the state governments to appoint a number of 'protection officers'

(PO) whose task is to help a woman victim of domestic violence in making application to the magistrate and in availing her other legal rights.⁴⁵

The Convention of the Elimination of All forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) was ratified by the Government of India on 25th June 1993.⁴⁶ This convention, described as the “International bill of rights of women” provides for women’s civil rights and their legal equality in all fields.

National Policy for Empowerment of Women aims at mainstreaming a gender perspective into all laws, regulations, plans, policies, programmes and budgetary allocations. National Resource Centre for Women is acting as the apex body for promoting and incorporating gender perspectives in politics and programmes of Government.

4.4.3. Political Empowerment

In almost all the countries of the world, women's advances in political representation have been lagging behind gains in other areas such as education and employment.⁴⁷ Political empowerment of women is possible only by increasing the political participation of women. In many countries including India, women had to fight even for gaining the right to vote. New Zealand was the first country to grant women the right to vote in 1893. In the twentieth century, only 24 women were elected as heads of state or government. Women hold only 10.5 per cent of the seats in the world’s parliaments. As a result of the increased awareness of the political rights of women, the percentage of female cabinet ministers worldwide has doubled from 3.4 in 1987 to 6.8 per cent in 1996. Sweden formed the world’s first cabinet to have equal numbers of men and women in 1995. The situation is not better even in the U.N., which advocates gender equality. Of the 185 highest- ranking diplomats to the United Nations, only seven are women.

The above mentioned figures bring to light the low level of political participation of women world-wide. A study on women in public life, carried out by the United Nations Division for the Advancement of women (UNDAW), argues that only a critical mass of women (33.3%) allow female politicians to bring different values to public life. The 73rd and 74th amendments in the Constitution of India passed on April 24, 1994 are laudable steps towards achieving this 'critical mass' in India. However there is need to extend this affirmative action from panchayat level to the state and national level. Unfortunately, the implementation of the National Policy for women for one-third reservation of seats for women in the State Assemblies and Parliament, which is an outcome of the UN World Conference for Women 1995, in Beijing, is dragging on endlessly.⁴⁸

The 'apolitical' image of women was challenged in the 1970s and 1980s by many feminist political scholars whose research found that women were as likely as men, to participate in political activities. Jean Kirkpatrick, for example, stated that the most important finding of her study of 50 American women state legislators serving in the early 1970s was that political women existed who were very similar to male politicians in social backgrounds and in psychological characteristics. Only a few women have achieved political positions of any significance. Women are severely excluded from the nation's policymaking process despite the fact that they constitute half the electorate. It is also frequently found that women assume fewer leadership roles in party organization.

Women assume primary family responsibilities, and the role of homemaker is believed to inhibit political participation. Lack of education and political awareness partly account for deprivation of women. Many people contend that participation of women in politics should be encouraged to cope with the ever-increasing menace of corruption. An expansion of the

Political Reservation system and the introduction of a quota system would provide more political opportunities for women.⁴⁹ The development of a nation could be fully realized only if women are involved adequately and meaningfully in the development process.⁵⁰

Women's Bill and Political Empowerment

The parliamentary bill for 33 per cent reservation of seats for women in Lok Sabha and State Assemblies has been pending as the 81st Amendment. It has been shelved repeatedly in spite of political promises made to the electorates. The champions of the feminist movement see the provision for providing reservation as a unifying instrument for women, which would enable them to join the political mainstream and usher in an egalitarian society. It has always been the contention that equality in all spheres is inseparable from active political participation and is integral to the process of women. Without active and continuous participation of women at all levels of the government, including local party structures, equality in true sense will continue to remain deceptive.⁵¹

In a polity where there has historically been a fierce contest for national power, with strong, ideological parties, class-based constituencies, and an early extension of universal male suffrage, women were viewed as trespassers in a masculine realm.⁵² Even though 86% of women in Kerala are literate, their number in the state assembly is less than in Madhya Pradesh assembly which has very low female literacy.⁵³

The 72nd and 73rd Constitutional Amendments on Panchayati Raj and Nagarpalika with 33 per cent reservation for women has created political space for women. But it is criticized that they exercise "proxy" power on behalf of men. In reality women have never been able to get more than ten per cent seats in Parliament or other bodies of decision-making. It is hoped

that the Constitutional Amendment for political reservation of women, when passed will go a long way to provide active involvement and participation of women in political bodies. ⁵⁴

India has heralded the new millennium by pronouncing the year 2001 as women's empowerment year. In terms of political empowerment, nearly seven lakh women occupy positions as members and chairpersons of grassroots democratic institutions in India following reservation of one-third seats at village and municipal level for women. Political emancipation and social empowerment will act as the main catalyst in achieving the empowerment of women to a large extent.

4.5. AGENCIES AND FACTORS FACILITATING EMPOWERMENT OF WOMEN

4.5.1. U.N. And Empowerment Of Women

Equality of rights for women is a basic principle of the U.N. The preamble of the chapter of the U.N. set as a basic goal, "to reaffirm faith in fundamental human rights, in the dignity and worth of the human person, in the equal rights of men and women." Furthermore article 1 of the chapter proclaims that one of the purposes of the U.N. is to achieve international co-operation in promoting and encouraging respect for human rights and fundamental freedom for all people without distinction as to race, sex, language or religion⁵⁵.

Few causes promoted by the United Nations have generated more intense and wide spread support than the campaign to promote and protect the equal rights of women. The charter of the United Nations was the first international agreement to proclaim gender equality as a fundamental human right. Over the years the Organization has helped to create a historic legacy of internationally agreed strategies, standards, programmes and goals to advance

the status of women worldwide. While progress has been achieved, much work remains to be done.⁵⁶

4.5.2. Role Of N.G.O.S

The importance of N.G.O.s in catering to the needs of the disadvantaged sections in society is increasing day by day. A new culture of governance is emerging where developmental activities are channelled through N.G.O.s with a view to effective implementation of the programme as well as minimising the corruption. Now a days, N.G.O.s are invited by the government to participate in the annual budget and the five year plan consultations.

There are hundreds of N.G.O.s functioning in the developing and underdeveloped countries with different goals. Majority of them work at the grass-root level for poverty eradication and their main target is poor women and children in the underdeveloped rural pockets. Many foreign based N.G.O.s have funds, plans and policies for empowering women. They conduct surveys, study classes, form women groups to provide education, employment and empowerment for poor women. They identify the local problems and channelise funds from government and outside agencies in the right direction towards solving the identified problems.

Some N.G.O.s are co-opted or instrumentalised to implement government policies and programmes. Government agencies and donor organisations delegate responsibility to N.G.O.s in order to implement the scheme more effectively at low costs. For example, Rashtriya Mahila Kosh (RMK) offers credit to women through N.G.O.s. In the first two and a half years of its existence, an amount of Rs.6.4 million was lent to 1,47,000 women members through 136 N.G.O.s. The rate of repayment was found to

be very encouraging i.e., 96% compared to 46% for other public credit systems.⁵⁷

4.5.3. Government And Empowerment

The Govt. of India has taken numerous measures and is making honest endeavours to hoist the status of women and establish gender equality. The constitutional obligations as well as different plans, programmes and policies have laid emphasis on women empowerment.⁵⁸ During the post-independent era, women have been recognised as a separate target group and the government has directed its efforts towards mainstreaming of women into the national developmental process. This period has witnessed far-reaching changes in almost all spheres—political, economic and social. In terms of constitutional, legal and administrative measures, many commendable initiatives have been taken. Prominent among them are the Constitutional provisions for gender equality and justice, enactment of new laws and amendment of existing laws to protect and promote the interests of women, setting up of women-specific administrative and economic structures, such as Women and Child Development Department at the Union and State Government levels, formation of National Commission for women in several states, State Women Development Corporations, orienting plan strategy to include women specific and women related programmes, launching of special schemes like Rashtriya Mahila Kosh and Mahila Samridhi Yojana, Indira Mahila Yojana, etc.⁵⁹

India had made certain commitments at the Fourth World Conference of Women in Beijing in 1995. These were: (1) Formulation of national policy on women; (2) Increased investment of six per cent of GDP on education by 2000 AD; (3) Universalisation of mother and child care programme through the Integrated Child Development Services Schemes (ICDS); and (4) Setting up a commission for women's right. As a follow up to this commitment, a

National Policy for Empowerment of Women had been drafted. The proposed National Policy will continuously guide and inform action and policy in every sector, by incorporating a gender perspective into all plans, policies, programmes, budgetary allocations, appraisals, monitoring and evaluation exercises. The year 2001 was marked as the Year of the Women, and specific budget allocation had been made for their development. The process of increasing women's representation at decision-making levels is proceeding with a fair amount of commitment, but much more yet remains to be done.⁶⁰

While terms like 'empowerment' may be of recent coinage, issues of women, their status and role in society have all been of concern to the state, both in recent as well as historical times. The study on the status of women which culminated in the landmark report 'Towards Equality; (India, 1974); legislative provisions to protect the rights of women; laws on dowry, rape, domestic violence; setting up of protection cells; reservations in Panchayat bodies; reservations in the allocation of funds for women in development projects etc., are aimed at empowerment of women.⁶¹

The Eighth Five Year Plan aimed at enabling women to function as equal partners and participants in development by extending the services to women both qualitatively and quantitatively. The Ninth Five Year Plan aimed at empowering women through formulation of National Commission for Women (NCW). Formulation of the National Policy for Empowerment of women and setting up a National Resource Centre for Women are other steps taken by the Department of women and child development. The Union Government had declared the year 2001 as Women's Empowerment Year. Women's empowerment policy unveiled plans about a multi-faceted approach to removing various imbalances in the socio-economic environment which works against women.⁶²

Contrary to these steps, a Parliamentary Committee report depicts that budget estimates for various schemes meant for women welfare has been continuously on the decline and the actual expenditure still lower. Notwithstanding numerous welfare measures, the status of women has not been adequately hoisted and the women empowerment status varies from region to region, state to state and even between rural and urban areas. Moreover, it also varies from one community to another. ⁶³

4.5.4. Education And Empowerment

Education is an important factor leading to empowerment of women. But education in itself will not provide empowerment. It is the first step to empowerment by opening a person to a new world of information and awareness of present state of affairs. Empowerment will occur only if education is used creatively by active participation in the economy and society. Thus education is a means and not an end in itself. Though literacy and education can become a vehicle for empowerment, it cannot be considered a necessary pre-condition for empowerment. ⁶⁴ On the contrary, lack of literacy and education blocks the way to empowerment before a woman, to a great extent.

4.5.5. Migration And Empowerment

Migration may empower women in two ways; one is when the woman herself is employed and the second where husband or son is employed. In the first case, the high earnings of a migrated woman put her in a comparatively better position than anyone back in her village. In the second case, the management of funds sent by a migrated husband or son may also empower her since she is solely in charge of the property and the household affairs. ⁶⁵ Though she may have to face problems like loneliness, anxiety and increased

responsibility, her autonomy increases as she takes important decisions for the family.⁶⁶

4.5.6. Factors Facilitating and Constraining Empowerment

Empowerment does not take place in a vacuum. Women's state of powerlessness is a result of a combination and interaction of environmental factors, according to Lazo. Certain factors that can foster or hinder empowerment are listed below.

Facilitating Factors

- women's organisations
- availability of support systems for women
- availability of women-specific data and other relevant information
- availability of funds
- feminist leadership
- networking
- favourable media coverage
- favourable policy climate.

Constraining Factors

- heavy work load of women
- isolation of women from each other
- illiteracy
- traditional views that limit women's participation
- Lack of funds
- internal strife/militarization/wars
- disagreements/conflicts among women's groups
- structural adjustment policies
- discriminatory policy environment
- negative sensational coverage of media.⁶⁷

Whatever be the route to empowerment, empowerment within the person is the 'core' of the whole empowerment process. This may occur through organizational empowerment and may lead to empowerment in close relationships such as the family and society.

4.5.7. Benefits of Women Empowerment

The UNDP administrator James Gustav Speth states: "investing in women's capabilities and empowering them to exercise their choices is not only valuable in itself, but also the surest way to contribute to the economic growth and overall development". Increasing the income in the hands of poor women through the expansion of employment opportunities is also associated with reduced child mortality, improved child health and nutrition.⁶⁸ Surveys indicate that where the labour market activity and income of adult women are greater than that of adult men, the survival rate of girls relative to boys is higher. Many countries are experiencing deficiency of skilled labour. If women are properly educated and professionally oriented, they can provide to the human capital of the country by economic participation. The Kerala model development, with indices at par with developed economies, has become the subject of study world wide, in this context.⁶⁹

4.6. MEASURES OF EMPOWERMENT

As a result of the realization that GDP alone is not sufficient to ensure the development and welfare of the people of a country, the United Nations came up with new measures of assessing human development. It has become aware of the poor, and especially the women in almost all developing and underdeveloped countries. It has also been noticed that gender inequality still persists in the developed countries as well. Hence U.N. has formulated new measures to assess the development of the nations with a new vision. "Human development is the end; economic growth a means. So the purpose of growth

should be to enrich people's lives". Human Development Report 1996 came out with the new measures of development such as Human Development Index (HDI), Gender-related Development Index (GDI), Gender Inequality (GI) and Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM).

4.6.1. International Measures of Empowerment

The Human Development Reports 1995 and 1996 published by UN introduced new measures of human development, of which three are discussed here in detail, since they have direct bearing on empowerment of women. They are HDI, GDI and GEM.

4.6.1.1. Gender-sensitised HDI

The 1995 Human Development Report, prepared on the eve of the 1995 Beijing Conference on Women, broke new grounds in comparing human development performance of countries from a gender perspective. It raised questions such as, how do women fare in the socio economic development of a country? Do women have the same access to build their capabilities and to enjoy opportunities as men? The Report documented the contrast between women's capabilities, which was expanding fast, and opportunities, that remained very limited. Two new indices were constructed by the Human Development Report along with Human Development Index (HDI). They are Gender-related Development Index (GDI) and Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM). The GDI measures the unequal achievements of men and women in life expectancy, education and income - the components of HDI. Thus, the greater the gender disparity in a country, the lower would be its GDI value as compared to its HDI. Theoretically speaking, if there is no gender discrimination in a country, its GDI value would be equal to its HDI value. The GEM on the other hand, reflects the opportunities available to women rather than their capabilities. It captures gender inequalities in the economic and political life of a country.

Thus, together, these three indices present a more comprehensive profile of the state of human development in a country. While a country may appear to have achieved a high level of human development, women in that country may still face discrimination in building their capabilities and in gaining access to economic and political opportunities. However, it needs to be pointed out that indices like GDI and GEM cannot be taken as complete measures of gender equality or women's empowerment. Many facets of equity and empowerment such as security, mobility, etc. are not adequately represented by the proxy measures used in these indices.⁷⁰

4.6.1.2. Calculating The Human Development Indices

1. The Human Development Index (HDI)

The HDI is a summary measure of human development. It measures the average achievements in a country in three basic dimensions of human development.

- A long and healthy life, as measured by life expectancy at birth.
- Knowledge, as measured by the adult literacy rate (with two-thirds weight) and the combined primary, secondary and tertiary gross enrolment ratio (with one third weight).
- A decent standard of living, as measured by GDP per capita .

Before the HDI itself is calculated, an index needs to be created for each of these dimensions. To calculate these 'dimension indices' the life expectancy, education and GDP indices-minimum and maximum values (goal posts) are chosen for each underlying indicator.

Performance in each dimension is expressed as a value between 0 and 1 by applying the following general formula:

$$\text{Dimension index} = \frac{\text{Actual value} - \text{Minimum value}}{\text{Maximum value} - \text{Minimum value}}$$

The HDI is then calculated as a simple average of the dimension indices.⁷¹

2. The Gender-related Development Index (GDI)

While the HDI measures average achievement, the GDI adjusts the average achievement reflecting the *inequalities* between men and women in the same dimensions. The standard of living is measured by estimated earned income.

GDI

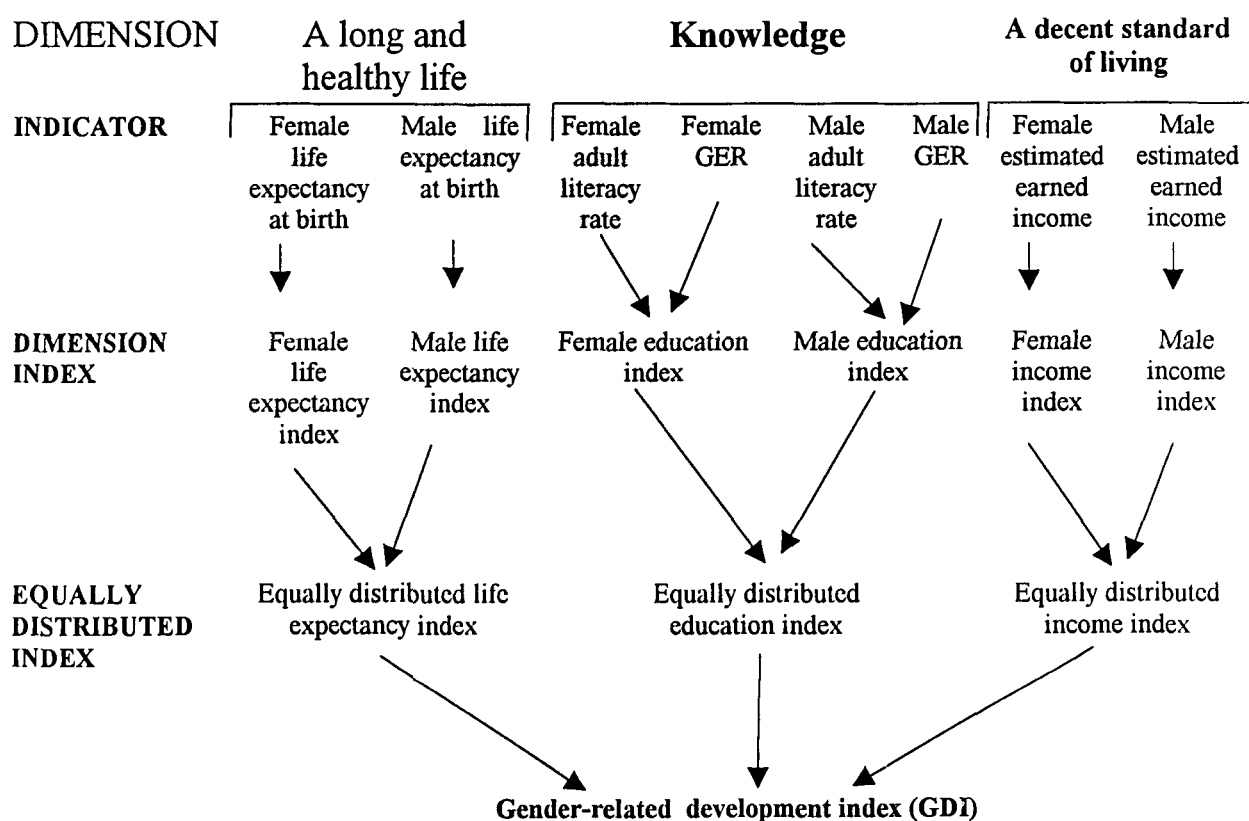


Fig. 4.3

The calculation of the GDI involves three steps. First, female and male indices in each dimension are calculated according to the general formula given above. Second, the female and male indices in each dimension are combined in a way that penalises difference in achievement between men and women. The resulting index, referred to as the equally distributed index, is calculated according to this general formula:

Equally distributed index = $\{[\text{female population share (female index}^{1-\varepsilon})] + [\text{male population share (male index}^{1-\varepsilon})]\}^{1/1-\varepsilon}$ where, ε measures the aversion to inequality. In the GDI, $\varepsilon = 2$. Thus the general equation becomes:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Equally distributed index} &= \\ &= \{[\text{female population share (female index}^{-1})] \\ &\quad + [\text{male population share (male index}^{-1})]\}^{-1} \end{aligned}$$

which gives the harmonic mean of the female and male indices.

Third, the GDI is calculated by combining the three equally distributed indices in an unweighted average.

Table 4.1
Goalposts for calculating the GDI

Indicator	Maximum Value	Minimum Value
Female life expectancy at birth (years)	87.5	27.5
Male life expectancy at birth (years)	82.5	22.5
Adult literacy rate (%)	100	0
Combined gross environment ratio(%)	100	0
Estimated earned income (US\$)	40,000	100

Note: The maximum and minimum values (goalposts) for life expectancy are five years higher for women to take into account their longer life expectancy.

3. The gender empowerment measure (GEM)

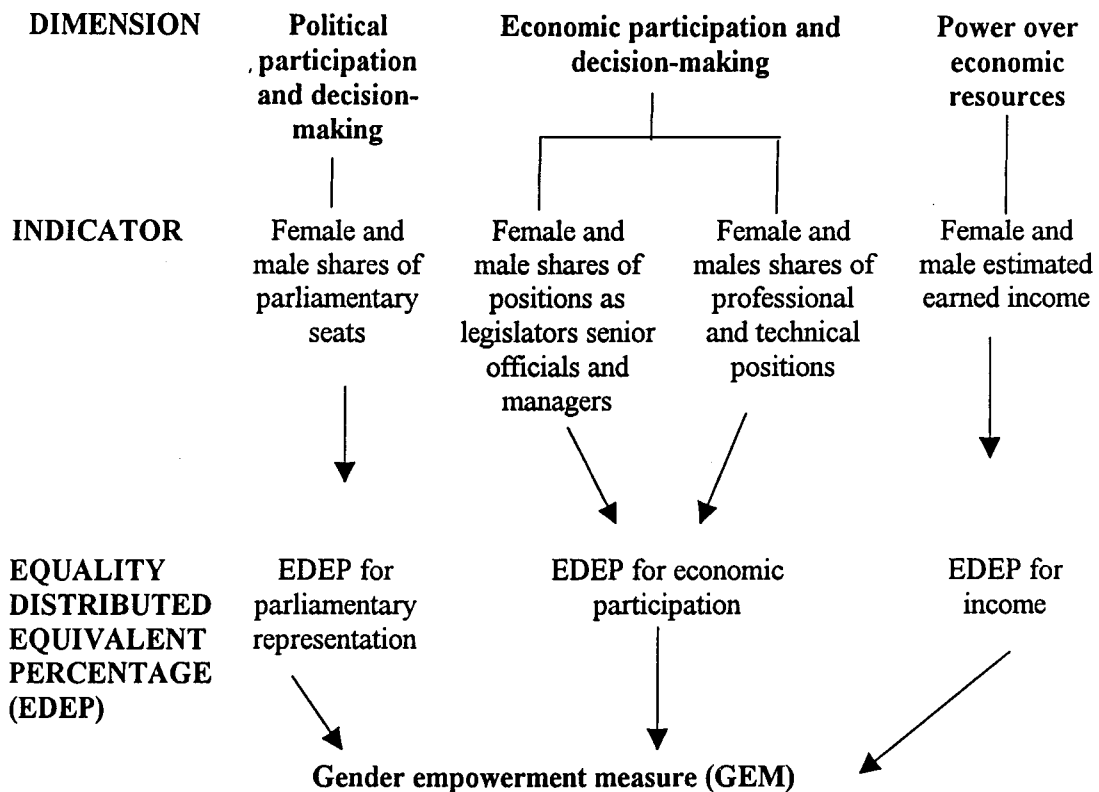


Fig. 4.4

Focusing on women's opportunities rather than their capabilities, the GEM captures gender inequality in three key areas:

- Political participation and decision-making power, as measured by women's and men's percentage shares of parliamentary seats.
- Economic participation and decision-making power, as measured by two indicators - women's and men's percentage shares of positions as legislators, senior officials and managers and women's and men's percentage shares of professional and technical positions.
- Power over economic resources, as measured by women's and men's estimated earned income.

For each of these three dimensions, an equally distributed equivalent percentage (EDEP) is calculated, as a population weighted average, according to the following general formula.

$$\text{EDEP} = \{[\text{female population share (female index}^{1-\varepsilon})] + (\text{male population share (male index}^{1-\varepsilon})]\}^{1/1-\varepsilon}$$

ε measures the aversion to inequality. In the GEM (as in the GDI $\varepsilon = 2$, which places a moderate penalty on inequality.) The formula is thus:

$$\text{EDEP} = \{[\text{female population share (female index}^{-1})] + (\text{male population share (male index}^{-1})]\}^{-1}$$

For political and economic participation and decision-making, the EDEP is then indexed by dividing it by 50. The rationale for this indexation: in an ideal society, with equal empowerment of the sexes, the GEM variables would equal 50%-that is, women's share would equal men's share for each variable. Finally, the GEM is calculated as a simple average of the three indexed EDEPs.

Table 4.4 gives the HDI, GDI and GEM of selected countries of the world. Altogether, 175 countries are grouped in to three as High, Medium, and Low Human development countries, in the order of HDI rank. It is interesting to note that the first four countries, Norway, Iceland, Sweden and Australia have the same top ranks in HDI and GDI. In the case of GEM also the first three countries top the list, but Iceland has the first rank and Norway, the second. But Australia has gone back to the 11th position in case of GEM. Japan with an HDI rank of 9 has only 44th rank in GEM. Mexico ranking 55 with an HDI of 0.800 is the last one among the High Human Development Countries. An important point to note at this juncture is that, all the top ranking countries have adopted consciously, women empowerment measures as a national policy.

Table 4.2

HDI and GDI of selected Countries – An International Comparison

HDI Rank	Country	HDI Value	GDI Rank	GDI Value	GEM Rank Value	
High Human DevelopmentCountries						
1	Norway	0.944	1	0.941	2	0.837
2	Iceland	0.942	2	0.940	1	0.847
3	Sweden	0.941	3	0.940	3	0.831
4	Australia	0.939	4	0.938	11	0.754
7	United States	0.937	5	0.935	10	0.760
8	Canada	0.937	6	0.934	9	0.771
9	Japan	0.932	13	0.926	44	0.515
13	U.K	0.930	11	0.928	17	0.675
18	Germany	0.921	15	0.924	8	0.776
55	Mexico	0.800	52	0.790	42	0.516
Medium Human Development Countries						
63	Russia	0.779	56	0.774	57	0.440
86	Maldives*	0.751	66	0.748	5	0.539
99	Sri Lanka*	0.730	80	0.726	67	0.272
104	China	0.721	83	0.718	67	0.272
127	India	0.590	103	0.574	31	0.564
136	Bhutan	0.511	109	0.518	64	0.347
139	Bangladesh*	0.502	112	0.495	69	0.218
141	Togo	0.501	118	0.483	69	0.218
Low Human Development Countries						
143	Nepal*	0.499	119	0.479	69	0.218
144	Pakistan*	0.499	120	0.469	58	0.414
169	Ethiopia	0.359	139	0.347	70	0.127
175	Sierra Leone	0.275	144	0.279	70	0.127

Source : Human Development Report, 2003.

Among South Asian Countries Maldives, Sri Lanka , India, Bhutan and Bangladesh have medium Human Development . Nepal and Pakistan fall under the Low Human Development group with HDI rank of 143 and 144.

Maldives has the highest rank of 86 and it has got still better ranks for GDI (66) and GEM (35), showing the superior position enjoyed by women. India has an HDI rank of 127 (value 0.590), GDI of 103 (value 0.574) and GEM of 31 (0.564). The 'once super power', Russia has only 63rd rank in HDI, 56 for GDI and 57 for GEM. Togo with an HDI of 0.501 and 141st rank is the last one among the medium development countries. The last HDI rank of 175 is for Sierra Leone with an HDI of 0.275, GDI of 0.279 and GEM of 0.127.

The measures of empowerment of a country cannot be used for measuring the empowerment of a person or a group of women. Attempts have been made by some N.G.O.s and writers on women issues, to assess the impact of empowering programmes of N.G.O. s.

4.6.2. Measuring the Intangible and Abstract Nature of Empowerment

Empowerment is an abstract concept, capable of being interpreted in many ways. Jo Rowland's puts a strong emphasis on access to political structures and formal decision making, on access to markets and incomes that enable people to participate in economic decision making. Impact assessment is complex, since changes sustainable over many years after the completion of a particular empowering initiative or activity is to be measured. Various techniques for assessing the empowerment due to a particular intervention is explained by Elsa L. Dawson.⁷²

4.6.3. Instruments and Frameworks for Measuring Impact on Women

Both theoretical frame works developed by academics as well as practical tools developed by aid agencies are included in forming the empowerment measure. Some of the techniques used by N.G.O.s are: 1.Participatory Research Techniques like GRAAP technique used for illiterates, which includes visual material (figures, symbols etc;) which help participants to express themselves to make visual notes (analysis) and to re-

arrange those notes to show the results of the analysis.⁷³ 2. Social Relations Framework measures the impact of a given intervention on relations between genders. 3. Gender Analysis Matrix developed by UNIFEM provides useful information about who has access and control over resources. 4. Logical Frameworks: Includes Gender Sensitivity Checklist which cover such issues as who will benefit in terms of gender division of labour and access to and control over resources and how the intervention will affect gender relations. 5. Gender Assessment Studies developed by the Netherlands Directorate General for International Cooperation (DGIS) measures the possible impact of an intervention on different categories of women and men in various project phases from a gender perspective. 6. Gender Audit which consists of a checklist of questions including issues such as the gender conceptualisation of the target group, assumptions made about the gender division of resources and responsibilities, access to control over resources, and whether the intervention addresses women's strategic gender interests. 7. Appraisal Criteria developed by Sarah Llongwe measures how far a project promotes women's welfare, women's access, women's conscientisation, women's participation and women's control. 8. Check List by Caroline Moser which includes some criteria to see if a project can promote changes in gender relations and empowering them rather than just trying to meet women's practical needs such as welfare, equity, anti-poverty, efficiency and empowerment. 9. Harward Analytical Framework which measures the access to and control over resources is given below.

Table 4.3**Harward Analytical Framework: Access and Control Profile**

Resources and Benefits	Access		Control	
	Men	Women	Men	Women
A. <u>Resources:</u> Land Equipment Work Money Education/Training Others				
B. <u>Benefits:</u> External Income Property Basic needs Education Power/Political Prestige Others				

Source: Elsa.L.Dawson, "Assessing The Impact: NGO'S and Empowerment", in Haleh Afshar (Ed), Women and Employment Illustrations from the Third World, Macmillan Press Ltd, Great Britain, 1998, pg.198.

4.6.4. Developing New Indicators

Indicators for measuring empowerment can be developed by participants as well as N.G.O.s, instead of using the available techniques. Some NGO's establish new indicators together with women beneficiaries to reflect the empowerment process. According to Arunachalam R, there are four elements of empowerment namely, social status, economic status, decision making and legal safeguards.⁷⁴ As Jenny Pearce points out, checklists are no substitute for thinking, and agencies need to train field staff to think and develop their own criteria suitable for the situation at hand. The complex and contradictory nature of empowerment makes it virtually impossible to say in absolute terms what a given intervention has achieved, especially in the long term. There are many ways in which NGOs are trying to measure the empowerment of

women achieved by their work. Though readymade checklists may help, framing indicators for particular situation is better.⁷⁵

Theoretical and empirical literature supports the view that women's status is multidimensional in nature, which comprises of multiple characteristics of the woman and her relationships with others. It is impossible to capture the influence through a single measure. Freedom of movement, access to financial and non-financial resources, decision-making autonomy, gender attitudes, freedom from fear and coercion, and equality in her relationship with her partner are important but distinct aspects of a woman's position in relation to men, other family members, and other women.

The parameters of empowerment adopted in the Programme of Action consequent to the conference were enhancing self-esteem and self-confidence in women; building a positive image of women by recognizing their contribution to the society, polity and economy; fostering decision making and action through collective processes; enabling women to make choices in areas like education, employment and health; ensuring equal participation in the developmental process; providing information, knowledge and skill for economic independence and enhancing access to legal literacy and information related to their rights and entitlements in the society, with a view to enhance their participation on an equal footing with men in all areas.⁷⁶

4.6.5. Constructing a Model of Empowerment

According to Jo Rowlands, 'empowerment' is a complex phenomenon, which took different forms in different spaces of women's lives. The process of empowerment for individual woman is a personal and unique experience, even though one woman may go through some experiences similar to those of others. This 'personal' empowerment involved very distinct processes from those which made up empowerment in a group or

collective sense. In turn, the process of empowerment for women in terms of their relationships, in particular, with husbands and immediate family members, could be differentiated from the personal and collective experiences. From the empowering experience of a women's group, Rowlands could identify different levels of empowerment such as personal empowerment, empowerment in organisation or group and empowerment in family or close relationships.⁷⁷

4.6.6. Measuring Empowerment in the Family.

This is the area of change that comes hardest: it is the place where the individual woman is 'up against it on her own', and where positive and negative aspects of her life tend to be most closely intertwined. Empowerment can be seen to happen, then, because changes over time give women more access to power, in one or more of its forms such as their ability to act, to perceive themselves as capable, to hold opinions, to use time effectively, to control resources, to interact with others, to initiate activities, to respond to events and so on . A core set of necessary elements identified relates to personal empowerment and collective empowerment. Personal empowerment includes self confidence, self- esteem, sense of agency and sense of 'self' in a wider context. Collective empowerment includes group identity, collective sense of agency, group dignity and self organization and management. Dignity as an element of the core of empowerment includes self respect, self worth, honour and the expectation of receiving respect and of having the right to receive respect from others.

Empowerment in close relationships flows from personal empowerment. The core identified for this aspect consists elements such as ability to negotiate, to communicate, to get support, to defend self/right, sense of 'self' in the relationship and dignity.⁷⁸

4.6.7. Indicators of Empowerment.

A list of indicators is presented by Caroline and Bettina for measuring empowerment at the personal, household, organizational and national level.

a. At the level of the individual woman and her household:

- participation in crucial decision making processes;
- extent of sharing of domestic work by men;
- extent to which a woman takes control of her reproductive functions and decides on family size;
- extent to which a woman is able to decide where the income she has earned will be channelled to;
- feeling and expression of pride and value in her work;
- self confidence and self esteem; and
- ability to prevent violence.

b. At the community and/or organisational level:

- existence of women's organisations;
- allocation of funds to women and women's projects;
- increased number of women leaders at village, district, provincial and national levels;
- involvement of women in the design, development and application of technology;
- participation in community programmes, productive enterprises, politics and arts;
- involvement of women in non-traditional tasks;
- increased training programmes for women; and
- exercising her legal rights when necessary.

c) At the national level:

- awareness of her social and political rights;
- integration of women in the general national development plan;
- existence of women's networks and publications;
- the extent to which women are officially visible and recognised; and
- the degree to which the media take heed of women's issues.⁷⁹

4.7. EMPOWERMENT MODEL IN THE PRESENT STUDY

Among the different types of empowerment such as economic, political, legal and socio-cultural, the present study focuses on economic empowerment, ie., empowerment that occurs in a woman, when she starts to earn in the context of an organisation, including self employed business concern. The elements of empowerment in the context of an organisation have been identified by Nancy Foy as team work, communication, leadership and performance. The various aspects of these four elements are discussed below.

4.7.1. Teamwork

The process of empowerment is both individual and collective since it is through involvement in groups that people often begin to develop their awareness and ability to organise, to take action and to bring about change.⁸⁰

A pre-requisite to empowerment, therefore necessitates stepping outside the home and participating in some form of collective undertaking that can be successful, thus developing a sense of independence and competence among the women. Whatever the objective, the group activity should be designed so that its process and its goal-attainment foster the development of a sense of self-esteem, competence and autonomy.⁸¹ Empowerment of women is maximised by collective activities. Hence, organising makes a lot of good sense. Within the context of the organisation, the weakness of members can

be reduced by complementation; individually, one woman's strength could be other's weakness and vice versa. The strengths could be put together and the individual weaknesses plugged via the group or the collective. In practical terms, women's weakness could be plugged by awareness raising, conscientisation, organisation, education and training.⁸² A key feature of empowerment is that it elicits the widest possible, community participation and is, in that sense, democratizing (Shetty 1992).⁸³

4.7.2. Communication

The term communication is derived from the word, 'communicare', which means, 'to make common, to share, to import, to transmit'. It is interpreted as making common or sharing of something between two or among several persons or groups of people. In today's corporations, hospitals, universities and other institutions, there are too many layers of management. This affects communication. There is a communication theorem that every relay doubles noise and cuts the message into half. Additional relays delay communication.

In an organization it may be very expensive to keep everyone informed. Still, certain programmes like weekly executive meetings, weekly briefing, quality circles, formal employee relations including information meetings, meetings with union, company news letter, notice boards etc., and special programmes like sports, social activities, pre-retirement services etc., can increase the level of communication in an organization. Communication within the team, between teams, between superiors and subordinates and between superiors in different levels of management will facilitate the empowerment of everyone concerned.⁸⁴

4.7.3. Leadership

A person with genuine leadership qualities is able to integrate personal goals and institutional goals in a successful manner. Not only is the role of the leader to integrate institutional and personal goals by development of appropriate skills; it also calls for the development of consciousness or awareness. Leadership demands the kind of jump in consciousness that sees possibilities beyond the meeting of current needs- a vision of the future that embodies realistic possibilities for both the institution and individuals. Put another way, the leader is the one who is in touch with present realities but has the imaginative capacity to invent tools, create policies and take charge of history in such a way that integral human development can take place.⁸⁵

Dorothy speaks of two leadership styles namely the transactional and transformational. The transactional leader focuses on short term goals and stability, offering rewards for performance. The transformational leader articulates a vision of the firm that can be shared by peers and subordinates, empowers and encourages subordinates, models effective behaviour, shows respect for individual differences among subordinates, and prefers effectiveness over efficiency. For the transformational leader, quality is more important than speed; and outcomes are more important than following a specific process to achieve them. Recent research has promoted the transformational leader as the more successful model for leadership. Inherent in this model is the need for leaders to act as role models, motivating and empowering followers to become leaders. Recent studies also suggest that female leaders, more than males tend to utilise transformational behaviours.

Aelgesen describes a female leadership style termed the web approach. In her 1990 study, where she found differences in how women executives operated compared to a group of male executives, which was observed by Mintzberg in 1973. Her findings indicated that women leaders tended to place

greater value on their relationships, with emphasis on cultivation and nurturance. Women move toward an integration of personal and professional dimensions of their lives, as contrasted with the compartmentalisation found by Mintzberg. Eschewing the traditional perquisites and privileges, which separate leaders from others in their organisations, female leaders also construct a tie to each individual.

According to Rosener (1990), women often did not have the same access to formal power and, therefore, had to rely on personal power and influence, teamwork and a non-traditional style of leadership to get work accomplished. She termed this style 'interactive'. Women using this style were characterised as encouraging participation, sharing power and information, enhancing others' self-worth, and getting others excited about.

Highly interactive leaders will have a greater appreciation of interpersonal and human resource management skills, be more concerned about the welfare of their employees and rate of employee satisfaction as a more important measure of their success. Operational dimensions examined include support obtained, satisfaction with their work, perceived managerial self efficacy and perceptions about the importance of creativity and innovation in the operation of their business.⁸⁶

4.7.4. Performance

Employee 'performance' refers to an act of fulfillment of the requirement of a given job, efficiency at work or accomplishment and discharge of duty. Many methods are used by the industrial psychologists for measurement of job performance. Validity of any one of the measures often depends upon the specific set of circumstances under which a particular measure has been evolved and used. Blum and Naylor (1968) suggested rate of work, quality of work, accidents and breakage, dollars earned, job

knowledge, job tenure, absenteeism, rate of advancement etc., as measures of job performance.

Three parameters for the measures of job performance such as a) characteristics or qualities to be appraised. b) choice of the appraiser ie., immediate superior, peers or subordinates and c) the choice of the measure.

The four most important characteristics approved by a group of 21 managers are 1) productivity[quality and quantity of work] 2) co-operativeness, 3)obedience to superiors and 4)initiative. Many management experts like Taylor, Smith And Ellison have argued that job performance is not a uni-dimensional concept. Attitude of workers towards the organisation, reflecting their job satisfaction are identified as, perception of self-development opportunities, feeling of belongingness and attitude towards working conditions, supervision, financial benefits, employment and security, interaction and communication opportunities, self esteem and consideration.⁸⁷

Conclusion

Thus a combination of four elements namely, performance, leadership, teamwork and communication will lead to empowerment in organization and will result in personal empowerment. Such an empowerment permeates to close relationships such as the family and society. An attempt is made to measure these intertwined empowerment- relationships in chapter six. As a background study before such analysis, the profile of sample under study is dealt with in Chapter Five.

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MEASURING EMPOWERMENT - I

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Chapter V

Measuring Empowerment – I

CHAPTER V

MEASURING EMPOWERMENT - I

Introduction

In the previous chapters, we have seen the theoretical explanation regarding the empowerment and employment of women. This chapter deals with the details regarding the sample study conducted with the aid of the questionnaire, to measure the empowerment achieved by women through employment.

The sample under the study constitutes 630 employed women, 210 from each District. The study is based on employed women in the organized sector and the self-employed business women. The focus is on seven categories in which women in Kerala are commonly employed. The categories selected are school teachers, college lecturers, bank employees, government employees, nurses, factory workers and self-employed business women. The study was conducted with ninety women from each category i.e. 30 each from Thiruvananthapuram (TVM), Thrissur (TSR) and Kozhikode (KKD) districts.

Though the respondents are from a homogeneous group, there are variations in their age, experience, religion, education, marital status, nature of family, residential status and financial status which have a direct bearing on the empowerment. In this part of analysis, an attempt is made to study these diverse aspects of the respondents.

Distribution of Sample by Experience

As is evident from Table 5.1, 36% of the respondents are having more than 15 years of experience. 21% are of the lowest experience of 1-3 years.

119 respondents (19%) have 5 to 10 years of experience. The minimum number of respondents are with the experience of 3-5 years and 10- 15 years. The same trend is seen in all the three districts. The employment avenue in the organised sector in Kerala is in a stagnation stage at present. The largest number having 1-3 years of experience is for the nurses, since nurses work in the early period within the state and afterwards many try abroad or get married and stop working. Next biggest number is for the self-employed. This is because many women have come forward in the recent years under the People's plan, Infarm, Self Help Groups, SEWA, WIP, etc. Some of them may disappear from the scene after a few years.

Table 5.1
Distribution of the Sample by Experience

THIRUVANANTHAPURAM DISTRICT (TVM)									THRISSUR DISTRICT (TSR)								KOZHIKODE DISTRICT (KKD)								
Years	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DT	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DT	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DT	GT
1-3	8	0	4	2	13	1	10	38 [18]	3	2	1	5	25	7	10	53 [52]	5	2	2	1	10	7	14	41 [20]	132 [21]
3-5	5	0	1	2	7	2	3	20 [10]	0	3	1	2	4	10	5	25 [12]	2	2	2	4	6	4	3	23 [11]	68 [11]
5-10	5	4	1	5	4	5	9	33 [16]	8	2	3	13	1	9	5	41 [20]	4	11	1	12	3	9	5	45 [21]	119 [19]
10-15	0	5	3	8	0	6	2	24 [11]	4	7	4	6	0	0	6	27 [13]	6	4	3	5	2	7	3	30 [14]	81 [13]
Above 15	12	21	21	13	6	16	6	95 [45]	15	16	21	4	0	4	4	64 [30]	13	11	22	8	9	3	5	71 [34]	230 [36]
Total	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	210	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	210	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	210	630

Source: Compiled from primary data. (Figures in brackets are percentages)

Note: S=School Teacher, C= College Teacher, B= Bank Employee, G= Government Employee, N= Nurse, W= Factory Worker and SE= Self-employed.

T= Total for the District and GT= Grand Total.

Distribution of Sample by Education

Table 5.2 shows very clearly the trend of high level of female education in Kerala. The majority of respondents (31%) are graduates, and 24% are Post-graduates. 18% have passed Pre-Degree. 14% of them have passed S.S.L.C, whereas 7% have only high school/primary school education. 33% of women have other qualifications. This number does not include the B. Ed. for teachers or Nursing for nurses, which are needed primarily for their profession. But this includes those who have passed M. Phil, Ph. D, etc., among the college teachers. 29 out of 33 belong to this category. Out of a total of 90 college teachers in the sample, only 29, i.e. less than one-third have qualification beyond post-graduation.

Half of the school teachers in TVM district and one-third in KKD district are post-graduates. The introductory phase of +2 schools in Kerala is an incentive to school teachers for acquiring post-graduation. In TSR district, only three of them have the post-graduation. Majority of women in the banks are also either graduates or post-graduates. In TVM district, many of them are post-graduates. The corresponding number is 11 and 7 for TSR and KKD districts. In the government offices also, more than two-thirds of them are either graduates or post-graduates. Their number is 20 in TVM district, 29 in TSR district and 27 in KKD district. Among the nurses also there are graduates and post-graduates. Even among the workers in factory, more than two-thirds have S.S.L.C or higher qualification. They include 3 graduates and 7 P.D.C.s in TVM district, 4 graduates and P.D.C. s each in TSR district and 3 graduates and 2 P.D.C. s in KKD district. Among the self-employed, about two-thirds are either S.S.L.C or P.D.C. Among them, there are 6 graduates and one post-graduate in TVM district, 5 graduates in TSR district and 7 graduates and 3 post-graduates in KKD district. Those below S.S.L.C are only

nominal, i.e. one-tenth of the sample; 3 each in TVM and KKD and 5 in TSR district. In the whole sample, only 7% are below S.S.L.C.

Table 5.2

Distribution of the Sample by Education

TVM DISTRICT									TSR DISTRICT								KKD DISTRICT								
Education	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DT	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DT	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DT	GT
Below SSLC	0	0	0	0	0	9	3	12 [6]	0	2	0	0	0	10	5	17 [8]	0	0	0	0	0	10	3	13 [6]	42 [7]
SSLC	0	0	2	7	2	10	11	32 [15]	0	0	0	0	0	12	8	20 [10]	2	0	0	1	5	15	13	36 [17]	88 [14]
PDC	0	0	1	3	24	7	9	44 [21]	2	0	1	1	25	4	12	45 [21]	2	0	1	1	17	2	4	27 [13]	116 [18]
Graduate	15	0	11	14	2	3	6	51 [24]	23	0	19	18	4	4	5	73 [35]	16	0	22	17	8	3	7	73 [35]	197 [31]
P.G	15	15	15	6	2	1	1	55 [26]	3	19	10	11	1	0	0	44 [21]	10	25	7	10	0	0	3	55 [26]	154 [24]
Any other	0	15	1	0	0	0	0	16 [8]	2	9	0	0	0	0	0	11 [5]	0	5	0	1	0	0	0	6 [3]	33 [5]
Total	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	210	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	210	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	210	630

Source: Compiled from primary data. (Figures in brackets are percentages)

Distribution of Sample by Religion

The sample includes women from all the three religions, namely, Hindu, Christian and Muslim. Majority of the employed women, constituting 57% are Hindus. 40% are Christians and only a minority of 4% are Muslims. This shows the backwardness of Muslim women. Most of them are from KKD district, where the majority of the population are Muslims. Otherwise their presence is nominal, 7 in TVM district and 5 in TSR district. In TVM and KKD districts, about 63% of employed women in the sample are Hindus. In TSR district 54% are Christians.

Table 5.3
Distribution of the Sample by Religion

TVM DISTRICT									TSR DISTRICT									KKD DISTRICT									
Religion	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DT	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DT		S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DT		GT
Christian	13	15	11	5	12	2	12	70 [33]	20	15	19	16	18	8	17	113 [54]		14	9	12	4	13	3	11	66 [31]		249 [40]
Hindu	17	14	19	21	16	28	18	133 [63]	10	15	11	14	11	21	10	92 [44]		13	18	18	23	17	27	15	131 [62]		356 [57]
Muslim	0	1	0	4	2	0	0	7 [3]	0	0	0	0	1	1	3	5 [2]		3	3	0	3	0	0	4	13 [6]		25 [4]
Total	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	210	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	210		30	30	30	30	30	30	30	210		630

Source: Compiled from primary data. (Figures in brackets are percentages)

Table 5.4 below shows that the maximum number of employees fall under the age-group, 36-45, that is at the prime of their career. The lowest number fall in the category of above 55 years. This is quite natural since 55 is the official retirement age. The next lowest number is for the lowest age group, i.e., below 25. Only less than 10% fall in this category. Again, when we analyse the employment categories, majority is in the nursing career. 11 in TVM, 26 in TSR and 8 in KKD. The number of nurses decreases with ageing.

Another factor revealed from the age group distribution is that, the number of employed women other than the nurses is very small in the age group below 25 in all the categories alike. It is only 4 in TVM, 7 in TSR, and 3 in KKD district. This means that the WPR of women in the age group below 25 in the organised sector is almost nil in Kerala. It is 0 in TVM district for College, Bank, Government offices and self employed and just 1 in the factory and 3 in schools. The corresponding figures for TSR are 0 in School and Bank and 1 each in College, Government Office and Self employed and Just 4 in factory. In KKD district, it is 0 for factory, self employed and govt. employees and one each in School, College and Bank. This brings to light the

glaring problem of unemployment faced by young women in Kerala. It is an indication of stagnation or saturation in the institutions offering employment to women. The state of uncertainty and instability in the employment policies of changing governments have obviously closed all advances of employment. High education level coupled with lack of hope of employment opportunities in the organised sector has taken away all energy and enthusiasm from girls aspiring for jobs.

Table 5.4
Distribution of the sample by Age

TVM District									TSR District									KKD District									
Age	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DT	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DT	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DT	GT		
< 25	3	0	0	0	11	1	0	15 [7]	0	1	0	1	26	4	1	33 [16]	1	1	1	0	8	0	0	11 [5]	59 [9]		
26-35	9	1	3	9	11	1	8	42 [20]	8	7	2	14	2	7	5	45 [21]	8	11	3	17	10	5	11	65 [31]	152 [24]		
36-45	8	13	18	13	4	12	16	84 [40]	12	12	18	13	1	12	14	82 [39]	12	14	16	5	4	15	11	77 [37]	243 [39]		
46-55	10	16	8	8	3	15	6	66 [31]	10	10	10	2	1	4	9	46 [22]	9	4	10	7	8	10	4	52 [25]	164 [26]		
> 55	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	3 [1]	0	0	0	0	0	3	1	4 [2]	0	0	0	1	0	0	4	5 [2]	12 [2]		
Total	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	210	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	210	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	210	630		

Source: Compiled from primary data. (Figures in brackets are percentages)

Table 5.5 shows the marital status of women in the sample. 81% of women in the sample are married. 12% are unmarried, 6% are widowed and 1.26% are divorced. There is similarity in the distribution of the districts also.

Table 5.5

Distribution of the Sample by Marital Status

TVM District									TSR District									KKD District									
	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DT	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DT	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DT	GT		
Unmarried	3	1	3	1	10	1	0	19 [9]	0	2	1	2	23	7	1	36 [17]	0	1	0	0	11	4	2	18 [9]	73 [12]		
Married	25	28	24	29	19	23	26	174 [83]	30	28	26	28	7	22	24	165 [79]	29	27	29	30	19	15	24	173 [82]	512 [81]		
Widowed	2	1	3	0	0	6	3	15 [7]	0	0	3	0	0	0	5	8 [4]	1	0	1	0	0	8	4	14 [7]	37 [6]		
Divorced	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	2 [1]	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1 [.5]	0	2	0	0	0	3	0	5 [2]	8 [1]		
Total	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	210	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	210	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	210	630		

Source: Compiled from primary data. (Figures in brackets are percentages)

The comparatively high marriageable age of Kerala women is well known in the demographic studies. Table 5.6 places before us the age of marriage of the wide variety of employed women in the state. The Table shows that more than half of the sample got married at the age 21-25. The present Kerala society considers this age range, ideal for marriage. The trend is shown very clearly by 52% of them getting married within that age. 21% of employed women married only after 25 years. The second largest number of marriages occurred in this age group. Only 13% married below the age of 20. This very clearly shows the role of employment in fixing a high age for marriage. This will be directly influencing the family size also. The trend is the same in all the three districts.

Among those who married below 20 years, majority are workers and self employed women. The same trend is seen in all the three districts. This tells upon the education level and family background of the women. Most of

the factory workers and self employed women are less educated and mostly hail from lowest middle class families of rural areas.

Table 5.6
Distribution of the Sample by Age of Marriage

	TVM District									TSR District									KKD District									GT
	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DT		S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DT		S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DT		
<20	0	2	3	1	2	9	11	28 [13]		1	2	1	0	0	10	9	23 [11]		3	3	4	0	1	8	15	34 [16]		85 [13]
21-25	15	16	19	13	13	14	15	105 [50]		20	14	20	25	7	13	19	118 [56]		21	11	19	22	10	10	9	102 [49]		325 [52]
26-30	8	11	4	13	5	6	4	51 [24]		8	12	7	3	0	0	1	31 [15]		6	14	6	7	8	6	2	49 [23]		131 [21]
31-35	3	0	1	2	0	0	0	6 [3.5]		1	0	1	0	0	0	0	2 [1]		0	1	1	1	0	1	2	6 [3]		14 [2]
>35	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1 [0.5]		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0 [0]		0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1 [0.5]		2 [0.3]
Unmarried	3	1	3	1	10	1	0	19 [9]		0	2	1	2	23	7	1	36 [17]		0	1	0	0	11	4	2	18 [9]		73 [12]
Total	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	210		30	30	30	30	30	30	30	210		30	30	30	30	30	30	30	210		630

Source: Compiled from primary data. (Figures in brackets are percentages)

The trend of disintegration of joint families and the evolution of nuclear families in Kerala is shown clearly by the sample. As seen in Table 5.7, 67% are from nuclear families, whereas only 25% belong to joint families. The maximum number of nuclear families is in TVM (76%). TSR and KKD show similar pattern. (64% and 62%). So there is a close relation between urbanisation and the number of nuclear families. 8% of employed women live alone with a decision not to marry, and to remain single.

Table 5.7**Distribution of the Sample by Nature of Family**

Nature of Family	TVM District								TSR District								KKD District								GT
	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DT	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DT	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DT	
Joint	7	2	6	4	6	12	2	39 [19]	4	3	3	11	11	16	9	57 [27]	2	5	9	8	14	8	13	59 [28]	155 [25]
Nuclear	19	28	22	24	23	18	26	160 [76]	24	24	21	14	18	13	21	135 [64]	23	20	17	19	15	19	17	130 [62]	425 [67]
Single	4	0	2	2	1	0	2	11 [5]	2	3	6	5	1	1	0	18 [9]	5	5	4	3	1	3	0	21 [10]	50 [8]
Total	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	210	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	210	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	210	630

Source: Compiled from primary data. (Figures in brackets are percentages)

Table 5.8 places before us, the number of children in the families of the employed women as well as the gender ratio. Average number of children for the employed women is 1.7. The district-wise average figures are 1.72 in TVM, 1.8 in TSR and 1.71 in KKD. This shows very clearly that when women are employed, it plays an important role in reducing the family size to a great extent. The gender ratio for the sample is 1.1. District-wise figures are 1 for TVM, 1.21 for TSR and 1.14 for KKD. Thus the gender ratio in the sample is in conformity with the state, except for TVM where it is 1.

Table 5.8**Gender Ratio of Children in the Sample**

TVM District								TSR District								KKD District							
	S	C	B	G	W	SE	DT	S	C	B	G	W	SE	DT	S	C	B	G	W	SE	DT	GT	
Boys	23	30	16	28	23	33	153	24	18	27	23	19	33	144	25	21	25	24	21	28	144	441	
Girls	23	30	31	24	23	26	157	34	25	28	30	25	32	174	34	21	25	22	33	29	164	495	
Total	46	60	47	52	46	59	310	58	43	55	53	44	65	318	59	42	50	46	54	57	308	936	
Ratio	1.0	1.0	1.9	0.9	1.0	0.8	1.0	1.4	1.4	1.0	1.3	1.3	1.0	1.21	1.4	1.0	1.0	0.9	1.6	1.0	1.14	1.1	
Average	1.5	2	1.6	1.7	1.5	2	1.7	1.9	1.4	1.8	1.8	1	2.2	1.8	2	1.4	1.7	2	2	2	1.71	1.7	

Source: Compiled from primary data. (Figures in brackets are percentages)

In Table 5.9, the residential status of the women employees is determined according to the place of birth. Contrary to the general idea, that employed women mostly hail from the urban area, the sample study reveals that the majority are from rural area. Out of 630 employees, 62% are from rural areas. But TVM shows a different picture, with 55% from urban area and 45% from rural area. But in TSR and KKD districts, 65% are from rural and 35% from urban areas.

Table 5.9
Distribution of the Sample by Residential Status

TVM DISTRICT									TSR DISTRICT								KKD DISTRICT									
	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DT	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DT	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DT	GT	
Rural	7	9	13	16	22	16	11	94 [45]	26	19	10	8	26	24	24	137 [65]	28	22	11	17	19	20	20	137 [65]	368 [58]	
Urban	23	21	17	14	8	14	19	116 [55]	4	11	20	22	4	6	6	73 [35]	2	8	19	13	11	10	10	73 [35]	262 [42]	
Total	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	210	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	210	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	210	630	
Note: Residential status is decided according to place of birth																										

Source: Compiled from primary data (Figures in brackets are percentages)

Table 5.10 indicates the place where the women stay, whether it is in the husband's house or her home or at the place of employment of husband or at her own place of employment. As is customary for married women in the country, 33% of women stay in the husband's house and go for work from there. 31% live at the place of employment of women. Just 6% have settled at the place of employment of the husband. And 8% at a place which is in between the places of employment of husband and wife.

Table 5.10
Distribution of the Sample by Place of Residence

TVM District									TSR District								KKD District								
	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DT	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DT	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DT	GT
Husband's House	8	5	5	4	3	16	11	52 [25]	22	4	6	10	2	18	21	83 [4]	10	2	8	8	7	17	22	74 [35]	209 [33]
Original House	10	6	6	1	9	6	5	43 [20]	2	2	3	8	16	7	2	40 [19]	1	7	2	8	3	10	4	35 [17]	118 [19]
At H's emp-place	2	3	2	4	2	0	1	14 [7]	1	3	2	1	0	1	0	8 [4]	7	0	3	2	3	0	2	17 [8]	39 [6]
At Wife's empl-place	6	8	12	18	9	8	12	73 [35]	3	13	12	5	10	3	6	52 [25]	6	19	14	9	16	3	2	69 [33]	194 [31]
In between	2	5	4	3	4	0	1	19 [9]	2	5	6	6	1	1	1	22 [10]	3	2	1	3	1	0	0	10 [5]	51 [8]
Any other	2	3	1	0	3	0	0	9 [4]	0	3	1	0	1	0	0	5 [2]	3	0	2	0	0	0	0	5 [2]	19 [3]
Total	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	210	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	210	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	210	630

Source: Compiled from primary data. (Figures in brackets are percentages)

The picture is fair regarding the position of women, since 31% of them have their residence near their place of employment. Only 33% stay in the husband's house and many of them work in the nearby institutions. This shows that the convenience and comfort of employed women are taken into consideration in deciding the place of settlement. Still 19% report of staying in their own home. This includes unmarried women also. Others seem to be following the matriarchal system of staying in their maternal house. A district-wise analysis shows that majority are staying in husband's house in TSR district. It's effect is seen in residence at wife's place of employment.

Table 5.11 presents the reason for moving to the present residence. 42% report that they shifted to the present residence due to employment. When most of the unemployed women are to spend their life in doing the household work in the husband's house, the employed women are getting a chance to build up a life of their own because of their employment. 30% have reported that they shifted after marriage.

Table 5.11
Distribution of the Sample by Reason for Moving to Present Residence

TVM District									TSR District								KKD District								
Reason	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DT	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DT	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DT	GT
Employment	11	11	19	26	16	11	7	101 [48]	6	19	12	14	7	4	4	66 [31]	16	22	14	16	25	3	4	100 [48]	267 [43]
Study	5	0	0	0	0	6	3	14 [7]	0	3	0	2	4	0	0	9 [4]	1	0	2	3	0	1	0	7 [3]	30 [5]
Family moved	4	8	1	1	4	6	8	32 [15]	3	1	8	3	3	2	2	22 [10]	2	2	2	1	1	0	3	11 [5]	65 [10]
Marriage	5	6	6	3	7	4	8	39 [19]	20	5	8	9	2	15	21	80 [38]	10	4	12	8	3	16	19	72 [34]	191 [30]
Any other	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	3 [1]	0	1	1	1	0	4	1	8 [4]	0	1	0	2	0	0	0	3 [1]	14 [2]
No change	4	3	4	0	3	3	4	21 [10]	1	1	1	1	14	5	2	25 [12]	1	1	0	0	1	10	4	17 [8]	63 [10]
Total	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	210	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	210	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	210	630

Source: Compiled from primary data
 (Figures in brackets are percentages)

χ^2 Value = 753.8*

Here also TSR district shows a different pattern. While the number of women who shifted their residence due to employment is 48% for TVM and KKD, it is only 31% in TSR district. As a reverse effect, the number of women who shifted their residence due to marriage is highest in TSR district. The traditional nature of family set up still exists in TSR district and the women are ready to travel a long distance to their workplace.

Table 5.12 gives the location of the employment of husbands of the women in the sample. 59% of the women have their husband's employed within the same district of their employment. To put it the other way, employed men show a great preference for women employed in the same district. 15% are employed in other districts in the state, 3% in other states in India and 6% outside India. Though Kerala has a very high migration rate, only 9% of employed women have their husband's migrated either to the

other states or to foreign countries. The distribution is almost similar in all the three districts and in all the sub-groups. It can be said that wives of migrated men are generally unemployed. This may be one reason for the low Work Participation Rate of women in Kerala, where there is high rate of migration.

Table 5.12

Distribution of the Sample by Place of Employment of Husband

TVM District									TSR District									KKD District										
	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DT	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DT	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DT	GT			
Within the District	17	21	19	23	11	14	21	126 [60]	21	15	19	22	3	20	17	117 [56]	22	15	16	17	15	21	20	126 [60]	369 [59]			
Within the State	3	5	3	3	5	2	1	22 [11]	6	10	5	4	1	2	3	31 [15]	7	8	13	8	2	1	0	39 [19]	92 [15]			
Outside the State	2	1	0	1	1	1	1	7 [3]	1	3	1	0	0	0	1	6 [3]	1	0	0	1	0	0	3	5 [2]	18 [3]			
Outside India	3	1	1	0	2	3	3	13 [6]	2	0	2	2	3	0	3	12 [6]	0	4	1	4	2	0	1	12 [6]	37 [6]			
N.A (U,W,D) *	5	2	7	3	11	10	4	42 [20]	0	2	3	2	23	8	6	44 [21]	0	3	0	0	11	8	6	28 [13]	114 [18]			
Total	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	210	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	210	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	210	630			
* N.A means not applicable. U – Unmarried, W - Widowed, D -Divorced.																												

* N.A means not applicable. U – Unmarried, W - Widowed, D -Divorced.

Source: Compiled from primary data
(Figures in brackets are percentages)

χ^2 Value = 57.4*

Table 5.13 deals with the facility of a servant availed of by the employed women. 62% of employed women have no servant at home. The remaining 38% get the help of a servant. While 7% have full time servants, 23% get the regular service of part-time servants. Weekly service is available for 6% and 2% of them get the help casually when they have to do some extra work beyond the routine.

The distribution is almost similar in all the three districts. In the sub-groups we see that the factory workers have no servants. It is quite natural that when they themselves are struggling for subsistence, they cannot afford to have a servant. Majority of nurses, two-third of self employed and half of

the school teachers also do not have this facility. Those who make maximum use of servants are college teachers .

Table 5.13
Distribution of the Sample by Facility of Servant

TVM District									TSR District									KKD District									
	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DT	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DT	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DT	GI		
No servant	15	6	17	26	25	30	21	140 [67]	19	12	11	11	25	30	23	131 [63]	16	9	7	12	25	30	24	123 [59]	394 [62]		
Weekly Service	1	1	1	2	0	0	0	5 [2]	3	4	5	5	2	0	2	21 [10]	4	1	2	2	1	0	2	12 [6]	38 [6]		
Casual	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0 [0]	1	2	1	0	1	0	0	5 [2]	3	2	2	0	0	0	0	7 [3]	12 [2]		
Part-time	12	20	9	2	3	0	8	54 [26]	7	8	10	11	0	0	2	38 [18]	5	15	15	11	4	0	3	53 [25]	145 [23]		
Full-time	2	3	3	0	2	0	1	11 [5]	0	4	3	3	2	0	3	15 [7]	2	3	4	5	0	0	1	15 [7]	41 [7]		
Total	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	210	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	210	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	210	630		

Source: Compiled from primary data

χ^2 Value = 5.62

(Figures in brackets are percentages)

The analysis of the sub-groups gives a clear indication of the relationship between the facility of a servant and the income level of the woman employee. In the sample, college teachers, bank employees and government employees are drawing the maximum salary. In all the other cases, employed women have to bear the double burden. As many as 62% of the employed women do not get any outside help in fulfilling their household duties. Here comes the question of internal help from family members.

Table 5.14 gives the sample distribution according to income. The sample shows an equitable distribution among various levels of income except in the case of income above Rs.20,000. The highest number fall under 5,001-10,000. This is a fair picture of the earning level of women because 62% of them earn above Rs.5,000. The first range of income below Rs.2,500 includes many women who earn even a small amount of Rs.500. The workers in small, private-owned factories and some of the self employed

women in the 'self help groups' of 10 or 20 women formed under Peoples' Plan, are among them.

Those who earn the highest amount, above Rs.20,000 is maximum among the college teachers and bank employees. Another interesting thing to note is that each of in all the three districts, there is one self employed woman who earns above 20,000 per month which shows women can successfully run a business on an equal footing with men.

Table brings to light the worse position of female factory workers in the private factories in TSR and KKD districts. Factory workers who earn the lowest income are 24 in TSR district and 23 in KKD district, in a group of 30. Among the different types of workers, coir workers earn as low as Rs.25 per day. They come hopefully believing that their situation will improve some day. Availability of a lot of substitutes in the market for coir products, has reduced the demand for coir and this low demand is translated into low wages for coir workers.

Next low earning working group are plywood workers. They work day long, but their work is considered unskilled since they only paste together the sheets of plywood into different layers. They get an amount ranging from Rs. 25 to 50 per day. Many are casual workers, whose names are not even entered in the register of the factories. Polythene workers get Rs.30 to 100 per day, depending upon the demand for the product and willingness of the employer to pay. In small firms there is no trade union activity since the workers know that, any bargaining on wages will be the end of their work. Many good factories are facing the threat of closure due to excessive trade unionism. In big factories there are five or six different trade unions.

Workers enjoying maximum pay and maximum benefits are found in the government companies like the Hindustan Latex in TVM district. And 13 of them earn between 5,000 and 10,000 and 3 of them earn above 10,000.

Only 5 workers earn below 2,500. Workers are graded on the basis of experience and paid accordingly.

Majority of the self employed women also fall in the lowest income groups, 10 each in TVM and TSR districts and 14 in KKD district get below Rs 2,500. Some of them earn nothing at all. Still they continue with the help of government loans under the WIP or People's plan with the hope of improvement. A good number of them fall in the second lowest income group of Rs. 2500-5000 ie., 13 in TVM, 16 in TSR and 12 in KKD. Very few are able to climb up the ladder in this category ie., 7 in TVM, and 4 each in TSR and KKD.

Table 5.14
Distribution of the Sample by Monthly Earning

TVM District									TSR District									KKD District									
Monthly Earning	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DT	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DT	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DT	GT		
> 2,500	0	0	0	0	1	5	10	16 [8]	2	1	0	0	17	24	10	54 [26]	0	0	1	0	5	23	14	43 [20]	113 [18]		
2,501-5,000	17	0	0	6	5	9	13	50 [24]	2	0	0	2	12	6	16	38 [18]	4	1	1	5	8	7	12	38 [18]	126 [20]		
5,001-10,000	13	3	6	21	19	13	5	80 [38]	22	6	7	14	0	0	2	51 [24]	23	11	4	11	16	0	3	68 [32]	199 [32]		
10,001-20,000	0	15	15	3	5	3	1	42 [20]	3	19	19	12	1	0	1	55 [26]	1	14	24	14	1	0	0	54 [26]	151 [24]		
< 20,000	0	12	9	0	0	0	1	22 [10]	1	4	4	2	0	0	1	12 [6]	2	4	0	0	0	0	1	7 [3]	41 [6]		
Total	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	210	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	210	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	210	630		

Source: Compiled from primary data

χ^2 Value = 7.82

Nurses in the private sector belong to the next low earning category. The services of young nurses are available in Kerala at a low salary. The number of nursing schools attached to hospitals, have increased considerably in the recent past. This has reduced the need of nurses since the student nurses

as well as 'bond' nurses, with the supervision of a few head nurses can perform a great part of the nursing duty. There are job opportunities for nurses in the Gulf as well as in the Western countries. In order to have the required experience to get selected to these countries, those aspiring to migrate are ready to work at a meagre salary. All these factors have pulled down the salary of nurses in the private sector. It varies from hospital to hospital from as low a salary as Rs. 1,500 to 3,000 or more. Thus working as a nurse within the state in a private hospital is not at all attractive from the point of view of earnings.

In order to bring out the variations among public and private hospitals, the sample was purposely taken only from private hospitals in TSR district, where there are a large number of private hospitals. In TVM district, the sample was drawn only from government hospitals. The variation in earnings is very clear from the Table. While 19 nurses in TVM and 16 nurses in KKD earn between Rs.5000 and 10,000, there is none in that range in TCR district.

Distribution of the Sample by Average Monthly Expense

27% of women spend in between Rs.5000 and 10,000 and another 27% spend between Rs 2,500 and 5,000. 20% spend between Rs.1,500 and 2,500 and 13% above Rs.10,000 and another 13% spend below Rs. 1,500. There are many theories, which state that income drawn by women will result in increase in the welfare of the family. Most of the consumption goods are purchased from the income of the woman. A big amount is spent for the education of children in English Medium Schools and Professional Colleges, paying high amount of capitation fee, donation, tuition fee etc. This is possible only when both the husband and wife are employed. Most of the employees in college, bank and government offices have taken house loans, car loans, L.I.C policy etc., and many have withdrawn from P.F. A regular, monthly repayment of all these loans is also included in the monthly

expenses. It is quite interesting to know that in all the three districts, the pattern of spending is almost the same.

Table 5.15
Distribution of the Sample by Average Monthly Expense

TVM District									TSR District								KKD District								
	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DT	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DT	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DT	GT
Below 1,500	0	0	0	0	1	5	10	16 [8]	2	1	0	0	17	11	5	36 [17]	2	0	1	0	8	12	10	33 [16]	85 [13]
1,501-2,500	3	0	2	3	6	9	13	36 [17]	2	0	0	2	12	16	15	47 [22]	4	2	0	5	6	14	9	40 [19]	123 [20]
2,501-5,000	8	1	4	14	9	13	5	54 [26]	22	6	7	14	0	3	6	58 [28]	14	5	6	9	11	4	8	57 [27]	169 [27]
5,001-10,000	13	5	9	12	13	3	1	56 [27]	3	19	19	12	1	0	3	57 [27]	7	16	16	12	4	0	3	58 [28]	171 [27]
Above 10,000	6	24	15	1	1	0	1	48 [23]	1	4	4	2	0	0	1	12 [6]	3	7	7	4	1	0	0	22 [10]	82 [13]
Total	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	210	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	210	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	210	630

Source: Compiled from primary data

χ^2 Value = 27.57*

Distribution of the Sample by Average Monthly Savings

Table 5.16 shows a gradually diminishing trend in the frequencies with an increase in the level of savings. 32% of employed women are able to save only below Rs.1,500. This varies from Rs100 to 1,500, from person to person. Majority of the workers, self employed women and nurses come in this category. Majority of the factory workers and half of the self employed have no savings at all.

Table 5.16

Distribution of the Sample by Average Monthly Savings

TVM District									TSR District									KKD District									
	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DT	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DT	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DT	GT		
No Savings	0	0	0	0	0	16	12	28 [13]	0	0	0	0	4	24	14	42 [20]	2	0	0	0	0	26	13	41 [20]	111 [18]		
Below 1,500	17	3	5	15	16	6	10	72 [34]	13	3	6	7	22	4	10	65 [31]	6	9	9	10	16	4	13	67 [32]	204 [32]		
1,501-2,500	8	4	12	8	9	0	5	46 [22]	10	4	7	8	1	1	3	34 [16]	9	9	7	6	6	0	3	40 [19]	120 [19]		
2,501-5,000	5	13	7	7	4	6	2	44 [21]	6	11	11	11	1	1	1	42 [20]	10	6	7	8	8	0	1	40 [19]	126 [20]		
5,001-10,000	0	7	5	0	1	2	0	15 [7]	1	11	6	4	1	0	1	24 [11]	1	6	6	5	0	0	0	18 [9]	57 [9]		
Above 10,000	0	3	1	0	0	0	1	5 [2]	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	3 [1]	2	0	1	1	0	0	0	4 [2]	12 [2]		
Total	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	210	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	210	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	210	630		

Source: Compiled from primary data

 χ^2 Value = 39.94**Distribution of the Sample by Freedom to Spend**

Table 5.17 sheds light on the freedom enjoyed by women in spending the hard earned money. It is quite alarming to note that 12% have no freedom to spend anything at all from their salary. There is representation from all categories. But majority of them are either factory workers, nurses or self employed. Regarding the earnings also they lag behind the other categories. 34% have reported that they enjoy the freedom to spend 100% of their salary. But some added that their family members have the confidence that they won't spend unnecessarily. In other words, if they start spending the whole amount, the picture may be altogether different for many of them. Still it is a positive sign from the point of view of empowerment. 29% have freedom to spend only upto 25% of their earnings. Just half of that number i.e., 14% have the freedom to spend 50% of the salary. 11% can spend about 75% of the salary. To get a general picture, it can be said that 59% have the freedom to

spend 50 to 100 % of their salary. Had they not been employed, they would not have had the freedom to spend any money at all.

Though the Table does not present a rosy picture, it doesn't show a gloomy face, since a good majority of 60% of the employed women are free to spend from 50% to 100% of their salary. It brings to light the difference between an earning woman and earning man. All men can spend their salary according to their whims and fancies, though there may be exceptions. They have full control over the money they earn. KKD district presents the maximum number of women having the freedom to spend 100% of their salary. The fact that 43% of the employed women of that district have freedom to spend 100% of salary, tells upon the position of employed women in the district. A fair number of all the categories of employees come under this group.

Table 5.17

Distribution of the Sample by Freedom to Spend

TVM District									TSR District									KKD District									
	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DT	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DT	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DT	GT		
Nil	1	1	3	4	4	4	2	19 [9]	5	0	1	1	9	6	9	31 [15]	2	0	0	3	4	7	9	25 [12]	75 [12]		
> 25%	11	10	5	13	16	6	4	65 [31]	20	9	10	6	14	13	5	77 [37]	9	5	5	5	10	6	2	42 [20]	184 [29]		
25-50%	7	3	4	3	9	1	3	30 [14]	2	9	8	5	4	2	3	33 [16]	5	1	7	7	6	1	1	28 [13]	91 [14]		
50-75%	3	6	4	3	1	5	3	25 [12]	0	5	2	3	0	2	5	17 [8]	3	5	7	4	2	1	3	25 [12]	67 [11]		
100 - %	8	10	14	7	0	14	18	71 [34]	3	7	9	15	3	7	8	52 [25]	11	19	11	11	8	15	15	90 [43]	213 [34]		
Total	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	210	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	210	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	210	630		

Source: Compiled from primary data.

χ^2 Value = 49.97*

Many who earn the lowest income such as the factory workers and the self-employed have freedom to spend the whole of their salary. This shows that income alone does not determine the power to spend. The fact that they

are employed and contributing to the family income itself make them powerful. That is why more than 15% of the low earning group in TVM and KKD have full freedom to spend the whole of their income.

Distribution of the Sample by Nature of Bank Account

It is a good sign to see that 58% of women have personal account and 18% have joint accounts. But 24% do not have any bank account. In district-wise comparison, TVM district has maximum number of women with bank accounts (83%). In that district, there is only 17% without any account. TSR district has 30% of such women. The category with maximum number of women, without any bank account are, the factory workers. While they are trying hard to make both ends meet, they cannot think of depositing in banks. The next majority of women with no account fall in the self employed category. The summarised view is that, the college teachers, bank and government employees are in a superior position in possessing personal accounts. Around 77% of college and bank employees and 70% of government employees have personal accounts. They are followed by school teachers with 60% and nurses with 51%.

Table 5.18

Distribution of the Sample by Nature of Bank Account

TVM District									TSR District									KKD District									
	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DT	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DT	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DT	GT		
No A/C	1	0	0	5	6	19	6	37 [17]	3	2	0	0	17	26	14	62 [30]	6	1	0	0	10	25	9	51 [24]	150 [24]		
Personal A/C	22	27	26	16	17	10	20	138 [66]	15	22	22	26	11	4	10	110 [52]	17	20	20	21	18	5	16	117 [56]	365 [58]		
Joint A/C	7	3	4	9	7	1	4	35 [17]	12	6	8	4	2	0	6	38 [18]	7	9	10	9	2	0	5	42 [20]	115 [18]		
Total	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	210	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	210	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	210	630		

Source: Compiled from primary data

χ^2 Value = 217.54*

Distribution of the Sample by Amount of Savings

The possession of personal account among employed women shows a fair picture. Table 5.19 reveals that the number of account holders diminish with the increase in the level of amount. 52% have a deposit below 25,000 followed by 9% with amounts between 25,000 and 50,000, 8% with amount between Rs.50,000 and 1 lakh, and 3% each have above 1 lakh and above 2 lakhs. 26% have either no account or no amount in their account. A great majority of workers, viz., the self employed and nurses fall either in the group of no account/ amount or amount below Rs.25,000.

Table 5.19
Distribution of the Sample by Amount of Savings

TVM District									TSR District								KKD District								
	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DT	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DT	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DT	GT
< 25,000	23	16	22	13	21	9	14	118 [56]	20	14	12	24	14	5	11	100 [47]	13	15	20	21	16	5	17	107 [51]	325 [52]
25,001-50,000	2	6	1	3	1	2	2	17 [8]	1	4	7	1	1	0	0	14 [7]	5	6	3	6	2	1	1	24 [12]	55 [9]
50,001-1,00,000	2	2	3	2	1	3	2	15 [7]	4	5	8	1	0	0	0	18 [9]	4	3	5	0	1	1	1	15 [7]	48 [8]
100001-200000	0	1	2	0	1	0	1	5 [3]	0	1	1	3	0	0	0	5 [2]	2	2	2	1	0	1	0	8 [4]	18 [3]
> 2,00,000	1	4	0	2	0	0	0	7 [3]	1	1	2	0	0	0	2	6 [3]	1	2	0	1	1	0	0	5 [2]	18 [3]
No A/C / Amt.	2	1	2	10	6	16	11	48 [23]	4	5	0	1	15	25	17	67 [32]	5	2	0	1	10	22	11	51 [24]	166 [26]
Total	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	210	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	210	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	210	630

Source: Compiled from primary data

χ^2 Value = 217.98*

Distribution of the Sample by Possession of Household Equipments

Possession of various assets and equipments tells upon the welfare of a person or a family. Table 5.20 exhibits the various assets possessed by employed women and their family. Items are arranged from mixy to computer

and internet in such a way as to assess the comparative degree of welfare. It is quite interesting to note that 87 of the employees ie., 14%, possess all items mentioned in the questionnaire namely, mixy, telephone, T.V., fridge, washing machine, car, computer and internet facilities. This shows that, they are enjoying almost all the facilities of a developed economy. TVM district has got the maximum number of women who possess all these items.

Table 5.20
Distribution of the Sample by Possession of Household Equipments

TVM District									TSR District								KKD District									
	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DT	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DT	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DT	GT	
All Items	1	17	17	0	2	0	1	38 [18]	1	8	11	5	0	0	2	27 [13]	2	4	8	5	1	0	2	22 [10]	87 [14]	
All except Car	6	3	0	1	1	0	0	11 [5]	0	0	2	3	1	0	0	6 [3]	3	4	2	3	0	0	0	12 [6]	29 [5]	
Items 1-4	4	7	3	2	1	1	8	26 [12]	10	5	8	9	1	0	5	38 [18]	2	6	10	2	2	0	1	23 [11]	87 [14]	
Items 1-3	10	3	7	18	8	12	11	69 [33]	12	13	8	10	2	2	8	55 [26]	13	16	10	13	14	1	16	83 [40]	207 [33]	
Items 1&2	3	0	0	5	6	14	7	35 [17]	1	1	1	0	7	8	6	24 [11]	5	0	0	3	4	4	4	20 [10]	79 [13]	
Item 2 Only	3	0	1	4	0	1	3	12 [6]	3	1	0	1	8	3	4	20 [10]	3	0	0	2	1	1	4	11 [5]	43 [7]	
Item 1 Only	2	0	2	0	7	2	0	13 [6]	3	2	0	1	2	1	0	9 [4]	2	0	0	1	5	2	1	11 [5]	33 [5]	
None	1	0	0	0	5	0	0	6 [3]	0	0	0	1	9	16	5	31 [15]	0	0	0	1	3	22	2	28 [13]	65 [11]	
Total	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	210	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	210	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	210	630	
* Item 1-Mixy/Grinder, 2- Telephone,TV, 3- Fridge/Washing machine, 4-Car, 5-Computer/Internet																										

Source: Compiled from primary data

χ^2 Value = 67.54*

Distribution of the Sample by Amount of Borrowings

On the one hand employees possess a variety of household equipments and on the other, they have liabilities also. Table 5.21 shows the extent of liabilities. Actually these liabilities do not mean personal liabilities but, incurred for the requirements of the family. It is noteworthy that 46% of the employees do not have any liability. More than two-third of nurses (21 in

TVM, 23 in TSR and 24 in KKD) and a good number of government employees and self employed come in this group. Workers in TVM district show a tendency to borrow since they have government and co-operative sources for borrowing and an aspiration for high standard of living due to better salary. Borrowing seems to be influenced by income level. There is more borrowings when there is means for repayment i.e., higher income or salary. Greater number of bank employees, government employees and college teachers have greater amount of borrowings when compared to the low earning categories.

Table 5.21
Distribution of the Sample by Amount of Borrowings

	TVM District								TSR District								KKD District								GT
	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DT	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DT	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DT	
Nil	17	19	8	17	21	10	11	103	12	15	8	11	23	7	15	91	19	9	13	12	24	9	12	98	292
Below 50,000	4	3	5	4	3	6	8	33	11	1	1	1	2	21	11	48	6	8	1	2	5	19	13	54	135
50001-100000	6	5	2	3	4	7	5	32	4	5	4	8	2	2	2	27	2	8	3	5	1	0	1	20	79
100001-250000	2	1	1	4	2	2	3	15	3	5	9	4	3	0	1	25	2	1	3	7	0	1	3	17	57
250001-500000	1	1	9	2	0	4	2	19	0	4	8	4	0	0	1	17	0	2	9	2	0	0	1	14	50
above 5,00,000	0	1	5	0	0	1	1	8	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	2	1	2	1	2	0	1	0	7	17
Total	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	210	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	210	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	210	630

Source: Compiled from primary data

χ^2 Value = 117.84*

Distribution of the Sample by Source of Borrowings

Access to the banks and other recognised financial institutions gives an idea about the development of any society, institution or individual. Table 5.22 tells us the different sources from which employed women get their borrowings. As revealed in the previous table here also 292 have reported of having no liability. So total borrowers are only 338. It is a striking fact that the majority in the sample, 191, i.e., 57% of the borrowers take their loans

from banks and 74, (22%) from co-operatives. A small number of them have taken loans from LIC, self-help groups in rural areas, ayalkuttams etc., which comes to 90. It is a self-employed woman under the people's plan who had taken loans from S.H.G's and ayalkuttams. All others in this group have taken loan from the LIC and Credit unions in the rural areas. Some of them have taken loans from friends and relatives. It is a very good sign that only 6% have approached the moneylenders. The maximum number who have approached the money lenders are in the worker category. If we club together Banks, co-operatives and LIC, the percentage comes to 85%. This shows that employment has made women aware of the various sources of finance like banks, co-operatives, LIC etc and has dissuaded them approaching the money lenders.

Table 5.22
Distribution of the Sample by Source of Borrowings

TVM District									TSR District									KKD District									
	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DT	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DT		S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DT		GT
Money Lender	1	0	0	1	1	1	1	5 [2]	0	0	1	0	0	4	0	5 [3]		0	0	0	0	2	6	1	9 [4]		19 [3]
Friends	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	2 [1]	1	0	0	0	0	2	2	5 [2]		0	0	0	0	1	2	1	4 [2]		11 [2]
Relatives	3	2	2	1	0	2	2	12 [6]	2	1	0	0	0	0	3	6 [3]		1	1	0	0	1	1	0	4 [2]		22 [3]
Co-operatives	3	1	5	9	1	8	1	28 [13]	1	1	3	9	3	11	5	33 [16]		2	4	0	3	0	0	4	13 [6]		74 [12]
Banks	5	7	15	2	4	9	13	55 [26]	11	11	17	7	4	4	5	59 [28]		8	14	17	14	1	11	12	77 [37]		191 [30]
LIC, S.H.G etc *	1	0	0	0	3	0	1	5 [2]	3	2	1	3	0	2	0	11 [5]		0	2	0	1	1	1	0	5 [2]		21 [3]
No Liability	17	20	8	17	21	9	11	103 [49]	12	15	8	11	23	7	15	91 [43]		19	9	13	12	24	9	12	98 [47]		292 [46]
Total	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	210	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	210		30	30	30	30	30	30	30	210		630

(S.H.G = Self Help Groups)

Source: Compiled from primary data

χ^2 Value = 94.59*

Distribution of the Sample by Help in Household Work

51% of women employees revealed that they get help from their husbands in house hold work. 10% of women get help from their children. 17% get help from other family members. 22% said that they get no help in house hold work. It is a very good sign that the husbands of more than 505 women in the sample have broken up the age-old tradition of setting apart all household work for women. The picture of traditional husband and wife is changing, at least in the families of 50% of the employed women. Still it is quite bad that 22% of the employed women get no help at all in fulfilling their role of house-wife. They will be taking upon themselves much strain and burden to fulfill the double role.

Table 5.23

Distribution of the Sample by Help in Household Work

TVM District									TSR District									KKD District									
	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DT	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DT	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DT	GT		
No Help	7	1	2	8	9	11	5	43 [20]	4	4	7	3	18	6	8	50 [24]	2	7	5	5	12	8	4	43 [20]	136 [22]		
Husband	14	23	19	19	14	8	11	108 [52]	17	23	19	18	3	5	12	97 [46]	25	20	19	19	14	3	15	115 [55]	320 [51]		
Children	2	3	3	2	1	6	8	25 [12]	1	1	1	1	0	8	4	16 [8]	1	1	1	0	2	13	7	25 [12]	66 [10]		
Others	7	3	6	1	6	5	6	34 [16]	8	2	3	8	9	11	6	47 [22]	2	2	5	6	2	6	4	27 [13]	108 [17]		
Total	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	210	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	210	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	210	630		

Source: Compiled from primary data

χ^2 Value = 6.41

Distribution of the Sample by Distance from Office to Residence

Some of the self employed women, are doing their business at their residence itself. 156 of them have work –place in a walkable distance of less than 1k.m. 194 of them can reach the workplace within a few minutes since it is less than 5 k.m. 138 of them may have to get some type of conveyance to

reach the work place, since the distance is in between 5 and 10 k.m. They cannot come for work without getting regular, timely conveyance. They may have to finish up the family chores in a haste and rush to the bus stops or railway station, in order to reach the office in time. The last category, coming from a distance above 25 kilo metres, will really find the journey as a burden. And it may give them a lot of mental and physical strain. Only 53 in the sample ie., 8% come in this category. Those who travel in between 10 and 25 kilo metres come to 11%. Total of them ie, 19% will find the journey difficult; for others (81%), journey is not felt a problem.

Table 5.24

Distribution Of The Sample By distance From Office To Residence

TVM District									TSR District									KKD District								
	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DT	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DT		S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DT	GT
Nil	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	5 [3]	0	0	0	0	0	0	9	9 [4]		0	0	0	0	0	0	3	3 [1]	17 [3]
< 1 km	8	2	2	0	8	1	11	32 [15]	8	8	7	1	5	15	16	60 [29]		9	8	3	4	10	17	13	64 [30]	156 [25]
1-5 km	5	8	14	19	6	3	8	63 [30]	7	9	11	11	1	12	3	54 [26]		10	15	14	15	7	6	10	77 [37]	194 [31]
5-10 km	8	15	11	11	4	11	3	63 [30]	7	1	6	12	10	3	1	40 [19]		6	3	5	11	4	4	2	35 [17]	138 [22]
10-25 km	6	4	2	0	0	13	3	28 [13]	5	7	5	5	4	0	1	27 [13]		4	2	4	0	4	1	2	17 [8]	72 [11]
> 25 km	3	1	1	0	12	2	0	19 [9]	3	5	1	1	10	0	0	20 [9]		1	2	4	0	5	2	0	14 [7]	53 [8]
Total	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	210	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	210		30	30	30	30	30	30	30	210	630

Source: Compiled from primary data

 χ^2 Value = 5.78

Closeness to workplace is maximum for the self employed women. Some have business in the same compound, and some others in the nearest shop or building or at the maximum in the nearest town or market. So the majority of self employed falls within the range of 5 kilo metres, their number being 24 in TVM, 28 in TSR and 26 in KKD district. This is one of the advantages of entering into a self employed business. The entrepreneur decides where to do the work. She can fix it at the nearest possible place.

A good number of employees of all categories except nurses have residence within a distance of 5 kilo metres from workplace. A good number of nurses come among those who travel the maximum distance of above 25 kilo metres.

Distribution of the Sample by Possession of Driving License

Only 26% of women possess a driving license. Among them, those who drive car are 17%. Those who drive two wheeler alone are 9%. District-wise comparison shows that TVM District has more LMV (Light Motor Vehicle) license holders, their number being 39, compared to 25 and 26 in the other two Districts. TSR has more two-wheeler license holders, 29 against 14 in TVM and 13 in KKD. Factory workers have the minimum number of licenses. Bank employees are leading with 46 ie, more than 50% license holders. College teachers and government employees constitute 39%. 17 school teachers have licenses (20%). The fact that a good number of employed women (20-50%) in certain categories possess driving licence is a positive sign towards women empowerment.

Table 5.25

Distribution of the Sample by Possession of Driving License

TVM District									TSR District								KKD District								
	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DT	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DT	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DT	GT
No Licence	20	16	17	25	26	29	19	152 [72]	26	20	11	14	26	28	25	150 [71]	27	19	16	17	28	30	26	163 [78]	465 [74]
Two-Wheeler	4	1	3	3	3	0	0	14 [7]	1	4	10	11	1	2	0	29 [14]	1	3	4	5	0	0	0	13 [6]	56 [9]
L.M.V	6	12	9	2	1	0	9	39 [19]	3	4	7	4	3	0	4	25 [12]	2	7	7	7	0	0	3	26 [12]	90 [14]
Both	0	1	1	0	0	1	2	5 [2]	0	2	2	1	0	0	1	6 [3]	0	1	3	1	2	0	1	8 [4]	19 [3]
Total	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	210	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	210	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	210	630

Source: Compiled from primary data

χ^2 Value = 7.64

Distribution of the Sample by Physical or Mental Strain Because of Journey

Table 5.26 evaluates the extent of strain experienced by the employees due to journey to work place. Out of 630 employees, only 36% report that they experience either physical or mental strain. The great majority of 64% do not consider journey as strainful. District-wise distribution doesn't show much variation from the percentages mentioned above. Those who experience strain are only 40%, 33% and 35% respectively for TVM, TSR, KKD. More women in TVM District experience the strain of journey.

Table 5.26
Distribution of the Sample by Physical or Mental Strain
Because of Journey

TVM District									TSR District								KKD District								
	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DT	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DT	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DT	GT
Strain	15	6	8	11	12	23	8	83 [40]	14	8	5	7	19	11	5	69 [33]	9	8	12	3	13	15	13	73 [35]	225 [36]
No Strain	15	24	22	19	18	7	22	127 [60]	16	22	25	23	11	19	25	141 [67]	21	22	18	27	17	15	17	137 [65]	405 [64]
Total	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	210	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	210	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	210	630

Source: Compiled from primary data

χ^2 Value = 6.41

Distribution of the Sample by Positive Effect of Employment

Table 5.27 tells us how employed women feel about themselves, regarding the effect of employment on their personality and level of achievement. It is a very good sign that a great majority of women, ie., 79% asserted that employment had a positive effect on their lives, as against 21% who confessed that it has affected their talents negatively.

Though 40% of them expressed strain due to journey, (in Table 5.26) 81% are happy about the positive effect which means that employment help

them with much more benefits that can counterbalance the negative ones, such as difficulty in journey.

Table 5.27
Distribution of the Sample by Positive Effect of Employment

TVM District									TSR District									KKD District								
	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DT	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DT		S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DT	GT
Positive Effect	25	26	23	20	26	29	27	176 [84]	30	24	26	20	24	20	26	170 [81]		22	26	14	21	26	16	27	152 [72]	498 [79]
Negative Effect	5	4	7	10	4	1	3	34 [16]	0	6	4	10	6	10	4	40 [19]		8	4	16	9	4	14	3	58 [28]	132 [21]
Total	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	210	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	210		30	30	30	30	30	30	30	210	630

Source: Compiled from primary data

χ^2 Value = 63.87*

Special features to note are the following. All the school teachers in TSR district report that employment have affected them positively. All the workers in TVM except one has also the same opinion, contrary to the results obtained in the other two districts where one-third have expressed their feeling of negative effect. As mentioned before, this variation is due to the additional facilities and better pay enjoyed by the public sector factory employees in TVM district. It is the workers and Bank employees who have brought down the percentage of positive effect in KKD district to 72 compared to 84% of TVM. It is monotony and repetitive nature of work done in bank, lack of leisure and holidays, distance from home etc., that make bank employees feel that employment has affected their talents. Workers in the private sector are really in a different situation. Like coir and plywood workers, majority of all other categories, including nurses who do a very strainful job feel that employment has a positive effect on them. Almost one-third of the government employees feel that work has brought a negative effect on them. Close to them are the bank employees totalling 27 (16 from KKD, 7 from TVM and 4 from TCR). Nurses (14), College teachers (14) and

school teachers (13) are categories with the minimum number having negative effect.

Conclusion

In this chapter, the various aspects of the sample under study, such as age, experience, income, residence, financial status, etc., are analysed. This brings to light the special features of the sample under study. It is found that the sample is representative, since it includes women from all age groups, income groups, experience etc., Therefore, it is hoped that the results of the study will be more reliable, reasonable and realistic. Here it seems useful to analyse the extent of empowerment of women in various types of employment, which is done in the next chapter. When we analyse the scores of the empowerment elements in the next chapter, it will be helpful in getting a more reliable picture of empowerment of women in various types of employment.

MEASURING EMPOWERMENT - II

Rosa K.D. “Empowerment of women through employment ” Thesis.
Department of Commerce and Management Studies , University of Calicut,
2004

Chapter VI
Measuring Empowerment – II

CHAPTER VI

MEASURING EMPOWERMENT- II

INTRODUCTION

In the prevailing socio-economic conditions of Kerala, employment is considered to be the main factor contributing to the empowerment of women. If employment leads to empowerment in organization, it will have a linkage effect on family and society. Thus the employed woman becomes a tool in uplifting women in general. To assess this chain effect, it is necessary to study the empowerment of women in the organization first. This is to be followed by an analysis of its effect on the family empowerment and thereby in the society. An attempt is made in this chapter to study this chain effect in Section I through IV. The degree of empowerment is measured, by analysing the scores obtained for various empowerment elements.

As explained in chapter one, Satisfaction Index is the main tool used to measure the degree of empowerment. The Index was calculated for all the 91 statements. The statements are grouped into 11 heads, namely,

- | | |
|---------------------|-------------------------------------|
| 1. Team Work, | 7. Employer-Employee Relationship, |
| 2. Leadership, | 8. Job Satisfaction, |
| 3. Communication, | 9. Empowerment in Family, |
| 4. Performance, | 10. Empowerment in Society and |
| 5. Self-confidence, | 11. Negative Effects of Employment. |
| 6. Creativity, | |

The cumulative Index was calculated for each element, sub-element, and each category of employees. The points were distributed as follows: 1. For Strongly Disagree $-[-2]$, 2. Disagree $-[-1]$, 3. Undecided $-[0]$, 4. Agree $-$

[1], 5. Strongly Agree –[2]. The frequencies for the choices were counted for each of the 7 subgroups in the 3 districts separately and collectively.

The formula used to calculate the satisfaction index is

$$\text{Satisfaction Index} = [(-2 * f_1 + -1 * f_2 + 0 * f_3 + 1 * f_4 + 2 * f_5) / (2 * N)] * 100$$

where,

f_1 = frequency for Strongly Disagree, f_2 = frequency for Disagree

f_3 = frequency for Undecided, f_4 = frequency for Agree and

f_5 = frequency for Strongly Agree

N = The number of the respondents in the subgroups (30), districts (210) and the whole sample (630) as the case may be.

Satisfaction index will be evaluated as follows:

Between 1 and 33.33 = less favourable

Between 33.33 and 66.66 = moderately favourable

Above 66.66 = highly favourable.

An analysis of the Satisfaction index calculated for each statement under the various heads was done and empowerment in the organisation, in the family and the society was measured. Empowerment in the organisation is split into two; namely, empowerment at work-place and empowerment within the person. Firstly, empowerment at work place is discussed through the analysis of indices for the four elements of empowerment, derived from the definition of Nancy Foy, namely, 1. Team work 2. Communication 3. Leadership and 4. Performance

The Process of Empowerment through Employment

A woman when employed, undergoes a lot of transformation in her personality. The decision to join the work force and to take up an employment

itself confers on the woman a certain degree of self- confidence. She feels her worth and considers herself able and fit for an employment. By this decision-making she lifts herself up from the vicious circle of reproductive roles that confined her to the four walls of her house, to the wider world of production and service. The world of an unemployed woman revolves round her husband, children and household chores all the twenty four hours. But an employed woman enters a wider world- a world of remunerative work, organisational and social relationships. Along with fulfilling the work entrusted to her, she interacts with a lot of other women who share the same experiences and feelings with her and a lot of men too. The atmosphere of an office or factory is very much different from the family atmosphere. By taking up a responsible job and dealing with many customers and clients, her circle of interaction enlarges; her vision broadens. Her intellectual capabilities enhance and her personality develops. She starts growing into a more complete person with a unique personality, will and intellect.

SECTION I: EMPOWERMENT AT WORK PLACE

6.1. Teamwork

In an organizational set up, a woman may not be working alone. There will be a boss to give directions, colleagues who share similar jobs and subordinates who are supposed to act according to her instructions. Intimate interactions among these team members play an important role in moulding her professional personality. Through sharing of ideas, feedback and encouragement from the team members, she attains the expertise needed to perform her job in a perfect manner. This increases her self-confidence and self esteem.

6.2. Communication

There is an atmosphere of constant communication between the boss, team members and the subordinates. This constant communication imparts a great degree of information and knowledge needed to carry out the day today affairs as well as the immediate and permanent goals of the team and of the whole organisation. Her individuality develops through communication.

6.3. Leadership

By undertaking responsibilities and dealing with customers, colleagues and subordinates, she develops the leadership qualities in her, which was in a dormant stage before. She may not assume the post of a leader, but may exhibit leadership qualities.

6.4. Performance

Fulfilling of the tasks entrusted to her repeatedly, enhances the quality of her performance. In performance appraisal by self and others, she may be ranked high. She may receive appreciation, awards or rewards for her performance. Superiors may congratulate her on account of her unique performance in evaluation meetings. All these will further help her to develop her personality. And she is set on the road to EMPOWERMENT.

6.1. TEAMWORK

A woman, when employed, gets out of herself and interacts with others. Whomever she interacts with, within the organization is known as the 'team', in the present context.

There are 8 elements under teamwork, namely, 1. involvement in teamwork, 2. expression of ideas and opinions in the team, 3. increase in effectiveness, 4. mutual trust and respect among team members, 5. harmony and enthusiasm among the team members, 6. helping attitude, 7. increase in

creativity and 8. consideration of opinions by the team members. The degree of empowerment achieved through involvement in teamwork of the employed women in the sample is examined here.

Table 6. 1
Satisfaction Index on Teamwork

Thiruvananthapuram District									Thrissur District								Kozhikode District								
*	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DI	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DI	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	T	CI
1	72	60	45	48	58	82	90	65	68	43	60	35	70	68	82	61	58	37	57	62	45	58	85	57	61
2	63	58	45	48	57	75	87	62	68	52	52	47	63	58	78	60	52	38	52	58	48	62	87	57	59
3	68	58	42	50	63	77	82	63	67	53	55	42	70	65	75	61	52	40	43	57	48	57	82	54	59
4	55	53	45	47	62	72	87	60	60	45	60	43	62	55	80	58	40	43	53	63	38	42	78	51	56
5	50	47	40	55	53	62	87	56	55	48	53	35	52	65	73	55	48	40	53	62	35	40	75	50	54
6	52	42	38	53	60	67	85	57	55	53	58	48	58	57	77	58	53	45	52	63	37	40	78	53	56
7	67	50	43	52	62	70	88	62	57	53	60	40	72	55	75	59	57	35	52	60	60	37	83	55	58
8	55	37	37	53	37	72	85	54	57	50	52	32	57	55	75	54	43	37	45	50	37	38	83	48	52
A	60	51	42	51	56	72	86	60	61	50	56	40	63	60	77	58	50	39	51	59	44	47	81	53	57

1. Involvement in teamwork 2. Expression of ideas and opinions in the team 3. Increase in effectiveness 4. Mutual trust and respect among team members 5. Harmony and enthusiasm among the team members 6. Helping attitude 8. Increase in creativity 8. Consideration of opinions by the team members. A = Average.

Source: Compiled from primary data

Note: Abbreviations used in the table:

S= School Teacher, C= College Teacher, B= Bank Employee, G= Government Employee, N= Nurse, W= Factory worker, SE= Self Employed, DI=Index for the district, CI= Cumulative Index for the sample and A= Average Index .

6.1.1. Involvement in Teamwork

The overall index, 61 is near the moderately favourable index range. It is nearer to the upper limit of the moderately favourable range. This shows that the employed women have a positive attitude towards teamwork. The district-wise indices are 65 for TVM, 61 for TSR and 57 for KKD. The lowest of all indices is 35 for Government employees in TSR district.

In TVM district, index for three categories are highly favourable; 90 for self-employed; 82 for workers; and 72 for school teachers. All other values are in the moderately favourable range, varying from 60 to 45.

If we make a category-wise analysis, in all the three districts, the self-employed have the highest indices of 90, 82 and 85. Being self-employed, they are giving leadership to all the activities in the unit and they really get involved in teamwork and grow through it. The uniquely high indices for the self-employed for all the elements bear witness to that. The next best score is for workers with 82, 68 and 58.

6.1.2. Expression of Ideas and Opinions in the Team

The overall index is 59, which is moderately favourable. The district-wise indices are 62, 60 and 57. The category-wise highest index is 87, for the self-employed of TVM, and KKD districts. The lowest index is 38 for the college teachers of KKD. Thus all the indices fall within the highly favourable range or moderately favourable range. For this element also, the self-employed are in the fore-front with 87 each for TVM and KKD and 78 for TSR.

6.1.3. Increase in Effectiveness

The index for this element is 59 which is moderately favourable. District-wise indices are 63, 61 and 54. The highest index is 82 for the self-employed in TVM and KKD. The lowest index is 40 for college teachers in KKD district. Therefore, all the indices lie either in the highly favourable range or in the moderately favourable range.

6.1.4. Mutual Trust and Respect among Team Members

The overall index is 56 which is moderately favourable. The highest index of 60 is for TVM district followed by TSR with 58 and KKD with 51. The highest category-wise index is 87 for the self-employed in TVM. The lowest index is 38 for nurses in KKD district. So all the indices fall either in the highly favourable or moderately favourable range.

The results show that there is moderate amount of trust and respect among team members. District-wise and category-wise analyses also show that. None of the indices fall in the less than favourable range. The self-employed women have a high degree of mutual trust and respect. The business being run either by a group of women, or by a woman with the help of a team, its success depends to a great extent on the mutual trust and respect among team members. Figures disprove the general idea that women as a group cannot entertain these qualities. Workers in TVM district also have a highly favourable index of 72.

6.1.5. Harmony and enthusiasm among the Team Members

The overall index is 54. The district-wise indices are 56, 55 and 50. All the values are moderately favourable. The category-wise highest index is 87, for the self-employed in TVM district. The lowest index is 35, for government employees in TSR district and nurses in KKD district. So all the categories have either highly favourable or moderately favourable indices. The highest score in all the three districts is for the self-employed.

6.1.6. Helping Attitude

The overall index is 56. District-wise indices are 57, 58 and 53. All these fall in the moderately favourable range. In all the 3 districts, the self-employed are in the highly favourable range, with 85 for TVM, 77 for TSR and 78 for KKD. The lowest indices are 38 for Bank employees in TVM, 48 for Government employees in TSR and 37 for nurses in KKD. So all the indices are either highly favourable or moderately favourable.

6.1.7. Increase in Creativity

General index is 58. District-wise indices are 62, 59 and 55. All the values are moderately favourable and the category-wise highest indices in all the 3 districts are for the self-employed; 88, 75 and 83. The lowest indices are

35 for college teachers in KKD, 40 for Government employees in TSR and 43 for bank employees in TVM. So all the indices are either in the highly favourable or moderately favourable range. The results show that employment has a good role in increasing creativity.

6.1.7. Consideration of Opinions by the Team Members

This element has got the lowest of all indices in the whole group, i.e. 52. TVM and TSR have 54 each and KKD 48. All these values are moderately favourable. In all the three districts, the highest index is for the self-employed; 85 in TVM, 75 in TSR and 83 in KKD, all falling in the highly favourable range. The lowest value is 32 for the Government employees in TSR district, which is just below the favourable range.

Of all the 8 elements, this is the one, which has the lowest general, district-wise and category-wise indices. For the self-employed alone, it maintains a high index. It is indispensable, since it is they who decide what is to be done in their business, it is quite natural that their opinion be taken seriously by others.

To summarise, all the eight statements under the heading teamwork have got moderately favourable indices ranging from 61 to 52. For seven out of 8 statements, TVM district has comparatively higher indices. In all the three districts, the self employed has got highly favourable indices, ranging from 90 to 73. In TVM, the values range from 90 to 82. The lowest scores are for Nurses and College Teachers in KKD district, Government employees in TSR district and Bank Employees in TVM district. The row 'A' gives the category-wise average indices for all the sub-elements under the head 'team-work'. The cumulative average index is 57. District-wise indices are 60, 58 and 53. All these indices are moderately favourable. Category-wise average index is the highest for the self-employed. (86, 77 and 81).

Table 6.1.1

Paired Correlation between Variables in Table 6.1

V ₁ V ₂ 0.64	V ₁ V ₃ 0.42	V ₁ V ₄ 0.57	V ₁ V ₅ 0.33	V ₁ V ₆ 0.24	V ₁ V ₇ 0.18	V ₁ V ₈ 0.42
	V ₂ V ₃ 0.22	V ₂ V ₄ 0.51	V ₂ V ₅ 0.71	V ₂ V ₆ 0.33	V ₂ V ₇ 0.24	V ₂ V ₈ 0.07
		V ₃ V ₄ 0.51	V ₃ V ₅ 0.61	V ₃ V ₆ 0.33	V ₃ V ₇ 0.08	V ₃ V ₈ 0.93
			V ₄ V ₅ 0.58	V ₄ V ₆ 0.71	V ₄ V ₇ 0.27	V ₄ V ₈ 0.17
				V ₅ V ₆ 0.11	V ₅ V ₇ 0.94	V ₅ V ₈ 0.37
					V ₆ V ₇ 0.33	V ₆ V ₈ 0.39
						V ₇ V ₈ 0.58

Significant correlation is seen in the case of 11 paired relationships. Variable 1 namely involvement in teamwork is highly related to two other variables namely, expression of ideas and opinions in the team and mutual trust and respect among members. Variable no.2 namely expression of ideas and opinion is highly correlated to other two variables namely mutual trust and respect among members and harmony and enthusiasm among team members. Variable no.3 is highly correlated to three other variables namely mutual trust and respect among members, harmony and enthusiasm among members and consideration of opinion by team members. Variable no.4 namely mutual trust and respect among members is highly correlated to all the variables except variable 7 and 8. Variable no.5 is highly correlated to all variables except three. Variable no. 6 namely helping attitude has high correlation only with one element namely mutual trust and respect among members. Variable no. 8 has high correlation only with two variables namely

increase in effectiveness and increase in creativity. The paired correlation show that there is conformity among the variables under the head, teamwork.

6.2. COMMUNICATION

This is one of the important elements of empowerment in the organization. The sub-elements under study are 1. Knowledge of the goal of the team. 2. Communicating the goal to the team members. 3. Power through knowledge 4. Presence of effective communication channel. 5. Co-operation through communication 6. Solving problems through communication. 7. Seeking feedback and 8. Taking decisions through discussion. Table 6.2 presents the satisfaction indices on all these elements, district-wise for all the seven categories of employees in the three districts.

Table 6.2
Satisfaction Index on Communication

	Thiruvananthapuram District								Thrissur District								Kozhikode District								CI
	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DI	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DI	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DI	
1	52	57	40	57	50	67	83	58	75	57	58	47	63	57	85	63	53	47	50	58	55	38	80	55	58
2	55	58	40	60	55	60	80	58	70	53	58	47	62	55	70	59	53	50	52	55	45	35	72	52	56
3	75	65	60	67	75	73	85	71	80	63	67	60	80	68	87	72	58	53	55	63	65	63	83	63	69
4	57	45	38	52	53	67	78	56	65	45	53	23	68	50	75	54	48	40	37	60	60	40	75	51	54
5	75	73	50	68	65	70	87	70	70	70	58	57	75	58	83	67	60	57	58	65	67	53	73	62	66
6	65	68	48	63	70	65	85	66	68	63	62	55	77	57	87	67	60	52	60	63	63	55	75	61	65
7	53	57	40	45	42	70	78	55	63	62	50	52	77	60	83	64	58	57	48	57	40	62	73	56	58
8	60	67	35	62	63	72	88	64	53	65	58	50	70	63	82	63	53	58	60	63	43	60	78	60	62
A	61	61	44	59	59	68	83	62	68	60	58	49	71	59	81	64	56	52	53	61	55	51	76	57	61

1. Knowledge of the goal of the team. 2. Communicating the goal to the team members. 3. Power through knowledge. 4. Presence of effective communication channel. 5. Co-operation through communication. 6. Solving problems through communication. 7. Seeking feedback and 8. Taking decisions through discussions.

Source: Compiled from primary data

6.2.1. Knowledge of the Goal of the Team

The overall index for this element is 58, which is moderately favourable. In the district-wise indices, TSR district is leading with 63 points as against 58 for TVM and 55 for KKD. The highest score of 85 is for the self employed in TSR and the lowest is 38 for the workers in KKD district. All the indices for this element are either in the highly or moderately favourable range.

6.2.2. Communicating the Goal to the Team Members.

The overall index is 56. The highest district-wise index is 59 for TSR district. TVM has 58 and KKD has only 52. Highest category-wise index is for the self employed in TVM district (80). The lowest index is 35 for the workers in KKD district. Thus all the indices fall either in the highly favourable or moderately favourable range.

Except the bank employees in TVM, government employees in TSR and workers and nurses in KKD, all the categories have a good index. This shows that the goal of the organization is properly communicated to the team members.

6.2.3. Power Through Knowledge

This element has got a highly favourable index of 69. TVM and TSR have highly favourable indices of 71 and 72. Though lower than the other two districts, KKD has 63, the highest of its indices, compared to its score for all other elements. The highest category-wise index is 87 for the self-employed in TSR district and the lowest 53 for college teachers in KKD.

It is a good sign that all the categories in all districts are confident about the knowledge in the area of their profession and the awareness that

they are gaining power through knowledge. This element has got significant scores for all categories.

6.2.4. Presence of Effective Communication Channel

The success of an organisation depends upon providing the necessary information in time to various levels. The effectiveness of Communication Channels in organisations is evaluated here. The overall index, 54, though not very high, is moderately favourable. The category-wise indices are low for this element. The highest index is 78 for the self-employed in TVM. The lowest is 23, a less than favourable index for government employees in TSR district. This is an eye-opener showing that our Govt. offices do not have effective communication Channels. This is one of the reasons for the poor performance of the Govt. offices as well as the public sector. Though there are low indices for a few categories, the overall picture is fair.

6.2.5. Co-operation Through Communication

Co-operation is the corner stone to success of any organization or endeavour. Anyway it has got a highly favourable index of 66, which is the second best of all indices under this group. TVM and TSR have got highly favourable indices of 70 and 67 and KKD has 62, which is moderately favourable. The highest as well as the lowest indices are in TVM district, i.e., 87 for the self-employed and 50 for the bank employees. Except for a few categories, very high indices are marked for this element.

6.2.6. Solving Problems Through Communication

The overall index is 65, which is just near the highly favourable range. All the three districts have indices above 60. TSR has 67, TVM 66 and KKD 61. The highest index is 87 for the self-employed in TSR district. The lowest is 48, for the bank employees in TVM.

6.2.7. Seeking Feedback

The overall index is 58, which is moderately favourable. The district-wise indices are 55, 64 and 56. The highest category-wise index is 83 for the self-employed in TSR and the lowest is 40 for the bank employees in TVM and the nurses in KKD. This is the first time, nurses are getting a low score under this head. Nurses in TVM also have a low score of 42. All the indices are either in the highly or moderately favourable range. This may be due to the nature of their job, where feedback is not often received.

6.2.8. Taking Decisions Through Discussions.

This is an excellent form of Communication, since it is carried to the extent of decision making, through participation. The overall score is 62, which is a good index, which falls near the upper limit of the moderately favourable range. District-wise indices are also very close to the overall index, and do not show much variation. The highest score is for TVM District (64), closely followed by TSR District (63) and KKD (60). The highest category-wise index is 88, for the self-employed in TVM district. The lowest index also is in TVM district, i.e., 35 for the Bank employees. Thus, it can be seen that all indices fall either in the highly favourable or moderately favourable range.

Conclusion

Category-wise comparison shows that, the self-employed have the greatest score in all the three districts. In majority of cases, it is above 80. This shows that a great degree of importance is given for communication in the small business units run by women. The lowest indices are mainly for the bank employees in TVM and the government employees in TSR district. This may be because of the traditional, bureaucratic ways followed in such

institutions. College teachers in KKD district have got surprisingly low scores. It seems that there is something wrong with regard to effective communication in the colleges in the district. Even nurses and workers have better scores than them.

Row A gives the average indices for the element of communication. The cumulative average index for the element is 61. District-wise average indices 62, 64 and 57 also fall in the moderately favourable range. The highest category-wise index is for the self-employed in all the three districts (83, 81 and 76). The good score for communication in general shows that there are enough chances for the employees in the organisations to develop through communication, especially in the case of self employed women.

Table 6.2.1

Paired Correlation between Variables in Table 6.2

V ₁ V ₂ 0.97	V ₁ V ₃ 0.87	V ₁ V ₄ 0.91	V ₁ V ₅ 0.84	V ₁ V ₆ 0.82	V ₁ V ₇ 0.97	V ₁ V ₈ 0.82
	V ₂ V ₃ 0.38	V ₂ V ₄ 0.49	V ₂ V ₅ 0.94	V ₂ V ₆ 0.55	V ₂ V ₇ 0.07	V ₂ V ₈ 0.57
		V ₃ V ₄ 0.59	V ₃ V ₅ 0.07	V ₃ V ₆ 0.97	V ₃ V ₇ 0.84	V ₃ V ₈ 0.21
			V ₄ V ₅ 0.23	V ₄ V ₆ 0.33	V ₄ V ₇ 0.59	V ₄ V ₈ 0.24
				V ₅ V ₆ 0.22	V ₅ V ₇ 0.38	V ₅ V ₈ 0.86
					V ₆ V ₇ 0.17	V ₆ V ₈ 0.32
						V ₇ V ₈ 0.17

Majority of values in the matrix 6.2.1 shows high degree of correlation among the variables. Out of 28 figures, 15 have values greater than 0.5.

Element No.2 (communication of the goal), No.4 (presence of effective communication channel) and element No.5 (co-operation through communication) have more values less than 0.5 in relation to other variables. Still there is moderate level of conformity among the variables in Table 6.2, regarding communication.

6.3. LEADERSHIP

Eight statements are grouped under the head Leadership, namely, 1. opportunities for leadership contributing to a powerful personality, 2. Listening patiently to different opinions, 3. Encouraging the team members, 4. Achievement of the goal through the contribution of group members, 5. Accomplishing the impossible, 6. Increase in potential for growth and development, 7. Understanding the problems before responding to them and 8. Giving directions to subordinates than doing things oneself. All these statements are directly pointing towards the possession of good leadership qualities.

6.3.1. Opportunities for Leadership Forming a Powerful Personality

The score is 46, which is moderately favourable. District-wise indices are 47, 51 and 39. TSR district is leading with 51 points. The highest index of 88 is for the self employed in KKD district. It is quite strange that the lowest index of 13 is for the college Teachers in KKD district. Some of the category-wise indices fall in the less than favourable range. This shows, opportunities for leadership vary according to the type of employment and circumstances. The index for TVM district is only 47. But the self- employed has got a highly favourable index of 80. TSR district brings a lot of surprises regarding this element. Firstly its index is greater than TVM by 4 points, Secondly, the highest index in the district is for Nurses.

Table 6.3
Satisfaction Index on Leadership

	Thiruvananthapuram District								Thrissur District								Kozhikode District								
	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DI	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DI	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DI	CI
1	53	30	28	23	50	63	80	47	55	45	28	38	78	42	73	51	37	13	25	35	42	32	88	39	46
2	68	72	42	53	57	62	85	63	67	65	60	52	68	60	75	64	57	57	60	62	52	65	87	63	63
3	67	72	42	48	67	67	83	64	57	57	55	52	78	60	78	62	52	53	58	52	57	48	87	58	61
4	47	55	42	43	58	55	83	55	65	52	35	47	58	55	58	53	45	43	48	55	35	43	63	48	52
5	48	45	42	48	48	53	80	52	57	52	33	43	57	55	67	52	43	35	42	47	52	50	77	49	51
6	60	62	47	45	60	65	78	60	55	58	47	45	62	57	73	57	53	50	50	57	58	48	83	57	58
7	58	47	42	48	48	63	82	55	52	48	43	43	68	50	70	54	52	40	48	50	47	60	85	55	55
8	42	15	38	37	25	37	73	38	23	25	37	13	33	33	72	34	35	13	18	25	32	37	78	34	35
A	55	50	40	43	52	58	81	54	54	50	42	42	63	51	71	53	47	38	44	48	47	48	81	50	53

1. opportunities for leadership contributing to a powerful personality, 2. Listening patiently to different opinions, 3. Encouraging the team members, 4. Achievement of the goal through the contribution of group members, 5. Accomplishing the impossible, 6. Increase in potential for growth and development, 7. Understanding the problems before responding to them and 8. Giving directions to subordinates than doing things oneself.

Source: Compiled from primary data

Thirdly, for the first time an index for Nurses has entered the highly favourable range, the value being 78. TSR district presents a better picture, since only one category is in less than favourable range, while two are in the highly favourable range.

The result of first statement, though having a favourable index, does not give us a bright picture, since many indices fall in the less than favourable range. But the self employed in all the districts, Nurses in TSR and Workers in TVM have very good indices. A Bird's eye view of the Table shows that, for of all the 8 elements, the self employed have got exemplary scores, especially in the TVM district.

6.3.2. Listening Patiently to Different Opinions

The overall index is 63, which is near the upper limit of the moderately favourable range. The indices for all the three districts are also bright and closer to each other such as 63 for TVM and KKD and 64 for TSR. For this element also, the highest index of 87 is for the Self employed in KKD district. The lowest index is 42, for the Bank Employees in TVM district. All the 3 districts have a fair picture for this element.

6.3.3. Encouraging the Team Members

The overall index for this element is 61. The district-wise indices are 64, 62 and 58, the highest being for TVM district. All these values are moderately favourable. The highest category-wise index is 87, for the self-employed in KKD district. The lowest index is 42 for bank employees in TVM district and workers in KKD district. The self-employed have got highly favourable indices in all the three districts.

6.3.4. Achievement of Goal Through the Contribution of the Team Members

The overall index is 52, which is moderately favourable. District-wise indices are 55, 53 and 48. The highest index is 83 for the self-employed in TVM. The lowest index, is 35 for bank employees in TSR district as well as for nurses in KKD district. Thus all the indices are either in the highly favourable or moderately favourable range.

6.3.5. Accomplishing the Impossible

This element demands a high degree of leadership quality in a person. 51 is the overall index, which is moderately favourable. Districts do not show much variation, their indices being 52 each for TVM and TSR and 49 for

KKD. The greatest score is 80 for the self-employed in TVM district as usual. The lowest is for the bank employees in TSR district, which has just entered the moderately favourable range, with an index of 33. It seems that the bank employees are not willing to take risks.

Though the indices are not very high, most of them are in the moderately favourable range. Considering the nature of the statement, this is a good result, because the statement presented to the respondents was 'Accomplishing the Impossible Things'.

6.3.6. Increase In Potential For Growth And Development

The overall index is 58, which is moderately favourable. District-wise indices are 60 for TVM and 57 each for TSR and KKD districts. The highest index is 83, for the Self-Employed in KKD district. The lowest is 45 for Government employees in TVM and TSR. Therefore all the values are either in the highly favourable or moderately favourable range. The indices are fair, since the smallest one is as big as 45 and majority of the values are above 50. The evaluation of indices shows that employment has helped them in their personal growth and development, to a great extent.

6.3.7. Understanding the Problems Before Responding to Them

The overall index is 55, which is moderately favourable. District-wise indices are in conformity with the overall index; 55 each for TVM and KKD and 54 for TSR. The highest index is 85 for the Self-employed in KKD district. The lowest index is almost half of the highest i.e., 40 for the college teachers in TVM district. So all the indices are either in the highly favourable or moderately favourable range.

6.3.8. Giving Directions to Subordinates than Doing the Work Oneself

This is the element having the lowest of all indices in the table. The overall index is 35 and the district-wise indices for TSR and KKD are 34 each. TVM has a slightly higher index of 38. Thus all these values have just entered the moderately favourable range. The highest index is for the Self-Employed in KKD district. The lowest index of 13 is found in two districts; for the government employees in TSR district and the college teachers in KKD district.

From the analysis it is clear that the district-wise and overall index has entered the moderately favourable range, only because of the comparatively high index of the Self-employed in all the three districts. Many of the category-wise indices are in the less than favourable range. What is revealed from the low indices is that, employed women are doing a lot of work by themselves rather than giving directions to subordinates and getting it done through them. This happens increasingly when the subordinates are men. Women hesitate to give directions and when they give it, men refuse to do it. In many cases, women find it better to do all the work by themselves. This is seen in many government offices and banks, when women are in a superior position to men. Men resent to be in subordinate positions and they show it indirectly by not doing things in time and thus the woman in superior position is put in a difficult situation. When this kind of behaviour is repeated, they take the over burden, by doing the work of subordinates also. Another reason is the inherent nature of women, which is generally not demanding, but working and suffering for others. They obey more than seeking obedience from others. A third reason for the low index is that, many do not have any subordinates, especially the factory workers, since they are in the lowest category. Only the self-employed have good indices for this element.

Conclusion

Indices relating to leadership qualities are seen to be moderately favourable. District-wise indices do not show much variation. But there is a great disparity among the categories. The self-employed in all the three districts have highly favourable indices. Their score is the highest in TVM district. KKD district also shows a similar performance. In TSR district, indices are a bit lower than the other two districts. For almost all the elements, the self-employed is the only category with highly favourable Indices. There is a great variation for the indices of the self-employed from other categories in all the three districts. And in some cases, it is just the half of the index of the self-employed.

The lowest of all indices are for the bank employees in TVM district. They consider themselves as having very low leadership qualities. It is quite strange that the college teachers in KKD district also have very low indices, compared to other categories. Generally, there is a good amount of leadership except for one or two elements and one or two categories of employment.

Row A gives the average indices for the whole group. The cumulative average index is 53 which is moderately favourable. District-wise indices are also very close to it (54, 53, 50). There is a great degree of conformity between these indices.

Table 6.3.1 exhibits a great degree of correlation among the variables related to satisfaction index on leadership, with 18 values above 0.5. Only in the case of element No.5 namely, 'doing impossible things', there are 3 values less than 0.5 in relation to elements No.6, 7 and 8 namely, increase in potential for growth and development, understanding the problems before responding to them and giving direction to the subordinates than doing things

oneself. The results show a good amount of conformity between the elements category-wise and district-wise.

Table 6.3.1
Paired Correlation between Variables in Table 6.3

V_1V_2 0.03	V_1V_3 0.54	V_1V_4 0.61	V_1V_5 0.72	V_1V_6 0.41	V_1V_7 0.59	V_1V_8 0.73
	V_2V_3 0.62	V_2V_4 0.73	V_2V_5 0.61	V_2V_6 0.45	V_2V_7 0.38	V_2V_8 0.48
		V_3V_4 0.52	V_3V_5 0.71	V_3V_6 0.91	V_3V_7 0.24	V_3V_8 0.59
			V_4V_5 0.91	V_4V_6 0.84	V_4V_7 0.99	V_4V_8 0.28
				V_5V_6 0.33	V_5V_7 0.38	V_5V_8 0.17
					V_6V_7 0.87	V_6V_8 0.94
						V_7V_8 0.59

6.4. PERFORMANCE

Many factors affect the performance of an employee. These factors are analysed through 7 sub-elements namely, 1. sense of belonging to the institution. 2. affinity to work. 3. adherence to work. 4. accomplishing the entrusted task, 5. use of skill and experience at work-place. 6. recognition received for the work and 7. perseverance in times of difficulty.

As a result of employment in an organization, the performance level of women improves through team work and communication. When the performance improves this leads to increase in self confidence and self esteem. Thus employed women gains empowerment within their personality.

Table 6.4
Satisfaction Index on Performance

	Thiruvananthapuram District								Thrissur District								Kozhikode District								CI
	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DI	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DI	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DI	
1	70	82	68	65	58	83	83	73	80	75	65	62	43	38	80	63	63	67	65	72	40	60	82	64	67
2	67	83	67	67	58	82	87	73	83	82	72	57	63	62	80	71	70	73	70	72	62	65	83	71	72
3	63	80	63	65	55	78	87	70	75	67	58	48	55	70	82	65	55	58	60	63	37	62	83	60	65
4	67	80	70	65	55	83	88	73	80	77	67	60	67	72	88	73	60	68	63	72	62	70	80	68	71
5	68	72	67	67	53	83	85	71	83	72	68	70	73	70	90	75	65	62	62	70	67	67	80	67	71
6	57	65	45	55	57	72	90	63	78	55	47	30	65	32	87	56	58	42	57	58	53	40	75	55	58
7	53	62	50	63	53	73	83	63	62	65	53	45	68	57	82	62	48	45	57	60	53	58	70	56	60
A	64	75	61	64	56	79	86	69	77	70	61	53	62	57	84	66	60	59	62	67	53	60	79	63	66

1. sense of belonging to the institution. 2. affinity to work. 3. adherence to work. 4. accomplishing the entrusted task, 5. use of skill and experience at work-place. 6. recognition received for the work and 7. perseverance in times of difficulty.

Source: Compiled from primary data

6.4.1. Sense of Belonging to the Institution

Sense of belonging has a direct bearing on the degree of performance of a person. It is directly proportionate to the amount of interest and energy he puts in, whatever be his job. The overall index is 67, which is a highly favourable index. But only TVM district has entered the highly favourable range with a high score of 73, while TSR and KKD have 63 and 64. A bird's eye view of the table shows that there are excellent scores for this element for all categories and very few have got indices less than 50.

6.4.2. Affinity to Work

The overall index 72 is highly favourable. All the three districts also have highly favourable indices, 73, 71 and 71. The greatest category-wise index is 87 for the Self-employed in TVM. The smallest index is 57 for government employees in TSR district

In KKD five categories have highly favourable indices i.e., 83 for the self-employed in KKD, 73 for college teachers, 72 for government employees and 70 each for school teachers and bank employees. Workers are close to the highly favourable range with 65 and the smallest index is 62 for the nurses. This is the first time that KKD district shows such high indices. It is clear from this that they have low indices for other elements due to some reasons, other than dislike for work. Some traditional and cultural factors in the society and the organizations may be preventing them from having those empowerment elements.

6.4.3. Adherence to Work

The overall index is 65, which is near the upper limit of the moderately favourable range. TVM district has the highest district-wise index of 70. TSR has 65 and KKD has 60. The highest category-wise index is 87 for the self-employed in TVM. The lowest is 37 for the nurses in KKD.

6.4.4. Accomplishing the Entrusted Task

The overall score is 71, which is highly favourable. TVM and TSR have the same index of 73 each and KKD has 68. The highest category-wise index is 88 for the self-employed in TVM and TSR. The lowest is 55 for nurses in TVM. So all the values are either highly or moderately favourable.

6.4.5. Use of Skill and Experience at Work Place

This also has got an excellent score of 71. TSR district is leading with 75, followed by TVM with 71 and KKD with 67. Thus the overall index and district-wise indices are highly favourable for this element. This shows that, in all the three districts women are using their skill and experience in doing the work. The highest category-wise index is 90 for the self-employed in TSR

district. The lowest is 53 for nurses in TVM. Thus all the indices are either in the highly or moderately favourable range and all are above 50.

6.4.6. Recognition received for the Work

This element has the lowest index of 58. In our present work culture, promotions are not related to performance, but to experience. Those with good performance go unnoticed and unrewarded. That is one reason for the low index, rather than lack of efficiency. TVM district has 63, but the other two have only 56 and 55. But all are in the moderately favourable range. The highest index is 90 for the self-employed in TVM and the lowest is 30 for the government employees in TSR district, which is less than favourable.

6.4.7. Perseverance in Times of Difficulty

The overall index is 60, which is near the upper limit of moderately favourable range. TVM district has the highest index of 63. TSR district has 62 and KKD has 56. The highest category-wise index is 83 for the self-employed in TVM. The lowest index is 45, for the government employees in TSR and college teachers in KKD. Thus all the indices are either in the highly favourable or moderately favourable range.

Conclusion

Out of the seven elements, four have highly favourable indices. There is only one index which falls below 60. That is 58, for receiving recognition for the work. Since our work culture is such that promotions are not related to performance, but to experience, it is natural that those who perform well do not get the due recognition. All the sub-elements under the head, 'Performance' have excellent scores. In a district-wise comparison, it is very evident that TVM district has the highest indices. It has got five out of seven indices above 70.

Category-wise analysis shows that, the self-employed has got the greatest indices in all the three districts. In TVM it ranges from 90 to 83. In TSR it is between 70 and 80, and in KKD, it varies between 83 and 70. The self-employed are more than 80% confident of their performance. They cannot survive in the field unless they perform in an extra-ordinary way.

Here also the lowest indices are noticed for the government employees in TSR and nurses in TVM district and KKD district. College and school teachers in TVM have very good scores, but KKD lags behind. Workers in TVM have very high indices. In TSR and KKD also their performance is somewhat good.

The average cumulative index is 66; district-wise indices are 69, 66 and 63 showing high values close to each other. From the results, it can be concluded that women employees in all the different fields are presenting a very good performance, which is an important element of empowerment.

Table 6.4.1

Paired Correlation between Variables in Table 6.4

V ₁ V ₂ 0.24	V ₁ V ₃ 0.58	V ₁ V ₄ 0.98	V ₁ V ₅ 0.64	V ₁ V ₆ 0.93	V ₁ V ₇ 0.24
	V ₂ V ₃ 0.88	V ₂ V ₄ 0.87	V ₂ V ₅ 0.33	V ₂ V ₆ 0.27	V ₂ V ₇ 0.17
		V ₃ V ₄ 0.37	V ₃ V ₅ 0.41	V ₃ V ₆ 0.73	V ₃ V ₇ 0.17
			V ₄ V ₅ 0.11	V ₄ V ₆ 0.04	V ₄ V ₇ 0.84
				V ₅ V ₆ 0.11	V ₅ V ₇ 0.28
					V ₆ V ₇ 0.37

In Table 6.4.1, 13 out of 21 values are less than 0.5 . The values lie in two extremes, within the range of 0.04 to 0.98. There is only less than moderate conformity between the variables in table 6.4.1., relating to indices on performance, though the indices are high.

Table 6A

Table showing Average Indices on Empowerment in the Organisation

Thiruvananthapuram District									Thrissur District								Kozhikode District									
*	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DI	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DI	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	T	CI	
1	60	51	42	51	56	72	86	60	61	50	56	40	63	60	77	58	50	39	51	59	44	47	81	53	57	
2	61	61	44	59	59	68	83	62	68	60	58	49	71	59	81	64	56	52	53	61	55	51	76	57	61	
3	55	50	40	43	52	58	81	54	54	50	42	42	63	51	71	53	47	38	44	48	47	48	81	50	53	
4	64	75	61	64	56	79	86	69	77	70	61	53	62	57	84	66	60	59	62	67	53	60	79	63	66	
A	60	59	47	54	56	69	84	61	65	58	55	46	65	57	78	60	53	47	52	59	50	51	79	56	59	

1. Average Index on Team Work; 2. Average Index on Communication; 3. Average Index on Leadership; 4. Average Index on Performance; 5. Average Index on Empowerment within the Organisation

Table 6A gives the district-wise and category-wise average indices on empowerment within the organization. Row A gives the indices within the organization, which are the simple average figures for four elements of empowerment within the organisation namely, team work, communication, leadership and performance.

Cumulative average index of empowerment within the organisation is 59 which is moderately favourable. District-wise indices are also moderately favourable (61, 60 and 56). The self employed women have the highest category-wise index in all the three districts (84, 78 and 79). Among the lowest indices are 46 for government employees in Thrissur district, 47 each for bank employees in Thiruvananthapuram district and college teachers in Kozhikode district. All these indices are either in the highly or moderately favourable ranges.

SECTION II - EMPOWERMENT WITHIN THE PERSON

A person who is empowered at work through the four factors, teamwork, leadership, communication and performance has its effects on her own personality. These effects in her personal life as a result of the organizational life, is measured through another set of 4 elements namely, 1. self-confidence 2. creativity 3. employer-employee relationship and 4. job satisfaction.

6.5. SELF-CONFIDENCE

Self-confidence is a clear expression of the inner power of a person. It is the corner stone of success. Self-confidence may be inherent to many. Others gain it gradually through various conscious and unconscious means or efforts. The degree of self-confidence achieved by the women employees through their organizational life and environment is analysed through Table 6.5.

Table 6.5

Satisfaction Index on Self-confidence

	Thiruvananthapuram District								Thrissur District								Kozhikode District								
	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DI	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DI	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DI	CI
1	63	58	50	62	53	55	78	60	58	48	50	53	75	25	58	53	58	45	57	50	42	33	68	50	54
2	47	40	28	50	32	70	68	48	8	18	30	23	42	65	63	36	32	30	23	33	35	50	67	39	41
3	48	50	38	53	47	57	77	53	48	47	52	33	57	47	65	50	45	33	47	50	43	50	73	49	50
4	57	48	53	45	43	52	75	53	43	18	30	30	72	37	55	41	42	37	37	35	28	48	62	41	45
5	58	62	63	55	52	73	82	64	53	53	60	52	62	72	80	62	63	45	55	57	42	35	80	54	60
6	57	68	57	53	58	68	80	63	57	57	63	58	62	63	85	64	67	53	55	65	45	52	82	60	62
A	55	54	48	53	48	63	77	57	45	40	48	42	61	51	68	51	51	41	46	48	39	45	72	49	52

1. Confidence of success in difficult or challenging things. 2. Sticking to decisions amidst disagreement 3. Self actualization 4. Accepting increased responsibility 5. Feeling of safety in the organization 6. Self Esteem

Source: Compiled from primary data

6.5.1. Confidence of Success in Difficult or Challenging Things

The overall score is 54, which is moderately favourable. District-wise indices are 60 for TVM, 53 for TSR and 50 for KKD. The highest index is for the self employed in TVM. The only index in the less than favourable range is 25 for the workers in TSR. All other indices are in the moderately favourable range.

6.5.2. Sticking to Decisions Amidst Disagreement.

The overall index is 41, which is moderately favourable. The highest District-wise index is 48 for TVM, 36 for TSR and 39 for KKD. This is the only element for which KKD has got a better score than TSR district. The highest index for this element is 70 for TVM and the lowest is 8.3 for the school teachers in TSR district.

Though the element has got a moderately favourable index of 41, a closer view shows that 8 out of 21 values are less than favourable. One reason for this low score may be the wrong understanding of the statement as a kind of aggressiveness. In many cases, women are forced to change their decisions when others disagree.

6.5.3. Self-actualisation

This is the peak point of the personal achievements of a person, where he or she experiences a sense of fulfillment. He feels that he is becoming the person he wanted to be. The overall index for this element is 50. TVM leads with 53. TSR has 50 and KKD 49. The highest index is 77 for the self-employed in TVM and the lowest is 33 for the government employees in TSR. So all the indices are either in the highly or moderately favourable range. Another point to note is that, only the self-employed have entered the highly

favourable range. The next better score is for workers and nurses. All others are at various points in the moderately favourable range.

6.5.4. Seeking Responsibility

Taking responsibility is an essential part of empowerment. When a person has enough self-confidence, she will accept responsibilities with happiness. The overall index is 45 which is moderately favourable. Many of the employees are ready to carry on with the work already undertaken, but not willing to take any more additional responsibility. The district-wise indices are 53 for TVM and 41 each for the other two districts. Self employed in TVM and nurses in TSR have highly favourable indices.

6.5.5. Feeling of Safety in the Organisation

Here safety includes, safety of the individual as well as the security of the job. This element has got a good overall score of 60, which is near the upper limit of the moderately favourable range. TVM and TSR got 64 and 62 respectively. But KKD district has got only 54. The highest index is 82 in TVM for the self-employed. In the other two districts also they are leading with 80 each. But the workers in KKD have got the lowest index of 35. Still all the indices of the element are either in the highly or moderately favourable range.

6.5.6. Self Esteem

Self-confidence and self esteem are closely related. A person having a high degree of self esteem will have a corresponding degree of self-confidence also. Out of all the elements, self-esteem has the highest overall score of 62. All the three districts have scores above 60, TSR leading with 64 and followed by TVM with 63 and KKD with 60.

It is specially noteworthy that when KKD lags behind in many other elements, it has got 60 for self-esteem. This tells us a lot about the contribution of employment in their life perspective. It has contributed a great degree of self-respect.

Conclusion

Out of the six elements, the highest score is 62 for self esteem. This is a good sign since employment has helped the workers to gain a great extent of self esteem. The index falls near the upper limit of the moderately favourable range. Feeling of safety in the organisation also has a good index of 60. The lowest index is 41 for sticking to decisions in the midst of disagreement. All the six elements are in the moderately favourable range varying from 62 to 41.

Average cumulative index is 52, which is moderately favourable. Average indices for the districts are 57, 51 and 49.

Table 6.5.1

Paired Correlation between Variables in Table 6.5

V_1V_2 0.33	V_1V_3 0.24	V_1V_4 0.27	V_1V_5 0.38	V_1V_6 0.59
	V_2V_3 0.57	V_2V_4 0.24	V_2V_5 0.33	V_2V_6 0.11
		V_3V_4 0.59	V_3V_5 0.82	V_3V_6 0.17
			V_4V_5 0.07	V_4V_6 0.01
				V_5V_6 0.01

Majority of the values in the matrix 6.5.1 are less than 0.5, indicating very low conformity in paired correlation. Only 4 out of 15 values are above

0.5. Though the value of indices in Table 6.5 relating to self-confidence are moderately favourable, the values in the matrix indicate non-conformity.

6.6. CREATIVITY

In every person, there is a certain amount of creativity which can be fostered through a positive environment. The organization in which a person is employed, offers a lot of opportunities for the growth and flowering of this innate quality. The extent of creativity in an employed woman is measured through 8 sub elements listed below.

1. Accepting new ideas; 2. Seeking alternative solutions to a problem;
3. Taking up difficult activities; 4. Satisfaction in success of attempts; 5. Accepting and correcting mistakes; 6. Willingness to risk new behaviours;
7. Favouring job enrichment experiments; 8. Welcoming changes for growth.

Table 6.6
Satisfaction Index on Creativity

	Thiruvananthapuram District								Thrissur District								Kozhikode District								
	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DI	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DI	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DI	CI
1	75	57	52	53	57	77	82	65	75	63	58	60	63	58	78	65	55	55	52	68	45	48	75	57	62
2	63	65	52	63	43	68	80	62	70	63	52	48	52	55	65	58	52	58	57	70	42	52	75	58	59
3	55	57	50	58	40	65	78	58	17	52	47	47	52	47	47	44	42	42	52	52	33	38	70	47	49
4	72	80	67	63	65	70	85	72	73	75	67	73	63	75	83	73	68	57	70	73	67	58	82	68	71
5	65	70	52	67	60	65	80	65	60	72	57	62	72	68	83	68	55	33	68	62	55	52	70	56	63
6	47	38	38	38	30	70	73	48	43	45	35	27	58	58	67	48	38	27	30	43	12	50	62	37	44
7	63	55	42	45	47	68	73	56	48	57	40	52	58	57	77	55	48	42	48	55	42	52	70	51	54
8	67	53	47	57	53	70	75	60	63	55	43	42	47	58	73	55	48	48	53	63	48	55	72	55	57
A	63	59	50	56	49	69	78	61	56	60	50	51	58	60	72	58	51	45	54	61	43	51	72	54	58

1.Accepting new ideas 2.Seeking alternative solutions to a problem 3.Taking up difficult activities 4.Satisfaction in success of attempts.5.Accepting and correcting mistakes 6.Willingness to risk new behaviours 7.Favouring job enrichment experiments 8.Welcoming changes for growth.

Source: Compiled from primary data

6.6.1. Accepting New Ideas

Novelty is closely related to creativity. A creative person will be always interested in adopting new ideas. The overall score for the element is 62, which is near the upper limit of moderately favourable range. The scores for TVM and TSR are higher than overall index i.e., 65 each, but KKD has only 57. The highest index is 82 for the self-employed in TVM. The smallest is 45 for nurses in KKD. So all are either in the highly favourable range or moderately favourable range.

6.6.2. Seeking Alternative Solutions to a Problem

A creative person will be able to choose the best out of many alternatives in every situation. When a problem arises, he studies its pros and cons of it and develops a number of alternatives. And he chooses the best out of them.

The overall index for this element is 59. District-wise indices are 62 for TVM and 58 each for TSR and KKD. The highest index is 80 for the self-employed in TVM. The lowest is 42 for the nurses in KKD district. Thus all the indices are either highly or moderately favourable.

6.6.3. Taking up Difficult Activities

This element shows a moderately favourable index of 49. The highest index is 58 for TVM. TSR has 44 and TVM 47. The highest category-wise index is 78 for the self-employed in TVM district. The lowest is 17 for the school teachers in TSR district, which is the only less than favourable index.

6.6.4. Satisfaction in Success of Attempts

A person with creativity gets a lot of occasions to celebrate, when he sees the success of attempts. It is a very good sign that this element has got the

highest index of 71, which is in the highly favourable range. The district-wise indices are also in the highly favourable range, 72 for TVM, 73 for TSR and 68 for KKD.

The highest category-wise index is 85 for the self employed in TVM and the lowest is 57 for the college teachers in KKD district. Thus all the indices are either in the highly or moderately favourable range and above 55.

6.6.5. Accepting and Correcting Mistakes

This element has got the second highest index of 63. TSR district has got the maximum index of 68 followed by TVM with 65 and KKD 56. The highest category-wise index is 83 for the self employed in TSR district. The lowest is 33 for the college teachers in KKD. Thus all the indices are either in the highly or moderately favourable range.

6.6.6. Willingness to Risk New Behaviours

A person with creativity will be on the look out for new behaviour patterns and endeavours within the organization. But there is a certain element of risk attached to it, since the new attempt may not succeed always. It is the risk element that prevents people from making such attempts.

When we evaluate the scores, the overall index is 44, which is moderately favourable. But the value is not so high. The district-wise indices are 48 each for TVM and TSR and 37 for KKD. The highest category-wise index is 73 for the self-employed in TVM and the lowest is as low as 12 for the Nurses in KKD district. Some of the indices fall in the less than favourable range.

6.6.7. Favours Job Enrichment Experiments.

Job enrichment will need a lot of innovations and adaptations of new techniques. Co-operating with job-enrichment experience is very important for innovations. Only a creative person can co-operate with such activities.

The overall index is 54, which is moderately favourable. District-wise indices are 56 for TVM, 55 for TSR and 51 for KKD. All the common indices are above 50, in the moderately favourable range. The highest category-wise index is 77 for the self-employed in TSR district. The smallest index of 40 also is in the same district for the bank employees. Thus all the indices for this element are within the highly favourable or moderately favourable range.

6.6.8. Valuing Changes for Growth.

Creativity is always associated with change. A creative person cannot be satisfied with the same old ways. He is always willing to accept changes leading to the growth of the organization and the self.

The overall index for the element is 57. The highest district-wise index is 60 for TVM. TSR and KKD have the same index of 55. The highest category-wise index is 75 for the Self-employed in TVM. The lowest is 42 for the government employees in TSR district. Thus all the indices are either in the highly or moderately favourable range.

Conclusion

The overall indices of all the 8 sub-elements, except one, are in the moderately favourable range. The only index which is highly favourable is 71, for 'satisfaction in success of attempts'. Two elements are very close to the highly favourable range, namely, accepting and correcting mistakes (63)

and accepting new ideas (62). The other indices range from 59 to 44. The lowest index of 44 is for willingness to risk new behaviours.

The average cumulative index for creativity is 58, which is moderately favourable. Average indices for the districts are 61, 58 and 54. So it can be concluded that the employed women have moderate amount of creativity.

Matrix 6.6.1 shows a good amount of correlation among many indices relating to creativity. 15 out of 28 are above 0.5. Element No.3, namely, taking up difficult activities shows a low correlation with elements 4, 5, 6 and 8. The word 'difficult' may be a reason for this lack of conformity. Element No.1, namely, 'Accepting new ideas' also shows low conformity with indices for elements No. 2, 6, 7 and 8.

Table 6.6.1

Paired Correlation between Variables in Table 6.6

V ₁ V ₂ 0.07	V ₁ V ₃ 0.54	V ₁ V ₄ 0.69	V ₁ V ₅ 0.66	V ₁ V ₆ 0.17	V ₁ V ₇ 0.24	V ₁ V ₈ 0.47
	V ₂ V ₃ 0.86	V ₂ V ₄ 0.61	V ₂ V ₅ 0.59	V ₂ V ₆ 0.58	V ₂ V ₇ 0.49	V ₂ V ₈ 0.34
		V ₃ V ₄ 0.11	V ₃ V ₅ 0.23	V ₃ V ₆ 0.19	V ₃ V ₇ 0.59	V ₃ V ₈ 0.47
			V ₄ V ₅ 0.59	V ₄ V ₆ 0.42	V ₄ V ₇ 0.91	V ₄ V ₈ 0.11
				V ₅ V ₆ 0.58	V ₅ V ₇ 0.34	V ₅ V ₈ 0.94
					V ₆ V ₇ 0.93	V ₆ V ₈ 0.58
						V ₇ V ₈ 0.59

6.7. EMPLOYER-EMPLOYEE RELATIONSHIP

The relationships in the organisation play an important role in the empowerment of people in the organisation. Attitudes of employer, other persons in superior positions, co-workers and subordinates play an important role in moulding the personality and in empowering the person. Table 6.7 presents before us the scores for various elements relating to the relationships in the organisation.

When we evaluate this element for the whole of the respondents in the sample, the satisfaction index for each of the 8 sub-elements such as attitude of the male and female superiors, male and female subordinates, male and female co-workers, holidays enjoyed and comfort at work place are respectively 57, 50, 57, 58, 60, 61, 58 and 64. The number of holidays enjoyed and comfort at work place are included under this head, since these two elements affect the employer-employee relationship to a great extent.

Table 6.7

Satisfaction Index on Employer –Employee Relationship

	Thiruvananthapuram District								Thrissur District								Kozhikode District								
	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DI	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DI	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DI	CI
1	52	65	48	68	52	60	N.A	58	65	55	58	57	68	43	N.A	58	68	48	57	63	52	53	N.A	57	57
2	47	60	38	63	48	62	N.A	53	25	45	52	45	57	50	N.A	46	57	30	60	58	53	57	N.A	53	50
3	57	65	45	60	47	58	63	56	70	48	53	45	65	60	63	58	68	47	57	58	50	50	50	56	57
4	48	55	47	63	53	60	67	56	63	50	57	47	65	59	70	59	58	52	60	63	47	61	78	60	58
5	50	67	53	62	53	65	66	59	70	63	67	55	62	59	66	63	62	55	62	60	50	64	50	58	60
6	43	57	53	62	52	70	68	58	72	55	62	55	65	60	75	63	62	60	65	65	62	57	67	62	61
7	58	63	35	63	60	67	77	60	63	67	47	23	68	65	78	59	62	52	30	52	47	65	78	55	58
8	53	78	55	73	65	68	78	67	83	60	65	62	75	65	58	67	72	63	60	65	50	32	72	59	64
A	51	64	47	64	54	64	52	59	64	55	58	49	66	58	51	59	64	51	56	61	51	55	49	57	58

Attitude of: 1. Male superiors 2. Female superiors 3. Male subordinates 4. Female subordinates 5. Male co-workers 6. Female co-workers 7. Holiday enjoyed 8. Comfort at workplace

Source: Compiled from primary data

The highest value is for comfort at work place which is 64 and very close to the highly favourable range. This is a good sign that more women will be ready to join the work force. It is surprising that the lowest value of 50 is for Attitude of female superiors. The respondents felt that female superiors are very strict to them and try to extract more work from them. But factory workers have this opinion about the male superiors also.

In a district-wise comparison, the comfort at work place itself has the highest value and it has crossed over to highly favourable range with a score of 67 in TVM and TSR. But in KKD district, it is only 59. This is because of the poor condition of private sector factory employees in the district, which is reflected by the value 32 which falls in the 'less than favourable' range. In all the three districts the lowest value is for Attitude of female Superiors. It is 53 each in TVM and KKD and still lower in TSR district, which is 46. It is the score of school teachers (25) and college teachers (45), which has pulled the value down.

In Kerala, there are many educational institutions run by women. When the results come out, their performance is excellent. But the disciplinary activities in the schools and colleges and extra work burden that fall upon the teachers in the curricular and extra curricular activities in these well known institutions cause some dissatisfaction among the teachers. In the personal interview also this point was stressed by the respondents. In TVM district the index for school teachers is 47, and it is a still lower value of 38 for bank employees. The college teachers in KKD district got the lowest value of 30. It is clear that in schools, colleges and banks, the disciplinary activities of the female superiors are not appreciated by their female subordinates.

A comparative study of the scores for attitude of male and female superiors shows that, all categories of employed women in all the three

districts, except the workers, have given a lower rating to the attitude of female superiors. For the workers in TVM the score is 60 for male and 62 for female; in TSR it is 43 for male and 50 for female, in KKD it is 53 for male and 57 for female. In the factories, most of the workers of the lowest category are women and most of the superiors are men. Men get a better salary on the volume of work done by the women under his supervision. So his only concern is to extract maximum work. But women who do the actual production are paid very less, compared to these men. At the same time, female superiors are found to be more understanding.

In none of the categories here, the score for attitude of female superiors crossed the boundary to highly favourable. But in the case of attitude of male superiors, government offices in TVM, nurses in TSR and school teachers in KKD have crossed the boundary with 68 points each. Many others have come near the boundary such as colleges in TVM and schools in TSR with 65 each and government offices in KKD with 63. This shows that generally, men in superior position give a better treatment to female employees than their female counterparts except in the case of factory workers. The reason for this variation may be due to the linking of the salary of male superiors in factories, to the quantity of output produced by the women workers.

The overall index for attitude of male and female co-workers do not have much variation, the indices being 60 for male and 61 for female co-workers. In KKD district, it shows some variation. Attitude of female co-workers are highly favourable for the self-employed, the values being 68, 75 and 67 in the three districts. All the self employed businesses are done with the co-operation of other female members. So this is a proof to the successful co-operation of women in the joint ventures. In the worker category also, female workers are having a better score in TVM and TSR districts. The co-operation of female co-workers are as high as 70,72 and 75 in the case of

workers in TVM and school teachers and the self employed in TSR district respectively. It has shown the minimum value in schools in TVM which is only 43. All the other values are above 50.

The score for holidays enjoyed is 58. The least satisfied with the number of holidays are the Bank employees, with a score of 35, 47 and 30 in the 3 districts. Of all, the minimum score of 23 is for the government employees in TSR district. Nurses in KKD have also have a low score of 47. For the bank and government employees, Saturdays are also working days. They do not have any vacation like the teachers. That is the reason behind their dissatisfaction. The greatest score is for the self employed in all the three districts, being 77 for TVM and 78 for the other two districts. This is because Self employed women are their own bosses. They can avail themselves of leisure or holidays as they need. They can arrange the working hours, without affecting the home management.

Conclusion

All the eight indices relating to employer-employee relationship fall in the moderately favourable range. The values are closer to the upper limit of the range. Values range from 64 to 50. The average cumulative index is 58, which is moderately favourable. The district-wise indices are 59 each for TVM and TSR and 57 for KKD. The results show that the women employees are empowered by the relationships in the organisation to a good extent.

Matrix 6.7.1 has values less than 0.5 for 20 out of 28, values. This shows that there is very low conformity among the indices of variables relating to employer-employee relationships for various categories of employed women in the three districts. This may be due to the great disparity in the working conditions and behavioural patterns in the organization.

Table 6.7.1
Paired Correlation between Variables in Table 6.7

V ₁ V ₂ 0.47	V ₁ V ₃ 0.59	V ₁ V ₄ 0.22	V ₁ V ₅ 0.94	V ₁ V ₆ 0.39	V ₁ V ₇ 0.38	V ₁ V ₈ 0.47
	V ₂ V ₃ 0.11	V ₂ V ₄ 0.98	V ₂ V ₅ 0.94	V ₂ V ₆ 0.48	V ₂ V ₇ 0.34	V ₂ V ₈ 0.11
		V ₃ V ₄ 0.51	V ₃ V ₅ 0.37	V ₃ V ₆ 0.24	V ₃ V ₇ 0.17	V ₃ V ₈ 0.73
			V ₄ V ₅ 0.59	V ₄ V ₆ 0.11	V ₄ V ₇ 0.18	V ₄ V ₈ 0.58
				V ₅ V ₆ 0.27	V ₅ V ₇ 0.37	V ₅ V ₈ 0.13
					V ₆ V ₇ 0.19	V ₆ V ₈ 0.28
						V ₇ V ₈ 0.37

6.8. JOB SATISFACTION

The sub-elements under the head, job satisfaction are job commensurating with qualification, pride in the particular job, desire to remain in the job, satisfaction with office or work environment, non-monetary benefits received, job security, chances of promotion, remuneration, proximity to workplace and number of working hours. A glance at the table 6.8 shows that the satisfaction indices derived for these elements are scattered in all the three ranges of less favourable, moderately favourable and highly favourable.

6.8.1. Job commensurating with Qualification

To the statement relating to commensuration of job with qualification, both TVM and TSR districts have a highly favourable score of 71 and 69, while KKD falls near the boundary with 64. A category-wise analysis shows that the satisfaction index is highly favourable and approaching 100 in many cases, with regard to school and college teachers and nurses. It is also high in

the case of self-employed women. For school teachers it is 83, 92 and 75. For college teachers it is 92,87,72. For nurses it is 72, 92 and 87; and for the self employed it is 78, 65 and 72.

Table 6.8
Satisfaction Index on Job Satisfaction

	Thiruvananthapuram District								Thrissur District								Kozhikode District								CI
	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DI	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DI	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DI	
1	83	92	37	63	72	73	78	71	92	87	58	38	90	53	65	69	75	72	52	38	87	53	72	64	68
2	70	92	65	68	78	77	88	77	77	78	73	68	80	60	83	74	78	62	77	60	70	52	83	69	73
3	58	82	55	33	55	37	78	57	82	67	68	53	73	43	75	66	52	50	60	58	50	38	63	53	59
4	48	72	63	72	62	68	85	67	60	67	70	58	58	50	80	63	67	57	68	57	57	63	78	64	65
5	20	67	55	43	25	55	50	44	27	47	50	33	40	27	NA	37	48	40	43	57	18	-5	25	34	38
6	25	83	63	58	15	65	65	54	70	63	72	50	50	40	53	57	68	65	53	63	18	13	63	49	53
7	-17	55	47	43	25	72	50	38	-3	37	58	-10	7	-25	NA	11	-2	25	35	38	-18	-35	-50	7	18
8	27	83	67	53	38	70	65	58	22	73	70	50	45	0	45	44	40	65	58	70	35	-25	75	45	49
9	23	52	45	53	-2	23	75	39	15	27	72	33	35	35	80	42	43	47	22	63	2	13	55	35	39
10	35	65	60	70	55	63	78	61	80	67	72	43	37	38	82	60	70	67	55	68	42	23	73	57	59
A	37	74	56	56	42	60	71	56	52	61	66	42	52	32	56	52	54	55	52	57	36	19	54	48	52

1. Job commensurating with qualification 2. Pride in job 3. Desire to remain in job. 4. Office environment. 5. Non-monetary benefits 6. Job security. 7. Chances of promotion. 8. Remuneration 9. Proximity to work place 10. Working hours.

Source: Compiled from primary data

When we probe into the reason for such a high index in the above cases, we note the fact that in all the above mentioned cases, they have entered the profession with a decision of their own and had undergone a training such as B.Ed, T.T.C, Nursing etc., to equip themselves for the job. They chose the job voluntarily, because of their aptitude for the job. In the case of the self-employed also, they opted for it after much reflection and preparation. So they feel that their qualification is at par with the profession selected. Bank, government and factory employees show a different pattern, in all the three districts. For bank employees the score is 37, 58 and 52. For

government employees it is 63, 38 and 38. Factory workers have rather a good score of 73, 53 and 53. This is because they are not educated and the work they do is in accordance with that. But some of the bank and government employees doing clerical work are highly qualified. Many are post-graduates while the clerical post needs only graduation or below. They might have aspired to become a teacher or a doctor or engineer, but finally ended up in becoming a clerk. So they find the job, though well-paid, not in commensuration with their qualification.

This evaluation is quite natural on their part since a person with M.Sc. Zoology or Chemistry is also doing the accounting or clerical or typing job in a government office which will lead to a lot of dissatisfaction. They may feel that the work is monotonous and heavy, though they receive a good salary.

6.8.2. Pride in Job

It has the greatest score of 73 which proclaims that, the 'state of being employed' itself is a great matter of pride for an employed woman, in spite of the difficulties she experiences along with it. District-wise indices are also the highest. They are 77, 74 and 69 and the figures are self-explanatory. Category-wise scores are as high as 92 for the college teachers in TVM. Even the lowest index is as high as 52 for the workers in KKD. This reveals the great amount of job satisfaction derived by the women in the sample.

6.8.3. Desire to Remain in the Present Job

The score for this element is 59, which is moderately favourable. The score in TSR has reached the highly favourable range with 66. The indices for TVM and KKD are 57 and 53 respectively, which are in the moderately favourable range.

6.8.4. Office Environment

The overall score for office Environment is 65, which is very near the highly favourable range of 66. The figures for the districts do not show much variation (67, 63 and 64). It is slightly higher for TVM and falls in the highly favourable range.

It is noteworthy that in all the three districts, the highest value is for the self employed (85, 80 and 78). Since the self-employed business units are mostly located in their own residences or in nearby places set up by the employed women according to their convenience, majority of them have reported high level of satisfaction.

6.8.5. Non-monetary Benefits

The overall index is only 38, which has just entered the moderately favourable range. The highest index is 44 for TVM and lowest is 34 for KKD district. TSR district stands in between, with 37. The element has scored the lowest index in this group.

The lowest category-wise index is a negative value of -5 for the workers in KKD district. The difficult situation of private sector factory employees has already been explained before. Workers in TSR district have 38 and TVM 55. The category having the greatest satisfaction of 67 is the college teachers in TVM.

The availability of non-monetary benefits is not applicable to the self-employed women in the present situation, since they are not organised. They cannot avail of non-monetary benefits like E.S.I, Creche, Provident Fund, Medical re-imbursment etc.

6.8.6. Job Security

The overall index for job security is 53, which is moderately favourable. The highest index is 57 for TSR district, followed by 54 for TVM and 49 for KKD. All these indices are moderately favourable. The highest category-wise index is 83 for college teachers in TVM and the lowest is 13 for factory workers in KKD, marking a wide variation. The small Pvt. factories in KKD do not offer any benefits including job security. Nurses in TVM and KKD also have low indices of 15 and 18 respectively.

6.8.7. Chances of Promotion

This is the only element, which falls in the less than favourable range, with an index of 18. The concept of 'glass ceiling', which prevents the advancement of women beyond a particular level, is proved true here. Linking promotions with transfer to distant places is a good example of such barriers to promotion for women. District-wise indices are 38 for TVM, 11 for TSR and 6.9 for KKD. Workers in KKD have an index as low as -35. For the self-employed women who do their own business, there is no question of promotion in job.

6.8.8. Remuneration

Remuneration is the most decisive factor which determines the job satisfaction of a person, and it is very difficult to make employees satisfied since every one wish to get a better remuneration always. Still there is a satisfaction index of 49, which falls in the moderately favourable range. TVM district has got the highest index of 58. The other two districts have 44 and 45 respectively.

The highest category-wise index is for the college teachers of TVM district with 83. Their value in TSR is 73 and KKD 65. The increased salary

due to the recent introduction of U.G.C. scale for college teachers in the state has led to increased satisfaction regarding remuneration. There is a negative index of -25 and as usual it is for the factory workers in KKD district, whose plight has already been discussed.

6.8.9. Proximity to Work Place

The index of 39 though lies in the moderately favourable range, it is nearer to the lower limit. It is low in all the three districts with 39, 42 and 35. As expected, the maximum score is for the Self-employed, TSR having 80, TVM 75 and KKD 55. This is quite natural since many self-employed women are do business at their own residence or near to it. The lowest index is for nurses with -2 in TVM and 1.7 in KKD. But they have 35 in TSR district. In TVM and KKD, the sample includes more government hospital employees who usually get transfer to distant places. TSR district includes more private hospital nurses whose houses are not very far. Though the index is small here, analysis of distance to work-place in table 5.23 had shown that only 20% of employed women travel more than 10 kilo metres.

6.8.10. Working Hours

The satisfaction index on working hours is 59, which falls near the upper limit of the moderately favourable range. The districts do not show much disparity, the indices being 61, 60 and 57. The highest index is marked by the self employed which is highly favourable, values being 78, 82 and 73. This is because, they fix working hours according to their convenience.

All the indices in all the three districts fall either in the highly favourable or moderately favourable range except in the case of workers of KKD district, which shows a less than favourable index of 23. They have to come early for work and noon interval is only for half an hour. If there is

more work they have to stay longer. But the index for workers in TVM is 63, who have a shift system of work (6 a.m. to 2 p.m. and 2 p.m. to 10 p.m.).

Conclusion

Among the various elements discussed above, two of the elements, namely, commensuration of the job with qualification and the pride experienced in the job falls in the highly favourable range. Seven elements lie in the moderately favourable range, varying from 38 to 65. Satisfaction with office environment has a score of 65, which is near the upper limit of the moderately favourable range. The lowest index of 18 is for chances of promotion, which is less than favourable. The next lowest value of 38 is for the non monetary benefits derived, which is the cumulative effect of the very low level of satisfaction in the case of workers, nurses and school teachers. Workers in the private factories do not get any non-monetary benefits at all. The same is the case with school and college teachers and the nurses. Workers of KKD district have got even a negative score of -5.

Since all the indices except one are either in the highly favourable or moderately favourable range, it indicates a good amount of job satisfaction, which is basically needed for empowerment. The average cumulative index for job satisfaction is 52, which is moderately favourable. Average indices for the districts are 56, 52 and 48.

Out of 45 values in the matrix, 6.8.1, 29 values are below 0.5 and only 16 are above 0.5. This indicates a very low degree of conformity among the indices of various elements and categories.

Table 6. 8.1**Paired Correlation between Variables in Table 6.8**

V ₁ V ₂ 0.98	V ₁ V ₃ 0.59	V ₁ V ₄ 0.34	V ₁ V ₅ 0.37	V ₁ V ₆ 0.22	V ₁ V ₇ 0.17	V ₁ V ₈ 0.38	V ₁ V ₉ 0.43	V ₁ V ₁₀ 0.17
	V ₂ V ₃ 0.11	V ₂ V ₄ 0.57	V ₂ V ₅ 0.47	V ₂ V ₆ 0.13	V ₂ V ₇ 0.83	V ₂ V ₈ 0.17	V ₂ V ₉ 0.58	V ₂ V ₁₀ 0.37
		V ₃ V ₄ 0.11	V ₃ V ₅ 0.59	V ₃ V ₆ 0.32	V ₃ V ₇ 0.17	V ₃ V ₈ 0.24	V ₃ V ₉ 0.33	V ₃ V ₁₀ 0.58
			V ₄ V ₅ 0.23	V ₄ V ₆ 0.38	V ₄ V ₇ 0.47	V ₄ V ₈ 0.39	V ₄ V ₉ 0.57	V ₄ V ₁₀ 0.17
				V ₅ V ₆ 0.07	V ₅ V ₇ 0.94	V ₅ V ₈ 0.37	V ₅ V ₉ 0.34	V ₅ V ₁₀ 0.17
					V ₆ V ₇ 0.11	V ₆ V ₈ 0.97	V ₆ V ₉ 0.86	V ₆ V ₁₀ 0.37
						V ₇ V ₈ 0.84	V ₇ V ₉ 0.53	V ₇ V ₁₀ 0.36
							V ₈ V ₉ 0.53	V ₈ V ₁₀ 0.71
								V ₉ V ₁₀ 0.63

Table 6B gives the average indices on employment within the person, achieved through employment, which are the simple average figures of average indices on self confidence, creativity, employer-employee relationship and job satisfaction. The average cumulative index on empowerment within the person is 54, which is moderately favourable. District-wise indices are also moderately favourable (57, 54 and 51). In all the three districts the self employed women have the highest category-wise indices (70, 61, 61). Index within the person is the lowest for government employees in TCR district (45), nurses in KKD and TVM districts (41, 48). Thus all these indices are either highly favourable or moderately favourable.

Table 6 B**Table showing Average Indices on Empowerment Within the Person**

Thiruvananthapuram District									Thrissur District								Kozhikode District								
*	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DI	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DI	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	T	CI
1	55	54	48	53	48	63	77	57	45	40	48	42	61	51	68	51	51	41	46	48	39	45	72	49	52
2	63	59	50	56	49	69	78	61	56	60	50	51	58	60	72	58	51	45	54	61	43	51	72	54	58
3	51	64	47	64	54	64	52	59	64	55	58	49	66	58	51	59	64	51	56	61	51	55	49	57	58
4	37	74	56	56	42	60	71	56	52	61	66	42	52	32	56	52	54	55	52	57	36	19	54	48	52
A	51	61	49	56	48	64	70	57	53	53	55	45	59	50	61	54	54	47	50	56	41	42	61	51	54

1. Average Index on Self Confidence; 2. Average Index on Creativity; 3. Average Index on Employer-Employee Relationship; 4. Average Index on Job Satisfaction; A= Average Index on Empowerment within the Person

Source: Compiled from primary data

SECTION III - EMPOWERMENT IN FAMILY

The 'power relations' in family is a very important aspect from the point of view of empowerment of woman. An employed woman may be very powerful and efficient in an organization. But the situation at home may be different. Various elements included in the study of empowerment in family are-Role of Employment in Increasing the Self Esteem, Importance in the Family, Role in deciding the number of children, Role in decision making in Family matters, Role of Employment in keeping up the individuality, Role in Increasing Self dependence, Role in increasing the Family Income and in Securing the respect of husband and in-laws.

In every family there is a bargaining on power relations. Sometimes, women are totally excluded from all areas of decision making. When women do not have any income of their own and are totally depended on other family members for all their financial needs, they may lose the bargaining power. So it is very important to see if employment confers empowerment in family.

Table 6.9
Satisfaction Index on Empowerment in Family

	Thiruvananthapuram District								Thrissur District								Kozhikode District								CI
	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DI	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DI	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DI	
1	58	82	72	72	62	77	85	72	85	73	75	68	73	33	82	70	77	55	65	72	60	50	78	65	69
2	52	68	69	72	60	70	90	69	77	53	63	65	47	57	78	63	45	43	63	48	68	58	63	56	62
3	60	47	50	62	30	60	65	55	62	57	67	53	50	56	58	58	42	34	43	60	60	66	76	54	56
4	55	65	59	60	53	83	83	66	60	63	57	62	55	63	67	61	57	55	67	67	47	65	82	63	63
5	75	78	65	72	78	82	82	76	83	70	63	70	62	58	80	70	58	55	68	68	57	60	83	64	70
6	70	78	67	63	67	77	72	70	82	63	68	62	65	60	85	69	53	62	67	72	62	58	75	64	68
7	42	77	63	63	55	80	70	64	72	73	67	75	50	53	65	65	58	55	63	70	53	58	65	60	63
8	52	60	60	55	48	77	68	60	63	61	57	50	44	31	62	54	35	24	48	48	53	38	52	42	52
A	58	69	63	65	54	76	77	66	73	64	65	63	55	52	72	64	53	48	61	63	57	57	72	59	63

1. Self Esteem. 2. Importance in the Family 3. Role in deciding the number of children. 4. Role in decision making in Family matters. 5. Role of employment in keeping up individuality. 6. Role of employment in increasing self dependence. 7. Role in increasing the Family Income. 8. Role in securing the respect of Husband and In-laws.

Source: Compiled from primary data

6.9.1. Role of Employment in Increasing the Self Esteem

The overall index of 69 is highly favourable. The district-wise indices for TVM (72) and TSR (70) are also highly favourable. But KKD is near the highly favourable range with 65. Indices for different categories in all the three districts fall either in the highly favourable or moderately favourable range. The highest Index is 85, for both the self employed in TVM and School teachers in TSR district. The lowest score of 33 is for workers in TSR district.

In a category-wise analysis, the self employed tops the list with 85 in TVM, 82 in TSR and 78 in KKD. When women enter into a self employed business, they have much hesitation and doubts. But once they get experienced in the field, they get transformed. They feel their self worth and competence. This is reflected in the high score secured by them.

6.9.2. Importance in the Family

The overall index is 62, which is moderately favourable. The district-wise index is 69 for TVM district, which falls in the highly favourable range. The figures are 63 for TSR and 56 for KKD, which are moderately favourable. The highest score is 90 for the self employed in TVM district. The lowest score of 43 is for the College teachers in KKD district. That means, all the values fall either in the highly or moderately favourable range. This shows that in all the families of employed women, they have got an important position.

Though there are variations in the indices between categories and districts, it can be concluded that employment increases the importance of a woman in the family. If she is the main earning member, her position will be the most important one. An unemployed woman is always dependent on others and this reduces her importance to some extent.

6.9.3. Role in Deciding the Number of Children

This is a very important area of decision making in the family. The decision has got a lot of consequences also. Since both the parents have the responsibility of bringing up the children, they decide it together in some families. In some other families, women just follow the decision taken by husband or in-laws. There are plenty of cases where women are forced to undergo sterilization, abortion etc., by other family members.

The cumulative score is 56, which is moderately favourable. The indices for the districts also fall in this range with values 55, 58 and 54. The highest score is 76 for the self employed in KKD district and the lowest is 30 for nurses in TVM district.

The analysis shows that employed women have moderate freedom in deciding the number of children. But they do not have the exclusive power to decide it. Since the score is 54, it indicates that husband and wife have an almost equal decision making power in this regard.

6.9.4. Role in Decision Making in Family Matters

The power of decision-making is a real test of empowerment of a person. The extent of decision-making power exercised by employed women in their family is analysed below. The overall score is 63, which falls near the upper limit of moderately favourable range. The districts do not show much variation. TVM leads with 66, which has almost reached the highly favourable range. It is followed by KKD with 63 and TSR with 61. The highest score of 83 is in TVM district both for the workers and the self-employed. The lowest value of 47 is for the nurses in KKD district. Thus all the indices fall either in the highly favourable or moderately favourable range.

A common phenomenon noted here is that, the high degree of decision making power of the self employed women, is reflected by the very high satisfaction indices of 83, 67 and 82. The fact that they have plunged into the business stream and are doing it successfully through a series of decision making, has increased the decision making power in the family also. Factory workers also exhibit a good degree of decision- making power. Those in the public sector in TVM district have the highest score of 83 and others 63 and 65 each. This is a clear sign that in spite of the low wages, the earning power brings decision- making power.

Another important feature is that the lowest score in all the three districts alike, is for the nurses, their scores being 53, 55 and 47, though the values are in the moderately favourable range. The inclusion of unmarried nurses in the sample might have also contributed to this lower score.

An important point to note is that the workers who had very low score regarding job satisfaction, exhibit a different pattern while coming to family empowerment. In deciding the number of children as well as in other decision making in the family, they exercise a moderately high degree of power, and even to a greater degree than those in the school, bank, hospital etc., Though they are earning only a small amount, in a poor family it is a great share of the family income and they derive more power than others who have high salary.

6.9.5. Role of Employment in Keeping up Individuality

Bargaining on power relations, knowingly or unknowingly, is common in every family. One of the family members may emerge as more powerful and the activities in the family even those of the other persons in the family, may start revolving round that person who has emerged more powerful. Others are relegated to the background. In a traditional family, husband is considered as the head of the family and the majority of the powers are reserved with him, even if he earns or not. In modern families, there is sharing of power between husband and wife to some extent. The important agency, which disturbs the power reservation system in the traditional family is the earning power of woman.

The fact that this element has the highest score in the group, speaks for itself. The overall index of 70 falls in the highly favourable range. TVM and TSR districts have highly favourable indices of 76 and 70 and KKD is below that range with 64. The highest category-wise score is for the school teachers in TSR and self employed in KKD with 83 each. A large number of category-wise indices fall in the highly favourable range with very high values making clear the role of employment in keeping up the individuality of women.

6.9.6. Role of Employment in Increasing Self Dependence

Dependence is said to be the villain who makes women powerless. When husband is the sole earning member of the family, she has to depend upon him, even to meet her very personal and petty expenses. This gives him an opportunity for him to remind her of her dependence on him and his authority over her. Many unemployed women are suffering without a penny with them and many have to degrade themselves to the level of requesting from their relatives for their personal needs. This great handicap of women is solved forever, once they start to earn.

This is the third element in this group which has crossed over the highly favourable range with 68. TVM leads with 70, followed closely by TSR with 69 and by KKD with 64. Category-wise maximum score is 85, for the self- employed in TSR district. The lowest score of 53 is also in KKD district, for the school teachers.

An unusual point to note here is that the nurses who used to get low indices for other elements have got a good score in all the three districts; 67, 65 and 62 for this very decisive element. Though there are many negative points associated with the profession of nursing, they are aware of the fact that it has contributed to a great extent in making them self- dependent.

6.9.7. Role in Increasing the Family Income

Woman's earnings are always considered as subsidiary income and man is considered as the bread-winner. The traditional concept is that, if husband is having a substantially high income, there is no need for a woman to work. The decision as to whether a woman should participate in the labour force itself is decided by the proportion of augmentation in the income she can bring to the family. The decision of sending a woman to work depends on

an opportunity cost consideration. What she will be getting is extra compared to the benefit the family would have received, had she been at home looking after the children and caring for the husband and in-laws is the main concern. A woman is allowed to work only if her income results in a considerable increase the family income. The overall index for this element is 63, which falls near the upper limit of the moderately favourable index. The score of the districts are also similar i.e., 64, 65 and 60.

The highest category-wise index is 80 for the workers in TVM district. The factory workers in the public sector earn a good salary which constitutes a big share of their family income. The lowest index is for school teachers in TVM district, which is 42. Teachers in private unaided schools earn lesser salary than the aided school teachers. But their index is low since their husbands are earning a comparatively higher income and their share in the total income is small and not because they earn lesser than the workers with an index of 80. Another point to note is that, though the self-employed in all the three districts have indices greater than the gross index, it is not as high as usual. This is because many of the self-employed are earning very less, compared to other categories, especially those in the initial stage of their production.

6.9.8. The Role of Employment in Securing the Respect of Husband and in-laws

The overall index is 52, which is in the moderately favourable range. But among all the elements studied under 'Empowerment in Family', this is the one with the lowest index. It is index of 42 in KKD district, which pulled down the general index to 52, though TVM is having 60 and TSR 54. This is the element having the lowest index for both TSR and KKD. In TVM, it is the second lowest. This is a strange phenomenon. The reason may be either

positive or negative. Positive reason may be that even if not employed, women get due respect from husband's family members. The negative possible reason may be that, even if women are well employed and can earn a good income for the family, it has nothing to do with securing the respect of husband's family. They are indifferent to it, to some extent, in some families. Both reasons might have played in the background. In many cases, in-laws resent women going for a job, due to the inconveniences it causes to them like child care, in spite of the extra income they bring to the family. In some traditional families, they may have to enter into a real fight with the husband and in-laws in order to go out for a job, even if they are highly qualified. Some women are compelled even to resign their job after marriage.

Highest category-wise score is for workers in TVM district, having 77, who bring a proportionately high income to their families. For other workers and self-employed, the low index can be considered as an after-effect of low income earned. But it looks strange that the highly qualified and high salaried college teachers in KKD district have an index even lower than the poor factory workers and they have the lowest category-wise index in the whole table, which is 24.

Conclusion

After going through all the indices on the above elements, it is clear that employment contributes a great degree of empowerment to women in the family, since many of the indices fall either in the highly favourable range or near the Upper limit of the moderately favourable range. A district-wise analysis shows that TVM district has a very bright picture for women regarding empowerment in family, by 5 indices out of 8 coming in the highly favourable range.

In KKD district, all indices are in the moderately favourable range, varying from 65 to 54 and the lowest one is 42. It is surprising that college teachers in this district have got a very low index for all the elements compared to other districts and other categories. The self-employed have got good scores with 5 values in the highly favourable range varying from 83 to 75. TSR district has 3 indices in the highly favourable range and 5 in the moderately favourable range, varying from 70 to 54.

A category-wise analysis shows that the Self-Employed in all the three districts have the highest empowerment in family. Factory-workers in TVM district have exemplary scores, with 7 indices in highly favourable range. The cumulative average index for empowerment in family is 63, which is near the highly favourable range. District-wise average indices are 66, 64 and 59.

Table 6.9.1

Paired Correlation between Variables in Table 6.9

V ₁ V ₂ 0.84	V ₁ V ₃ 0.64	V ₁ V ₄ 0.52	V ₁ V ₅ 0.71	V ₁ V ₆ 0.52	V ₁ V ₇ 0.31	V ₁ V ₈ 0.94
	V ₂ V ₃ 0.42	V ₂ V ₄ 0.56	V ₂ V ₅ 0.74	V ₂ V ₆ 0.47	V ₂ V ₇ 0.58	V ₂ V ₈ 0.94
		V ₃ V ₄ 0.31	V ₃ V ₅ 0.64	V ₃ V ₆ 0.71	V ₃ V ₇ 0.57	V ₃ V ₈ 0.22
			V ₄ V ₅ 0.11	V ₄ V ₆ 0.54	V ₄ V ₇ 0.17	V ₄ V ₈ 0.94
				V ₅ V ₆ 0.57	V ₅ V ₇ 0.21	V ₅ V ₈ 0.93
					V ₆ V ₇ 0.11	V ₆ V ₈ 0.47
						V ₇ V ₈ 0.53

A close observation of the Paired correlation matrix reveals that a great degree of correlation exists between majority of variables in table 6.9. For example, the first variable 'Self Esteem' has high degree of correlation with all other elements in the table except element no.7, 'Family Income' where the value is 0.31. This shows that the self esteem of the employed women is not affecting the amount contributed to family income.

Out of 28 interconnections in the matrix, 18 have a value above 0.5, whereas only 10 have values less than 0.5. This shows that there is a good amount of correlation among their indices.

SECTION IV - EMPOWERMENT IN SOCIETY

Table 6.10

Satisfaction Index on Empowerment in Society

	Thiruvananthapuram District								Thrissur District								Kozhikode District								
	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DI	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DI	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DI	CI
1	13	15	12	-22	10	23	40	13	-30	35	2	18	28	0	15	10	27	10	8	8	8	3	25	13	12
2	12	27	13	13	28	27	68	27	-17	8	3	10	33	22	33	13	13	23	10	25	5	17	47	20	20
3	8	22	2	7	22	3	40	15	-28	8	-10	17	37	13	27	9	22	32	-3	28	2	12	28	17	14
4	25	62	27	48	35	32	68	42	43	43	38	35	53	40	50	43	60	52	33	58	38	8	55	44	43
5	40	62	30	27	22	57	65	43	33	43	17	23	47	23	50	34	45	30	12	50	33	12	45	32	36
6	48	58	53	52	40	55	75	55	55	38	42	57	45	50	67	50	57	62	58	63	47	57	77	60	55
7	47	48	43	47	28	62	57	47	25	30	27	33	32	58	73	40	45	52	33	57	27	65	70	50	46
A	28	42	26	25	26	37	59	35	12	30	17	28	39	30	45	29	38	37	22	41	23	25	50	34	32

1. Confidence to travel alone within the state. 2. Confidence to file a petition. 3. Confidence to go to a police station. 4. Confidence of meet a Government official. 5. Confidence to speak in public. 6. Freedom to spend money. 7. Freedom to decide the future.

Source: Compiled from primary data

Out of the seven statements given under this head, four have moderately favourable indices. Three got only less than favourable indices. The moderately favourable indices are 55 for freedom to spend money, 46 for

freedom to decide the future, 43 for confidence to meet a government official and discuss an issue and 36 for confidence to talk before an audience. Naturally, all these are difficult for a woman in the present society. Often men in the family, do all these activities. At the most, women go along with men, either husband, father, brother, uncle or cousin and take decisions along with them if a serious issue pops up in their life. Usually men are in a state of self-complacency, protecting women always. The scores are very low when compared to the scores under the other heads, due to the traditional and conservative nature of the society. The first three statements under this head fall in the less favourable category, with indices 12, 20 and 14.

6.10.1. Confidence to Travel Alone within the State

The statement which has scored the minimum index of 12 is 'confidence to travel anywhere within the state without any fear'. Every citizen should have the freedom and confidence to travel anywhere in his or her country without any fear. While the language barrier is a real problem to travel outside the state, mother tongue alone is sufficient for any one to move within the state. Unlike the other states in India where women enjoy more freedom of mobility, in Kerala, women cannot venture unescorted to a distant place or during late hours due to fear of harassment. This pitiable condition of women in the state is reflected by the small index of 12. It shows that even employed women cannot think of travelling alone anywhere within the state. Then we can imagine the condition of other women who are unemployed. It is high time we open our eyes to this dreadful reality and take whatever remedial action possible. The indices are 9.8 in TSR and 13 each for the other two districts. This is due to the comparative traditional nature of the society, where women are always escorted.

6.10.2. Confidence to File a Petition

The third lowest index of 20 is for 'confidence to file a petition'. The word petition is associated with a police station and all the other fears related to it. A very negative picture of the police and the dreadful scenes of the police station may be one reason for the great fear for police and anything related to it like filing a petition. Here again, TSR has got the lowest score of 13 against 27 in TVM and 20 in KKD. TSR district has one negative value; -17 for school-teachers. The highest index of 68 again is for the self-employed in TVM. Self-employed in TSR and KKD also have moderately favourable indices of 33 and 47.

6.10.3. Confidence to go to a Police Station and File a Petition

The second lowest Index of 14 is for 'confidence to go to a police station and file a petition'. It is always a fearful thing for a woman even to enter the premises of a police station. In many cases women dread the police more than the criminal. It is quite natural that the score is as low as 14. In category-wise analysis it has got a value as low as -28 for school teachers in TSR district. For all the three above-mentioned statements, school teachers in TSR district have negative values of -30, -28 and -17. They seem to be the most fearful, to travel alone, to go to a police station, etc. The maximum value is 40 for self-employed in TVM and 37 for nurses in TSR district. TSR district has the minimum index of 9 against 15 for TVM and 17 for KKD.

6.10.4. Confidence to Meet a Government Officer

Regarding confidence to meet a Government official and discuss an issue, all the three districts have very similar indices; 42, 43 and 44. The highest index again is marked by the self-employed. TVM has 68 the only one

index, which falls in the highly favourable range. Workers in KKD district have the lowest value of 8. It seems that they are more afraid of government officials than the police.

In TVM district, 3 indices fall in the moderately favourable range- 62, 48 and 35, and three in the less favourable range, 32, 27 and 25. The low indices tell that even bank employees and school teachers do not have the confidence to meet a government official. In TSR district, all indices fall in the moderately favourable range, varying from 53 to 35. It seems that the women of TSR, generally are courageous enough to meet a government official. In KKD district, all other than the workers have moderately favourable indices.

6.10.5. Confidence to Talk in Public

The ability to talk before an audience is a quality needed for a person who wants to involve in the society. It is an element, which indirectly measures the empowerment of a person in the society.

The overall index for this element being 36, it has just entered the moderately favourable range. The highest district-wise index of 43 is for TVM district. TSR and KKD have only 34 and 32 each. The category with the highest index is the self employed in TVM district (65), which is near the highest point of moderately favourable range. Close to them are the college teachers with 62. The lowest of all indices are for bank employees and workers of KKD, who have 12 each.

The lowest index in TVM is for nurses (22). In TVM district, two more indices fall in the less favourable range, i.e., 30 for bank employees and 27 for Government employees. Four groups fall in the moderately favourable range; self-employed with 65, college teachers with 62, workers with 57 and

school teachers with 40. TSR district has 4 indices in the moderately favourable range and 3 in the less than favourable range. The highest is 50 for the self employed and lowest is 17 for bank employees. In KKD district highest is 50 for government employees. The lowest is 12 for bank employees and nurses. Four indices are in the moderately favourable range and three in the less than favourable range.

6.10.6. Freedom to Spend Money

If women who earn an income do not have any freedom to spend from that hard-earned income, it is worse than being unemployed. However, this is the statement having the highest overall index of 55, which lies in the moderately favourable range.

The highest, category-wise index also falls in KKD district for the self-employed, (77), which is closely followed by their counterparts in TVM with 75. The third index, which falls in the highly favourable range, is 67; that also for the self employed in TSR district. There is a clear variation on the index on freedom to spend, between the self employed and other categories of workers. In TVM district, the index of 55 lies in the moderately favourable range. Most of the indices in all the three districts fall in the moderately favorable range.

It is surprising that in the freedom to spend alone, KKD shows an entirely different picture than usual. It has the maximum district-wise index of 60, which is higher than the overall index of 55. The category-wise maximum index fall in KKD district. The minimum index of 47 is higher than the minimum of other two districts. Another point to note is that, under this head 'Empowerment in society', this is the only element which has got all the category-wise index in all the three districts either in the highly favorable or

moderately favourable range. None of the values has fallen in the less than favourable range, unlike the other elements.

6.10.7. Freedom to Decide the Future

Only if the society offers a safe and peaceful atmosphere for women, they will have the freedom to decide their future. Traditions and family structures play an important role in deciding the future of women. Many women have no role in deciding the important events in their lives. Deciding whether to marry or not, when to marry, whom to marry, what share to receive, what course to study, which institution to choose, what employment to take up and many other important decisions are taken by others with or without her consent. Only a powerful person can take some decision in her life regarding her future.

The overall index is 46, which, fall in the moderately favourable range. The scores for the districts are 47, 40 and 50, KKD district being the topper. The highest index is 73 for self-employed in TSR district. The second highest value of 70 and the third value of 65 fall in the KKD district. The highest index in TVM district is 62 for the workers. The lowest is 28 for nurses, which is less than favourable. No value has risen to the highly favourable range. This is the only element in which TVM lags far behind the KKD district.

The lowest value in TSR district is 25 for school teachers. For 4 categories, indices fall in less than favourable range; school and college teachers, bank employees and nurses. Government employees with their huge salaries have very less freedom to spend it in TSR district. Their index (33) exhibit the traditional, patriarchal nature of family and society in the district. It is the poor workers and self employed who have some role in deciding their future. In KKD district, the highest index of 70 is for the self employed and

the lowest is 27 for nurses. All other values fall in the moderately favourable range with values varying from 65 to 33.

Conclusion

The above analysis shows that the involvement of employed women in the society is very limited. This may be due to the double burden experienced by them. The cultural and traditional factors also play an important role in limiting the public space of women. This is further clarified by the section relating to involvement in society, where it is made clear that employed women rarely participate in social activities. Their participation is limited to the nominal membership in the trade unions relating to their work.

Table 6.10.1

Paired Correlation between Variables in Table 6.10

V_1V_2 0.34	V_1V_3 0.47	V_1V_4 0.52	V_1V_5 0.94	V_1V_6 0.22	V_1V_7 0.58
	V_2V_3 0.14	V_2V_4 0.32	V_2V_5 0.94	V_2V_6 0.17	V_2V_7 0.37
		V_3V_4 0.11	V_3V_5 0.28	V_3V_6 0.29	V_3V_7 0.05
			V_4V_5 0.01	V_4V_6 0.17	V_4V_7 0.53
				V_5V_6 0.11	V_5V_7 0.24
					V_6V_7 0.17

Table 6.10.1 exhibits a poor degree of correlation between the variables in Table 6.10, related to Empowerment in society. Out of 21 values in the matrix, only 5 are above 0.5, indicating a poor correlation among the

variables. It shows that there is no conformity between the variables selected for measuring improvement in the society. The analysis of Table 6.10 has already proved that employed women have very poor involvement and therefore poor empowerment in the society. Elements like travelling alone anywhere in the state, going to a police station, talking in public etc are difficult for ordinary working women in Kerala, due to cultural reasons and usually they withdraw from such situations.

SECTION V - NEGATIVE EFFECTS OF EMPLOYMENT

In order to serve as a cross check on the empowerment attained through Employment, all conceivable problems of an employed woman in her personal life within the organisation, in the family and society are grouped under the head, 'Negative Effects of Employment'.

The elements were selected from books and articles and explaining problems faced by employed women. The ten elements checked are: 1. Deterioration in Husband-wife relationship; 2. Lack of Communication in the Family; 3. Weak Family Relations; 4. High Family Expenditure; 5. Lack of time for Recreation and Socialisation; 6. Abortion, Miscarriage etc., due to job; 7. No time for Home Management; 8. No Freedom to spend salary; 9. Job leading to Bad Health; 10. Mental Stress at Work place.

All the above elements are negative elements. According to the methodology of Attitude Statement Preparation, it is suggested that negative statements are to be avoided. To keep this principle, the given statements were converted to positive statements and responses were recorded. This enabled the use of the same methodology followed, in this section also.

Table 6.11
Satisfaction Index on Negative Effects of Employment of Women

Thiruvananthapuram District									Thrissur District									Kozhikode District									
S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DI		S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DI		S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DI		CI
1	73	65	75	87	71	63	78	73	72	71	71	58	54	79	70	69		77	52	52	57	69	53	83	63		68
2	48	58	53	55	37	55	78	55	20	58	58	35	35	65	58	47		50	37	23	43	43	52	72	46		49
3	57	67	68	80	58	53	87	67	75	73	63	62	55	70	63	66		62	55	50	58	70	50	82	61		65
4	48	47	40	45	32	10	73	42	50	60	55	43	40	30	22	43		38	40	53	43	42	-3	47	37		41
5	8	22	15	12	17	7	35	16	-13	10	18	-22	38	28	2	9		22	3	-10	10	18	-20	33	8		11
6	55	55	62	68	64	50	80	62	63	70	58	47	70	59	75	63		48	60	50	62	52	38	73	55		60
7	30	20	32	40	33	27	65	35	-30	18	30	5	13	38	25	14		23	17	-2	27	15	-12	40	15		22
8	57	58	68	65	40	50	80	60	53	48	67	47	43	55	45	51		72	62	72	60	52	28	77	60		57
9	57	58	68	65	40	50	80	60	53	48	67	47	43	55	45	51		72	62	72	60	52	28	77	60		57
10	38	62	55	40	52	42	53	49	32	38	45	38	33	5	37	33		50	38	50	55	47	-5	58	42		41
	47	51	54	56	44	41	71	52	38	50	53	36	43	48	44	45		51	43	41	48	46	21	64	45		47

1. Deterioration in husband-wife relationship. 2. Lack of communication in the family. 3. Weak family relations. 4. High family expenditure. 5. Lack of time for recreation and socialization. 6. Abortion, Miscarriage etc., due to job. 7. No time for Home Management. 8. No Freedom to spend salary. 9. Job leading to Bad health. 10. Mental Stress at work place.

Source: Compiled from primary data

6.11.1. Deterioration in Husband-wife Relationship

One traditional way of thinking is that, when the wife is employed and earns by herself, she will have more freedom and she will be more independent and this may lead to ego conflicts. But in this study, this element has got the highest score of 68, which is highly favourable. TVM district has a very high index of 73 followed by TSR with 69 and KKD with 63. All the three districts have very good scores, but KKD falls short of 4 points to enter the highly favourable range. In all the three districts, this is the element which got the highest score. Most of the categories have the maximum score for this element. Thus the employed women in all the three districts have declared loud that employment does not result in bad husband-wife relationship.

6.11.2. Lack of Communication in the Family.

It is quite natural that when compared with unemployed women, employed women will have only lesser communication with the family members. When the unemployed women spend the whole day with the family members, employed women spend only a few hours with them. During that time she will be extremely busy, attending to household duties. Even her children cannot have her presence, when they need it most. But this is an unavoidable consequence of employment. The loss to the children can be minimised if there are creches attached to the work place, or when the family is either extended or joint. When they have to travel a long distance, the problem is more acute. Residence near the work place can solve the problem to some extent. When women are staying in hostels due to transfer or when the work places of husband and wife are far apart, communication problem may arise.

Though the overall index is in the favourable range, its value being 49 shows that there are communication problems in the family. But as mentioned above, it is unavoidable to some extent. Only conscious efforts from either side can fill the gap. In all the three districts, the indices are in the moderately favourable range, TVM having 55, TSR 47 and KKD 46.

6.11.3. Weak Family Relations

This is an after effect of the previous element namely, 'Lack of Communication'. But this element has got the second best index of 65. This shows that though employed women experience communication problems, it has not resulted in the weakening of relations with the family members and relatives. It means that women are successfully managing the communication problems associated with their situation of being employed.

District-wise indices are also high and close to one another. TVM leads with 67, closely followed by TSR with 66 and KKD by 61. This shows the consistency of the issue to the employed women in general. It is well established beyond doubt that, employment will not cause bad relations with family members and relatives.

6.11.4. Employment leading to High Family Expenditure

When a person is employed, he or she starts spending more. This is true to some extent. If expense is proportionate to income, it is not harmful. There may be a lot of income-induced expenditure. But when one starts to spend in excess of the income, it leads to indebtedness. Various studies have revealed the fact that women's income is spent more on consumption goods for the family and therefore their standard of living and quality of life will improve. Then of course, there will be increase in expenditure due to increased income from employment. This is expressed by the overall index of 41. Though it is in the moderately favourable range, the value is small. Many categories have less than favourable Indices also. District-wise indices are 43 for TSR, 42 for TVM, and 37 for KKD.

6.11.5. No Time for Recreation and Socialisation

This is a genuine, but unavoidable problem for employed women. While most of the employed men spend time with friends in the club or other organisations, and many come home very late, women have to rush to their houses, directly from the work place, to assume all the duties of a house wife. This drains out all their energy. While she toils in the kitchen with the household chores, sometimes her husband may be relaxing, or involved in some activities of socialisation. But the situation is changing, when many employed men have turned out to be understanding husbands who are ready to share the household responsibilities, along with their wives.

This is the element which has the lowest overall index of 11, showing that this is the most common problem for all the employed women. For TVM District, the index is 16, while for the other two districts, it is almost half of it ie., 8 for KKD and 9 for TSR.

6.11.6. Abortion and Miscarriage due to Job

This problem is not widely experienced by the employed women, since it has got a good overall index of 60. District-wise indices are 62, 63 and 55 for TVM, TSR and KKD. TVM and TSR are close to each other with a difference of just one point, while KKD is a bit far with 8 points difference from TSR.

There are a lot of diseases related to the particular nature of the work, which has come to be known as 'work prone diseases'. The posture assumed during the work, hard manual work and long hours of work may lead to abortion or miscarriage. Since it is associated more with manual labour, it is the workers who should be affected more. In TVM and KKD, workers have the lowest indices of 50 and 38.

6.11.7. No Time for Home Management

This is the element which has got the second lowest index, in the whole group (22) and falls in the less than favourable range. This is corollary to the element discussed before namely, 'No time for recreation and socialisation'. The entire time of the employed women outside the working hours are completely taken up by the household duties. The morning and evening time of most of the employed women are full of physical and mental strain struggling to complete the household work before going to the work place. In order to tackle this problem many get up as early as 3 a.m. and go to

bed late at night. Home management is a real problem for many women, especially when they have small children.

TVM district alone has entered the moderately favourable range with a small index of 35. The highest index for this element is in TVM district; 65 for the self employed. Since they work mostly at their own residence, they can attend to their household duties and adjust their working hours according to their convenience. If the situation demands, some of them can do work at night also. Thus, from the point of view of home management, self employed women are at an advantage since they enjoy a lot of flexibility in working hours. But this advantage is not reflected in the scores of their counterparts in TSR and KKD, since their indices are 25 and 40.

6.11.8. No Freedom to Spend the Salary

Freedom to spend the salary is an important aspect from the point of view of empowerment of employed women. If a woman has no freedom to spend the money she earned by herself, it is a very pitiable situation.

The overall index is 57, which is near the upper limit of the moderately favourable range. While both KKD and TVM has got a good index of 60 each, TSR district lags behind with an index of 51. In other issues also, the traditional nature of the families in TSR district was noted. It is equally interesting to note that KKD district which used to lag behind in many aspects, has made a sudden jump to the forefront regarding this element. Since there are many restrictions for women in KKD district, and those who come out to work are lesser, once they break the barriers and become employed, they enjoy more freedom to spend the salary they earn. But the factory workers, as usual, have a less favourable index of 28.

The highest category-wise index is 80 for the self employed in TVM. The lowest is 28 for the workers in KKD district, which is the only index in the less favourable range.

6.11. 9. Job Leading to Bad Health

There are many health problems associated with the nature of work and working conditions. Many types of work affect the health of people in different ways. Many jobs done by women are disease prone, due to the particular posture assumed, poor working conditions etc.

The overall index for this element is 57, which is moderately favourable. District-wise indices are 60, 51 and 60, all falling in the moderately favourable range. Women in the sample do not consider that work is affecting their health much. While the self employed in TVM and TSR are having high scores of 80 and 77, those in TSR have a low index of 45. This shows that the self employed in TSR district are facing much difficulties related to their work. Just one index falls in the less favourable range with 28 for workers in KKD district. They have poor salary and are living in poor working conditions.

6.11.10. Mental Stress at Work Place

Stress at work place is a widely discussed topic, in Management studies. The stress experienced varies from work to work and person to person. Different works have different degrees of stress, associated with it. Higher the level of employment, greater will be the degree of stress experienced.

The overall index is 41, which is moderately favourable. District-wise indices are 49, 33 and 42, all lying in the moderately favorable range. This is an element where TSR district lags behind by 16 points from TVM district

and 9 points from KKD district. It must be looked into, why women in TSR District experience more stress than others. The highest category-wise score is 62 for the College Teachers in TVM. But their counterparts in the other two districts have only 38 each.

In all the three districts, the lowest indices are for workers. While in TSR, it is as low as 5, in KKD, it has still lowered to -5. In most of the factories, the work done by women requires speedy action and much concentration. Workers are put to hard work by setting high targets and they have to be in full attention before the machines. Those who cannot meet the set targets are threatened with salary cut and change of profession. This is true in all the three districts, but in the government enterprises in TVM district, there are many other positive aspects, which compensate for the hardships encountered. Work of nurses demands great responsibility and needs full time attention. Work in the operation theatre, Intensive Care Unit and the problems associated with night duty also increase their stress.

Conclusion

When we evaluate the overall scores for the elements, the highest index is 68, for the element 'Deterioration in Husband-wife relation', which is in the highly favourable range. Two elements out of ten got less favourable indices. They are 'Lack of time for Recreation and Socialisation' with 11 and 'No time for home management', with 22. This shows that employed women generally experience difficulty in finding time for recreation and socialization. They also feel that they have no time for home management. These two problems are experienced by most of the employed women. Very few have recorded that they have time for recreation and socialization.

For all other elements, the indices are in the moderately favourable range, varying from 65 to 38. All the negative elements are negated by the

employed women. Thus the positive results of Employment is confirmed by the high indices by the employed women. The average cumulative index is 47. Average indices for the districts are 52 for TVM and 45 each for TCR and KKD..

Table 6.11.1

Paired Correlation between Variables in Table 6.11

V ₁ V ₂ 0.36	V ₁ V ₃ 0.22	V ₁ V ₄ 0.17	V ₁ V ₅ 0.48	V ₁ V ₆ 0.27	V ₁ V ₇ 0.24	V ₁ V ₈ 0.34	V ₁ V ₉ 0.33	V ₁ V ₁₀ 0.73
	V ₂ V ₃ 0.73	V ₂ V ₄ 0.38	V ₂ V ₅ 0.34	V ₂ V ₆ 0.68	V ₂ V ₇ 0.42	V ₂ V ₈ 0.64	V ₂ V ₉ 0.32	V ₂ V ₁₀ 0.27
		V ₃ V ₄ 0.58	V ₃ V ₅ 0.61	V ₃ V ₆ 0.47	V ₃ V ₇ 0.23	V ₃ V ₈ 0.54	V ₃ V ₉ 0.01	V ₃ V ₁₀ 0.37
			V ₄ V ₅ 0.58	V ₄ V ₆ 0.43	V ₄ V ₇ 0.53	V ₄ V ₈ 0.31	V ₄ V ₉ 0.23	V ₄ V ₁₀ 0.11
				V ₅ V ₆ 0.73	V ₅ V ₇ 0.61	V ₅ V ₈ 0.17	V ₅ V ₉ 0.23	V ₅ V ₁₀ 0.48
					V ₆ V ₇ 0.59	V ₆ V ₈ 0.47	V ₆ V ₉ 0.53	V ₆ V ₁₀ 0.03
						V ₇ V ₈ 0.93	V ₇ V ₉ 0.47	V ₇ V ₁₀ 0.38
							V ₈ V ₉ 0.48	V ₈ V ₁₀ 0.34
								V ₉ V ₁₀ 0.73

In Table 6.11.1, majority of values in the matrix are below 0.5, indicating a very low conformity between the indices for the different variables, among different categories of employed women in the three districts. For all the negative elements indices were also negative, showing that working women have a positive attitude to employment. But the analysis in this table shows the variation in figures of different categories of employed women in the three districts.

Conclusion

In this chapter, we have discussed in detail, the various elements of empowerment under the major heads, namely empowerment in the organisation, empowerment in the family and society. Empowerment in the organisation was studied separately under two heads, namely empowerment at work place and empowerment within the person. Empowerment at work place was studied by evaluating the scores for 4 elements namely Teamwork, Leadership, Communication and Performance. Empowerment within the person was studied through another set of 4 elements namely, Self-confidence, Creativity, Employer-employee relationship and Job satisfaction. Empowerment in Family and society was measured with the help of another set of 10 statements each. Factors affecting Women Employment were ranked and the priority of problems faced by women relating to employment were found out. Another set of 10 statements were used to cross-check the empowerment scores of the employed women.

As a result of the analyses made, it was found that majority of the elements under the study falls either in the highly favourable or moderately favourable range, showing that a great degree of empowerment is achieved through employment. Self employed women are identified as the category having the highest degree of empowerment, since they have got the majority of scores in the highly favourable range for almost all the elements. Self employment is found to be most suitable for women from the empowerment point of view. Factory workers in the private sector, especially those in KKD district are found to be the most disadvantageous regarding almost all the empowerment elements under study. It can be concluded that all forms of employment, especially self employment will provide empowerment to women.

Table 6 C
Average Satisfaction Index For Different Levels Of Empowerment

AVERAGE SATISFACTION INDEX FOR DIFFERENT LEVELS OF EMPOWERMENT																											
	THIRUVANANTHAPURAM								THRISSUR								KOZHIKODE										
	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DI	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DI	S	C	B	G	N	W	SE	DI	CI		
1	60	59	47	54	56	69	84	61	65	58	55	46	65	57	78	60	53	47	52	59	50	51	79	56	59		
2	51	61	49	56	48	64	70	57	53	53	55	45	59	50	61	54	54	47	50	56	41	42	61	51	54		
3	58	69	63	65	54	76	77	66	73	64	65	63	55	52	72	64	53	48	61	63	57	57	72	59	63		
4	28	42	26	25	26	37	59	35	12	30	17	28	39	30	45	29	38	37	22	41	23	25	50	34	32		
1. Empowerment in organisation 2. Empowerment within the person 3. Empowerment in family 4. Empowerment in society																											

Source: Compiled from primary data.

Note: Slight difference in the average figures from the manually computed figures in tables is due to the approximation made by Excel to the nearest whole number.

Among the four levels of empowerment under study, the first three namely, empowerment at work place, empowerment within the person and empowerment within the family have moderately favourable indices of 59, 54 and 63. These indices are closer to the upper limit of the moderately favourable range. Therefore the following hypotheses are accepted.

1. Employment leads to empowerment at work place.
2. Employment leads to empowerment within the person.
3. Employment leads to empowerment within the family.

Average index for 'Empowerment in society' lies in the less favourable range, though very close to it with a value of 32. Hence, the sub-hypothesis that employment leads to empowerment in the society is partially rejected.

Table 6 D

Table Showing District-Wise And Category-Wise Average Indices Of Empowerment for Employed Women

	Category	TVM	TSR	KKD	Average
1	School Teachers	49	51	50	50
2	College Teachers	58	51	45	51
3	Bank Employees	46	48	46	47
4	Government Employees	50	46	55	50
5	Nurses	46	55	43	48
6	Factory Workers	62	47	44	51
7	Self -employed	73	64	66	68
	Average for Districts/Sample	55	52	50	52

Source: Compiled from Primary Data.

Table 6 D gives the category-wise average indices for each district and for the whole sample under study. The average cumulative index for the whole sample is 52. The highest category-wise average index is 68 for the self employed. It is the only category which has got a highly favourable index. In all the phases of analysis, the self employed category was having exemplary scores. The fact that the empowerment index is above the average index of 52 by 16 points, bears witness to the important role of self employed business units in empowering women, compared to the other six categories of employment under the present study. Four other categories have average indices 50 and above. They are college teachers and factory workers with 51 each and school teachers and government employees with 50 each. The categories with scores below 50 are nurses with 48 and bank employees with 47. All these six categories are in the moderately favourable range with moderate degree of empowerment.

To summarise, when we examine the district-wise indices, putting together all categories of employed women, TVM district is having the lead with an average index of 55, followed by TCR with 52 and KKD with 50. All these indices are somewhere in the middle of the moderately favourable range which stretches from 33.33 to 66.66. District-wise average for the whole sample also has come to the same figure of category-wise average for the sample, proving the consistency of calculations done so far. It is also the same figure of average index of all the four levels of empowerment derived from table 4.12., i.e., $(59+54+63+32)/4 = 52$. On the basis of these figures, it can be concluded that employment contributes to empowerment of women. Thus, the main hypothesis that, 'Empowerment of women is possible through Employment' is accepted.

On the basis of the study an 'Empowerment Equation' can be formulated as follows, which is the simple average of empowerment indices in the four levels of empowerment.

$$EEI = \frac{(OEI + PEI + FEI + SEI)}{4}, \text{ where}$$

EEI	=	Index of Empowerment through employment
OEI	=	Organisational Empowerment Index
PEI	=	Personal Empowerment Index
FEI	=	Family Empowerment Index and
SEI	=	Society Empowerment Index

The whole analysis done so far can be presented in the form of a flow diagram as given below. Employment induces empowerment at work place and within the person and leads to empowerment within the family. It also contributes to empowerment in society to some extent.

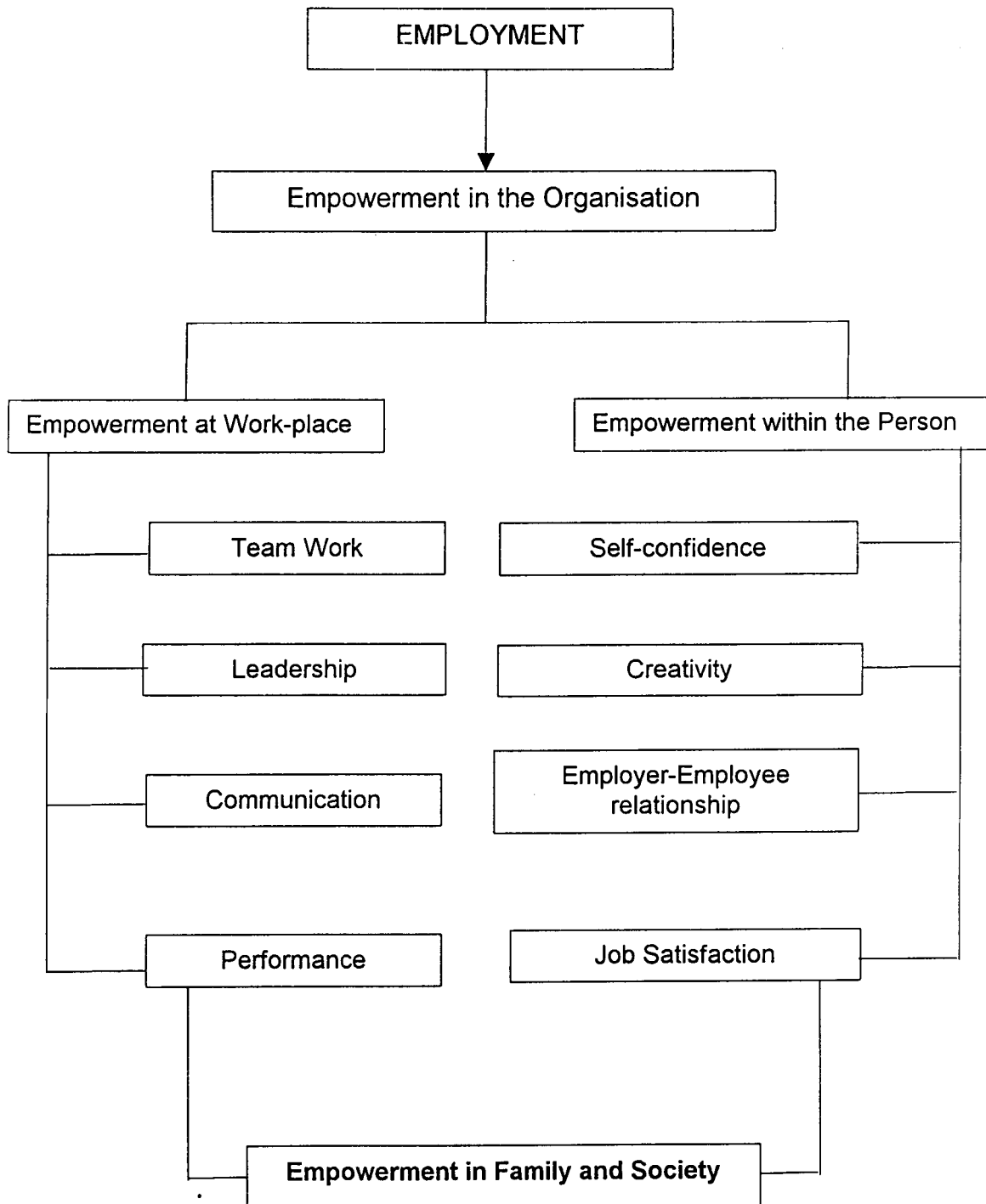


Figure 6.1

Diagram showing Empowerment Achieved through Employment

SECTION VI

FACTORS AFFECTING WOMEN EMPLOYMENT

The declining work participation of Kerala women, despite high level of literacy and education remains a paradox in the development studies. This section attempts to identify those factors which prevent women from participating in the work force.

Many traditional forces have put a lot of restrictions on women employment. Women working outside the house was discouraged in olden days. But women started to enter various fields of employment along with men, breaking the barriers put before them by the society. Many avenues of employment are still reluctant to open to her. Family, society, religions, Employable institutions and Working environment still pose a lot of problems before women who aspire for a job. Twelve factors affecting the employment of women were listed and the respondents were asked to rank them according to their personal preference (Kendall's ranking). Five hundred employed women belonging to TVM, TSR and KKD districts marked their preferences. The frequencies for first rank, second rank and third rank were counted separately. In order to identify the degree of impact, scores were calculated for each element, giving appropriate weights. The first rank is given 3 points, second rank 2 points and third rank 1 point. The total score is calculated by multiplying the frequencies with its corresponding weight. Table No. 6.12 shows the number of ranks for all the twelve elements and their corresponding scores. The elements are arranged in the Table in the order of the scores obtained.

Table 6.12

Factors Affecting Women Employment

	ELEMENT	FIRST RANK			SECOND RANK			THIRD RANK			TOTAL SCORE
		N	%	Score	N	%	Score	N	%	Score	
1	Caring small children	174	34.8	522	86	17.2	172	48	9.6	48	742
2	Difficulty in getting job related to Qualification	105	21	315	57	11.4	114	39	7.8	39	468
3	Distance to work place & frequent transfers	44	8.8	132	77	15.4	154	80	16	80	366
4	Unwillingness of Husband and in-laws	52	10.4	156	48	9.6	96	53	10.6	53	305
5	Inconvenient working hours	34	6.8	102	41	8.2	82	40	8	40	224
6	Family Traditions	25	5	75	51	10.2	102	39	7.8	39	216
7	Employer's preference for male employees	13	2.6	39	22	4.4	44	35	7	35	118
8	Lack of rules and regulations enforcing women employment	13	2.6	39	25	5	50	24	4.8	24	113
9	Certain jobs not open to women	12	2.4	36	22	4.4	44	26	5.2	26	106
10	Discrimination and harassment at work place	13	2.6	39	16	3.2	32	20	4	20	91
11	Certain jobs considered below status	10	2	30	13	2.6	26	27	5.4	27	83
12	Special facilities for women act as hindrance	5	1	15	15	3	30	23	4.6	23	68
	Total Score	500	100	1500	473	94.6	946	454	90.8	454	2900

Source: Compiled from primary data

6.12.1. Caring for Small Children

As is evident from Table 6.12, this seems to be most important problem for women. 35% of the respondents have given the first rank for this factor and 17 % ranked it second. The total score comes to 742.

In the social set up of Kerala, much importance is given to family relationships. Children are very much attached to their parents, especially to their mothers. In recent years, the increasing number of nuclear families and settling near the place of employment, have taken them away from other relatives, who would have otherwise cared for the children. Children below 3 years of age are to be looked after with much care and attention. Getting dependable servants and meeting their high demands aggravate the problem of caring for small children. This is a big problem to be tackled by young

employed women. Many young women are forced to postpone their entry into labour market due to this reason.

6.12.2. Difficulty in getting Job related to Qualification

Most of the women in Kerala are highly educated. They have their own preferences for jobs. Sometimes high education prevents them from taking up certain jobs. Preference for white collared jobs is very high among the educated women in Kerala. This is one of the reasons for the low work participation of women in Kerala. While women from lower middle class are ready to take up different types of jobs, educated women of the middle class and upper middle class are not ready to take up all kinds of jobs. If they do not get jobs according to their preferences, they keep away from the labour force, though they are highly qualified. They have their own income preferences also. Married women are affected also by the income of their husbands. If husband is earning a high salary, even professionally qualified women like doctors, engineers, and computer professionals withdraw from the labour market, unless they get a job according to their preferences. Thus, we see that labour force participation is not directly proportionate to education. It is high in the case of less educated group ready to take up any job and the professionals who get jobs according to their preferences. 21% of the respondents have ranked this factor as the most important problem.

6.12.3. Distance to Work- place and Frequent Transfers

This is the factor which has got the third highest score of 498. It has got 44 first ranks, 77 second ranks and 80 third ranks. This shows the difficulties faced by the women in Kerala due to the long distance to work-place and frequent transfers. Since Kerala is an elongated strip of land, journey from one end to the other takes longer hours. It is easier to reach other states from Kerala than to move from one end to the other within the state.

Often the transfers are from the extreme north of Kasargod to the extreme south of TVM. Thus journey is a real problem for many.

Lack of mobility is a great hindrance to women. Married women with children cannot stay away from homes. So they take the risk of travelling long distances. Once they get settled somewhere, frequent transfers compel them to move to another place which disrupt family life, education of children, etc. Since every promotion is linked with transfer, it is a great hurdle for women, preventing them to climb up the higher ladder in employment.

6.12.4. Unwillingness of Husband and In-laws to Send Women to Work

This factor has got the fourth highest score of 305. It has got 52 [10%] first ranks, 48 second ranks and 53 third ranks. The high score reveals the effect of this factor in the real life of women in Kerala and especially those in TSR district. 29 out of 52 first ranks are contributed by the women in TSR district. The traditional and conservative nature of families in TSR district has been noted while discussing the other elements also.

Many educated women are self-complacent and remain as full time housewives, just because women in those families usually do not go out for work. They find it demeaning and look down upon employed women. Sometimes husband and in-laws discourage women citing many reasons. Though many highly qualified women wish to go for a job, are prevented from taking up jobs. In many cases, even those who worked before marriage are asked to withdraw from jobs after marriage, or childbirth.

6.12.5. Inconvenient Working Hours

The score is 224 for this factor. It has got 34 first rank, 41 second ranks and 40 third ranks. This is a problem faced by many employed women, especially the worker category. They have to report for work as early as 6' O

clock to join the morning shift. In some factories women have shown readiness in taking up the night shift also, though it is inconvenient for them. Nurses also have to join duty early in the morning.

Free movement is not possible for women during the odd hours, especially in our state. Though women are ready to take the night shift, to and fro journey is dangerous. Women may encounter bad experiences at work place also. While men can take up any work, any time, women are restricted by many other elements in the society. So she is deprived of a lot of opportunities, which are available to men. Attitude of the society must change in order to help women take up work at any time.

6.12. 6. Family Traditions

The score is 216 for this element. There are 25 first ranks, 51 second ranks and 39 third ranks. In order to keep up the tradition of some families, they won't send their women to work. They consider it below their status. Since caste system is still prevalent, certain kinds of jobs traditionally done by low-castes are not acceptable for high caste women even now. Though certain kinds of jobs are available in the job market and women are in need of a job and an income, they will not take up the job, in order to keep up the tradition. They think it better to starve and die rather than go for the job. There are many middle and upper middle class families in Kerala with this attitude. Family suicides that occur in the state these days deserve special mention in this context.

6.12.7. Employer's Preference for Male Employees

Usually when a business enterprise is started in a locality, men are employed, unless it is women-specific. Men are employed in all highly paid jobs and women are given low paid jobs in the 'unskilled' category. There

are many factories and enterprises in Kerala, where women are not employed at all. The special facilities provided for women act as disincentive to the employers. The score for this factor is 118. There are 13 first ranks, 22 second ranks and 35 third ranks.

6.12.8. Lack of rules and regulations enforcing employment of women

Rules and Acts have laid down certain restrictions for employment of women. An example is the provision that women should not be given the night shift. Because of this, many employers avoid employing women in order to escape the resentment of men who will have to take the night shift very frequently. But the Act does not demand the employer to employ women. If the Act also prescribed that half of the employees should be women, employers would not have excluded women. The total score is 113 for this factor. It has 13 first ranks, 25 second ranks and 24 third ranks.

6.12.9. Certain Jobs are Not Open to Women

Women are excluded from a large variety of employment. Women are not getting a chance to equip themselves to be fit for certain jobs. Very few women have entered the defence, police, etc., but they have proved their worth. Even as bus and auto drivers women are equally good as men, which we could not think of a few years back. Women have the concentration and patience to learn and do any job, if they are given a chance. All fields of employment should be open to women and they should be given a chance to prove their mettle. This factor has got a score of 106. It has 12 first ranks, 22 second ranks and 26 third ranks.

6.12.10. Discrimination and Harassment at Work-place

There is evident discrimination towards women, in favour of men, in the case of appointment, classification as skilled and unskilled, fixing wages,

giving promotions, etc. Most of the work done by women are termed unskilled. They are given the lowest pay in the organization. In some organizations, only last grade posts are offered to women. In some others, sweepers alone are women. Linking of transfers with promotion indirectly prevents promotion of women. In the unorganized sector there is clear and open discrimination in salaries and wages. Labourers, everywhere are openly discriminated by wages lower than men, all over India and in Kerala too. Harassment is experienced by women only in some situations of work and hence it has got only the tenth rank. The score is 91 with 13 first ranks, 16 second ranks and 20 third ranks.

6.12.11. Certain Jobs considered Below Status

This is a problem inherent in every Indian and of course every 'Malayalee'. This is the after-effect of the age-old caste system. Though education and social reformation has removed many like untouchability, sectarian attitude, etc, the clouds of casteism still lingers with every Indian. Though the most literate state in India, we too are not completely free from the clutches of casteism. Jobs were always associated with caste. Each job was performed in society by a particular caste. Therefore, all those jobs previously done by low caste people are looked down upon by others even today. The members of the castes themselves shrink away those jobs, when they are educated. Many jobs are considered below status and even now majority of the wage- workers in the fields, construction workers, sweepers, launders, etc. are from SC/ST classes. Even nursing profession is looked down upon by the high- class society since it involves more personal contact and service of a special nature. When we go deep into it, anything that involves manual labour is considered mean and those of intellectual nature is considered supreme. Thus job in a factory, which involves production also carries a kind of stigma. In Kerala society, many withdraw from the labour

force, only because of this reason. High salary or wage to such jobs will improve the situation. The score is 83, with 10 first ranks, 13 second ranks and 27 third ranks.

6.12.12. Special facilities to be provided for women act as a hindrance

Factories Act, Maturity Benefit Act, etc. confer upon women certain special privileges. Employers are not interested to provide those facilities. A lot of indirect costs are involved like building a crèche and rest house, giving maternity leave, costs involved in recruiting temporary staff, exemption from night shifts, safety measures that prevent women from dangerous machines, chemicals, etc. All these elements act as a deterrent to women's appointment. Employers find it more economical not to appoint them, rather than appointing and providing all these facilities.

But there is an emerging trend, due to the labour problems in Kerala. Some employers employ more women, since they won't create much problem, will work hard, demand less, etc., As mentioned earlier steps should be taken to see that 50% women are employed in every organisation, to every post. This factor has got a score of 68 with 5 first ranks, 15 second ranks and 23 third ranks.

Conclusion

All the problems listed above hinder the full growth and utilisation of the potentials of young educated women. Since it is very clear from the analysis in this chapter that employment is an important source of empowering women, it is necessary that these hindrances be removed for the benefit of women and the society. The following chapter presents the conclusions derived from the study and the recommendations to improve the present situation of women.

CONCLUSION, FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Rosa K.D. “Empowerment of women through employment ” Thesis.
Department of Commerce and Management Studies , University of Calicut,
2004

Chapter VII

Conclusion, Findings and Recommendations

CHAPTER VII

CONCLUSION, FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1. Introduction

Empowerment of women is felt to be an urgent need of the hour all over the world, irrespective of nationality, caste, religion or creed. Though it is the immediate need of half the population of the world, its positive effects will fall upon the whole mankind. The deprivation of women all over the world is amply recognised by the development agencies all over the world, including the United Nations. To quote from the U.N. Report, 1980, “women constitute half the world’s population, perform nearly two-thirds of the work hours, receive one-tenth of the world’s income and own less than one-hundredth percentage of the world’s property”.

Women constitute half the population of the world. Almost half the population in India and more than half the population in Kerala are women. The Kerala Model Development has achieved high figures of development indicators, at par with the developed countries of the world. The status of women in the state as indicated by high GDI and GEM, high literacy and health figures, has received world wide acclamation. But, one variable in which it lags behind is the labour force participation of women, though it has led to a great degree of social development.

Low industrialization and high unemployment have led to migration of manpower to other states and countries, especially to the gulf countries. Kerala economy is highly dependent on earnings of NRIs. As a result, the per capita income of Kerala has grown above the national average recently. The

consumption pattern and life style of people have also changed. The labour unrest and excessive trade union activities had always been a deterrent in the industrial development of the state and consequently in providing employment to its educated men and women..

7.2. Summary

This study is an attempt to measure the empowerment achieved by women through employment and it is presented in seven chapters. In the first chapter, an attempt is made to survey the available literature on employment and empowerment, along with the objectives and scope of the study. The second chapter deals with the status of women in Kerala and India. The high development indicators of Kerala women in the case of literacy, education, demographic and health factors are overviewed. It also points towards the deterioration in power that occurred to women in certain sectors of Kerala as a result of the shift in property inheritance from the daughter to son as a result of the legal amendments to abolish matriliney and the joint family system. The lack of empowerment in the case of certain groups of women such as fisher women, dalit, tribal and muslim women and women in certain undeveloped pockets of the state is specially mentioned.

Chapter 3 deals with the employment of women in different sectors in the country and the state. It looks deep into the causes of consistent decline in the employment of women in Kerala. It highlights the acute problem of unemployment faced by the educated women in the state as reflected by the number of work seekers registered in the employment exchanges in the state, which is 57% of the total. It also sheds light on the employment prospects of women in the emerging sectors of Information Technology, Communication, Tourism etc., High percentage of women in general education and low percentage in professional education is an unbalanced situation since there will be overcrowding of women in certain service sectors.

Chapter 4 deals with the topic of empowerment in detail. Various arenas of empowerment such as the economic, social, legal and political empowerment are explained, highlighting the importance of economic empowerment. Different levels of empowerment such as the personal, organisational, household and societal are studied in detail. Empowerment is seen as a process of transformation from a state of powerlessness to powerfulness. The various measures of empowerment formulated by different authors and NGOs are studied and numerous indicators of empowerment are identified.

The analysis of primary data is done in Chapter 5 and 6. The distribution of sample is dealt in chapter 5. The sample consists of 630 women employees, 210 each from the Northern, Southern and Central Kerala. Samples of 30 each are drawn from seven common categories in the organized sector such as school and college teachers, Bank and Government employees, Nurses and Factory workers and also from self employed business women. The sample was analysed on the basis of age, experience, education, religion, marital status, income, savings, expenses, possession of household equipments etc.,

More than one-third of women in the sample were above 15 years of experience in the field of their employment and belonged to the age group of 36 to 45. More than 81% of them are married and half of them got married at the age range of 21-25. This is in conformity with the census findings, where average age of marriage of Kerala women is 22.5. Women from the three major religions – Hindu, Christian and Muslim are included in the sample, but the lowest representation is that of Muslim.

The disintegration of joint families and the establishment of nuclear family is clearly reflected in the case of employed women, with 67% of them living in nuclear families. Kerala is the state with maximum nuclearisation in the country. It is a revealing feature that a majority of women from the rural areas of Kerala have got employed. One-third of the sample women live in their husband's house, as is customary in India. At the same time, 31% of them live at the place of their employment. More than half of the women have their husbands employed in the same district of their employment, and only 9% are migrants. That means, out of the employed women, only 9% are wives of migrated men. This may be one of the many reasons for low work participation of women in Kerala.

62% of the employed women have no servant at home. This means majority of employed women are bear the double burden. While 22% get no help in household work, 51% revealed that they get help from husbands. Thus it is seen that half of the husbands of employed women are co-operative enough in sharing housework, breaking the tradition.

About two-third of women earn above Rs.5000 per month. But the remaining 38% include factory workers and self employed women earning as low as Rs.500 per month. College teachers and Bank Employees are earning the maximum salary. More than half of the women spend an amount ranging from Rs. 2,500 to 10,000 per month. A major part of women's salary is used for the schooling of children and for meeting household expenses. One-third of women are able to save only below Rs. 1,500. That includes those who save as low as Rs.100 per month. Many of the workers and the self employed end up in taking loans even for subsistence, due to low income.

Regarding the freedom to spend the self earned salary, one third of women responded that they enjoy full freedom to spend the whole of their salary. But 12% had no freedom to spend anything at all from their salary.

This shows servitude in spite of employment for them. While more than half of the women had Bank accounts in their personal names, one-fourth had no account at all. About half of the women had no liability. Amount of borrowings is seen to be higher in the case of high income groups like Bank and Government employees. This is for the purchase of assets like land, house, car etc., 85% of women borrow from Banks, Co-operatives and L.I.C. which shows their awareness of the institutional sources of finance and access to them instead of approaching money lenders.

Possession of household equipments is an indicator of the welfare of women. 14% of women possesses all the equipments mentioned in the questionnaire ranging from mixy to computer and car. At the other extreme, 10% of women including workers and nurses have none of these items.

Journey to work place is a common problem faced by majority of the employed women. But, here it is seen that the problem is tackled by 81% of them by settling within 10 k.m. of their work place. Some of them travel in their own vehicles, either on two wheelers or cars. It is a good sign that 26% of women possess a driving license. For others, journey is a difficult problem. This is more difficult for nurses who have to travel beyond 25 kilo metres. Self employed women are the most privileged in this regard, since they have their place of work either at their own residence or in a nearby place. Two third of women do not consider the journey strenuous..

About 80% of women had the feeling that employment had a positive effect on their lives. But others feel that it has affected their talents negatively. This negative effects are further analysed through statements under the head – ‘Factors affecting employment of women.’ Regarding the negative effects of employment, majority are of the opinion that they find it difficult to get time for home management and that they don’t get any time for recreation and socialization.

Among the factors adversely affecting employment, the problem of caring for small children was greatly pronounced. The second problem was the difficulty in getting job in commensuration with qualification. It is very common to see Post graduates and B.Ed. degree holders, working as clerks or typists in banks and private firms. Frequent transfers which disrupt the family life and unwillingness of husbands and in-laws to send women to work, are also problems faced by many. There are many engineers, doctors and M.B.A.s who end up in home management.

In chapter 6, Empowerment elements are analysed separately, at the work place, within the person, in the family and society with the help of the Likert scale and the Satisfaction Index for each element was computed. An index above 33.33 is considered to be favourable. Regarding empowerment at work place, within the person and the family, all the elements and sub-elements are having either moderately or highly favourable indices, except in the case of one sub-element-chances of promotion. It seems that the door to advancement and progress is generally shut before women in almost all fields of employment. This is a severe problem which should be dealt with in detail.

Involvement in society is another area where women lag behind. Double burden of employed women prevents them from taking an active role in society. Literally they have to rush from their work place to assume the role of the housewife. Rarely do they enter the social or political field. Majority of them have limited their involvement to mere membership in the particular trade union related to employment and that too since it is unavoidable.

7.3. Major Findings:

1. Women are empowered at work place through their teamwork, leadership, communication and performance.

Empowerment at work place was analysed through four major sub-elements namely, teamwork, communication, leadership and performance. All the sub-elements under each of these elements gave moderately or highly favourable indices. None of them had a less than favourable index. This shows that the women in the sample are empowered at work place through their teamwork, leadership, communication and performance.

2. Employment leads to empowerment within the person.

The next step was to see whether this empowerment at work place leads to empowerment within the personality of the employed women. This was measured through another set of four elements namely self-confidence, creativity, employer-employee relationship and job satisfaction. All elements and sub-elements except one gave either moderately or highly favourable indices. The sub-element-‘existence of chances of promotion’ alone gave a less than favourable index. So it can be concluded that employment leads to empowerment within the person.

3. Employment leads to empowerment in the family.

The next crucial question was whether they are able to carry this empowerment to their families. This was measured with the help of eight sub-elements. All the elements gave either moderately or highly favourable indices. This is a very important revelation since it shows that employment helps them to participate greatly in the decision making areas of the family. Employment has helped them to define and exercise new power relations.

Hence, it is proved beyond doubt that employment leads to empowerment in Family.

4. Employed women generally keep themselves away from social organizations and associations, because of the double burden.

Most of the sub-elements used to measure 'empowerment in society' gave less than favourable indices, showing that employment does not lead to empowerment in society. When a parallel study is made along with the level of involvement in organizations, a clearer picture of the situation was obtained. The problem is not lack of empowerment in society, but lack of involvement. Burdened by the double role and time constraint, employed women keep themselves away from social organizations and associations. But they occupy a place of respect in the society, according to the nature of their employment.

5. Empowerment through employment was calculated as a simple average figure of the indices obtained for all the four levels of empowerment under study, namely empowerment at work place, empowerment within the person, empowerment within the family and empowerment in the society. The average figure of index obtained was 52 which is in the moderately favourable range. Hence, it can be concluded that employment leads to empowerment of women.

On the basis of the above findings, the hypotheses set for the study have been tested and the results were as follows.

1. The first sub-hypothesis that 'Employment of women leads to empowerment at work place is accepted.
2. The second sub-hypothesis that 'Employment of women leads to empowerment within the person' is accepted.

3. The third sub-hypothesis that 'Employment of women leads to empowerment in the family' is accepted.
4. The fourth sub-hypothesis that 'Employment of women leads to empowerment in the society' is partially rejected.
5. The main hypothesis that 'Empowerment of women is possible through employment' is accepted.

7.4. Other findings of the study

1. Of the seven categories of employed women, self employed business women have the highest empowerment indices.
2. Among the seven categories of employed women, workers in the unorganized sector and nurses in the private hospitals and teachers in the unaided schools are found to be paid the lowest salary.
3. Women in the coir co-operatives are getting an income below subsistence.
4. In factories women are mostly employed in the lowest category and in the least paid jobs.
5. All the supervisors, officers and managers in most of the organisations are mostly men.
6. Since promotions are tied with transfer to distant places, women are discouraged even from trying to secure promotions, since it may disrupt family life.
7. Empowerment is not related to income alone, since low empowerment figures are shown by bank employees with high income while high empowerment is seen in the case of self employed women with far lower income.

8. Women are seen to be generally more qualified than what is required for their post.
9. Majority of wives of migrated men do not participate in the labour market. This may be one of the reasons for low female work participation in Kerala, where there is high rate of migration.
10. Majority of women spend whole of their salary for routine household expenditure. This means that their salary is not converted into an asset.
11. For workers in Government factory and in the organised sector, there is good salary and non monetary benefits. On the other hand, women in small private factories and co-operatives and a good number of self-employed women have very low income and other facilities.
12. The analysis shows that women in all fields of employment exhibit an excellent performance.
13. Women workers seem to be more satisfied when they are included in the shift system (6a.m. to 2p.m., 2 p.m. to 10 p.m. etc.) than working from 9 a.m. to 5 p.m.
14. Child-care is the most important problem faced by employed women. The presence of young children in the family hinder women from being employed.
15. Finding a job commensurating with qualification is the second biggest problem faced by women in Kerala. Most of the women who are graduates or post graduates prefer to have white collar jobs in the organised sector, which is very scarce. So they keep away from the labour market.

16. Among the negative effects of employment the most pronounced are lack of leisure and recreation and lack of time for home management.
17. Existence of chances for promotion is an element with one of the lowest scores. This shows that the so called 'glass ceiling' really exists in organizations, preventing the advancement of women to higher posts.
18. Empowerment in society has got the lowest score. Women are not courageous or confident enough either to go outside alone within the state, or to a police station or to participate in a political or social activity. The mobility of women is restricted within Kerala to a great extent, even to employed women.

7.5. Recommendations

The following recommendations are made for achieving the empowerment of women, in the light of this study and analysis.

1. The study shows that women in Kerala are highly educated and equally capable as men, to hold responsible jobs. Every organization should set apart 50% of its employment, at all levels, to women.
2. An employment policy must be formulated to correct the imbalance in employment by offering further employments to women candidates.
2. Steps should be taken to stop the exploitation of women in the unorganized sector and reasonable remuneration and fair deal must be made available to them.
3. Self employment of women in business field should be promoted by more loans, training and incentives since it is proved to be highly empowering.

4. Along with prohibition of dowry, steps should be taken to ensure equal share of property for women.
5. There should be some agency to provide guidance to the women groups running business under DWCRA, Kudumbasree etc., Lack of experience and guidance lead to the failure of business units.
7. Since the problem of marketing is affecting self employed women to a great extent, show-rooms and sales-corners should be opened in every market area by government agencies to sell their products.
8. Steps should be taken for the immediate enactment of law for reservation of seats in the parliament and legislative assemblies, to correct the imbalance in the political representation of women.
9. Professional education of women must be encouraged to facilitate their employment and to correct the imbalance in this area.
10. Educated youth in the southern states can be formed into a voluntary group to educate the children in the northern states on a stipent basis. Thus two problems namely the unemployment and illiteracy can be solved at one stroke.
11. Proper punishment should be given to crimes against women and non-enforcement of laws protecting women must be taken note of. This is because fear of atrocities discourage employment of women in those sectors which need service at odd hours.
12. Since there is only a meagre presence of Kerala women in the professional field, incentives should be given to promote the professional education of women.

13. Falling sex ratio of 0-6 years should be given serious consideration. The tendency should be curbed by punishment, conscientisation as well as by providing free education and other facilities for girl children.
14. Since there is under-utilisation of funds earmarked for women development, NGOs must be entrusted with implementation of women development schemes.
15. Women's commission should be given more judicial powers, so that it can be of some help to the suffering women.
16. Short stay homes should be established in every district with counselling facilities so that women with family problems can be prevented from committing suicide. In the context of increasing number of suicides and atrocities against women, this is an urgent need. They should also be provided with some gainful activity.
17. Women should be initiated into trades like carpentry, masonry, electrician training etc., so that they can move from the unskilled to the skilled category in the construction industry.
18. All discriminatory practices against women in provision of employment must be curbed by implementation of appropriate laws.
19. Child labour should be strictly prohibited. This will have the double effect of promoting education of children as well as providing more employment for women.
20. Education of children in the school going age must be made compulsory in all states. This also must be implemented on a reward and punishment basis. This is very important in the case of girls in the states where literacy rate is below 50 per cent.

21. The underprivileged sections of women in the SC/ST, fisher women, coastal and muslim women and women in the plantations must be special target groups of development projects.
22. The double burden of women prevent them from participating in social or political activities. Hence facilities should be provided to reduce their burden through child care facilities, facilities for leisure, recreation and good health.
23. The idea of women empowerment should be taught through curriculum and other classes so that the vision of the future generation may be one of gender equality and they may be psychologically empowered.

7.6. Areas of Future Research

1. Empowerment can be studied separately for rural and urban employed women.
2. The study of empowerment of women employed in the unorganized sector can be administered.
3. There is scope for a comparative study of empowerment between the employed and unemployed women.
4. The progression in the process of empowerment at various points of time can be measured.
5. A study of empowerment can be made in relation to variables other than employment.
6. Since the self employed women are seen to have the highest degree of empowerment, an in-depth study to identify the factors resulting in the comparatively higher empowerment can be made.

7.7. Conclusion

This work is a unique attempt to measure the degree of empowerment achieved by employed women in various dimensions as personal, organizational, familial and societal. It is proved beyond doubt that employment is an important element leading to the empowerment of women. In a situation of continuously declining female work participation and high female literacy and education in Kerala, steps should be taken to increase the employability and employment of women since employment leads to the empowerment of women. Taking into consideration the unique status occupied by women in Kerala, the State should have a separate policy of empowerment for women to remove the barriers to empowerment and to promote the factors that facilitate empowerment.

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Appendix

QUESTIONNAIRE

EMPOWERMENT OF WOMEN THROUGH EMPLOYMENT PART-I

1. Name of the woman Employee (optional) :
2. Name of the organisation or institution
with locality :
3. Designation :
4. Nature of employment
1) ☐ permanent 2) ☐ temporary 3) ☐ seasonal 4) ☐ regular 5) ☐ self employed
5. Experience in the present post
1) ☐ 1-3 yrs 2) ☐ 3-5 yrs 3) ☐ 5-10 yrs 4) ☐ 10-15 yrs 5) ☐ above 15 yrs
6. Educational qualification
1) ☐ S.S.L.C 2) ☐ P.D.C. 3) ☐ Graduate 4) ☐ Post Graduate 5) ☐ Any other (specify)
7. Religion
1) ☐ Christian 2) ☐ Hindu 3) ☐ Muslim 4) ☐ Any other
8. Age
1) ☐ Below 25 2) ☐ 26-35 3) ☐ 36-45 4) ☐ 46-55 5) ☐ Above 55
9. Marital status:
1) ☐ Unmarried 2) ☐ Married 3) ☐ Widowed 4) ☐ Divorced
10. If married, age of marriage
1) ☐ Below 20 2) ☐ 21-25 3) ☐ 26-30 4) ☐ 31-35 5) ☐ Above 35
11. Were you employed before marriage?
1) ☐ Yes 2) ☐ No.
12. If unmarried, whether intends to continue in job after marriage:
1) ☐ yes 2) ☐ No. 3) ☐ Not applicable
14. If newly married, whether intends to continue in the job after child birth:
1) ☐ Yes 2) ☐ No. 3) ☐ Not applicable
15. Nature of family
1) ☐ joint 2) ☐ Nuclear 3) ☐ Single
16. Your original residence (name the village/municipality, Dist. and state.)
1) Panchayath / Municipality / Corporation..... 2) Dist.....
17. Your present Residence :
1) ☐ Husband's house 2) ☐ Your original house 3) ☐ At place of employment of Husband
4) ☐ At your place of employment 5) ☐ In between 6) ☐ Any other
18. Reasons for moving to the present residence
1) ☐ Employment, 2) ☐ Education, 3) ☐ Family moved 4) ☐ Marriage,
5) ☐ Any other (specify)
19. Place of employment of Husband
1) ☐ within the District 2) ☐ within the state 3) ☐ outside the state 4) ☐ outside India
20. Have you got a servant at home?
1) ☐ No servant 2) ☐ weekly service 3) ☐ casual 4) ☐ Part time 5) ☐ Full time
21. Is it due to your employment that his/her service is sought?
1) ☐ Yes 2) ☐ No 3) ☐ Not Applicable.
22. Give us the following information about your family members:

Member	Sex (M/F)	Age	Education	Relationship	Occupation	Monthly Earning
1						
2						
3						
4						
5						
6						

23. Your monthly earnings in Rs.
 1) ☐ Below 2,500 2) ☐ 2,501- 5,000 3) ☐ 5,001- 10,000 4) ☐ 10,001- 20,000 5) ☐ Above 20,000
24. Average monthly expenses in Rs.
 1) ☐ Below 1,500 2) ☐ 1,501- 2,500 3) ☐ 2,501- 5,000 4) ☐ 5,001 - 10,000 5) ☐ Above 10,000
25. Average savings per month in Rs.
 1) ☐ Below 1,500 2) ☐ 1,501- 2,500 3) ☐ 2,501- 5,000 4) ☐ 5,001 - 10,000 5) ☐ Above 10,000
26. What is the share of your salary that you are free to spend as you wish?
 1) ☐ Nil 2) ☐ Less than 25% 3) ☐ 25-50% 4) ☐ 50-75 % 5) ☐ 100%
27. The nature of Bank A/C you possess
 1) ☐ No A/C 2) ☐ A/C in your personal name 3) ☐ Joint A/C 4) ☐ Any other (specify)
28. Amount of savings in your personal account
 1) ☐ Below 25,000 2) ☐ 25,001 - 50,000 3) ☐ 50,001 - 1,00,000 4) ☐ 1,00,001 - 2,00,000
 5) ☐ Above 2,00,000
29. Value of assets in your personal name (Land, house, shares etc.)
 1) ☐ Below 50,000 2) ☐ 50,001-1,00,000 3) ☐ 1,00,001-2,50,000 4) ☐ 2,50,001 - 5,00,000
 5) ☐ Above 5,00,000
30. Possession of household equipments:
 1) ☐ Mixy, Grinder 2) ☐ Telephone, T.V 3) ☐ Fridge, Washing Machine
 4) ☐ car 5) ☐ computer, internet 6) ☐ Any other
31. (a) Is your family income sufficient to meet family expenses? : ☐ Yes ☐ No
 (b) Do you have any financial liability? ☐ Yes ☐ No
 (c) If yes, to whom?: ☐ Money Lender ☐ Friends ☐ Relatives
 ☐ Co-operative societies ☐ Banks ☐ Any other(specify)
 (d) Amount: Rs. 1) ☐ Below 50,000 2) ☐ 50,001-1,00,000 3) ☐ 1,00,001-2,50,000
 4) ☐ 2,50,001 - 5,00,000 5) ☐ Above 5,00,000
 (e) Period of Loan: 1) ☐ Below 1 Year 2) ☐ 1-5 yrs. 3) ☐ 6-10 yrs. 4) ☐ Above 10 yrs.
32. Help from other members in the family in the household work:
☐ Husband ☐ Children ☐ Others ☐ No help
33. Nature of help obtained
☐ Child care ☐ Cooking ☐ Others
34. Who looks after (or looked after) the children during working hours?
☐ Creche ☐ Grand parents ☐ Husband ☐ Servant ☐ Not applicable
35. Distance from office and residence
 1) ☐ less than 1 k.m. 2) ☐ 1-5 k.m 3) ☐ 5-10 k.m. 4) ☐ 10- 25 k.m. 5) ☐ above 25 k.m.
36. Mode of transportation
 1) ☐ walking 1) ☐ Bus 3) ☐ Arranged vehicle 4) ☐ Two-wheeler 5) ☐ car
37. Do you possess a driving Licence ? 1) ☐ No Licence 2) ☐ Two-wheeler 3) ☐ Light Motor Vehicle
38. Journey to office gives me physical as well as mental strain : ☐ Yes ☐ No.
39. Food Habit
☐ Bring from home ☐ Canteen ☐ No Lunch
40. How often do you go to restaurants?
 1) ☐ daily 2) ☐ weekly 3) ☐ occasionally 4) ☐ Never.
41. Time devoted by you for the following activities on a working day in Hrs. or Mts. (Total 24 hours)

1) cooking, cleaning etc.	
2) child care	
3) relaxation and recreation	
4) To go to work place	
5) Number of Hours of work	
6) Sleeping hours	
7) any other(specify)	
Total	24 hours

JOB HISTORY

42. Please give the following information of previous job if any:

Occupation	Regular/ Seasonal	Duration of work	Average monthly earning	Reason for changing the job	Age of joining at each job

SKILLS AND TALENTS

- a) Talents: i) ☐ Music ii) ☐ Drawing iii) ☐ Painting
iv) ☐ Literary work v) ☐ cooking vi) ☐ Dancing
- b) Hobby: i) ☐ Reading ii) ☐ Watching T.V. iii) ☐ Playing habits
iv) ☐ Sleeping
- c) How employment has affected your talents and hobbies?
1) ☐ Positively 2) ☐ Negatively

IF SELF EMPLOYED

- a) Which goods or services are manufactured/ sold?
- b) The sources of raw material
1) ☐ within the state 2) ☐ Outside the state 3) ☐ Outside India
- c) The extent of market
1) ☐ Within the district 2) ☐ Within the state 3) ☐ Outside the state 4) ☐ Outside India
- d) Source of credit
1) ☐ Banks 2) ☐ Financial Institutions 3) ☐ Co-operatives 4) ☐ Friends and Relatives
- e) Annual Production
1) ☐ Below 2000 units 2) ☐ 2001 - 5000 3) ☐ 5001 - 10,000 4) ☐ 10,000 - 20,000 5) ☐ Above 20,000
- f) Annual Profit
1) ☐ Below 25,000 2) ☐ 25,001-50,000 3) ☐ 50,001 - 1,00,000 4) ☐ 1,00,001 - 5,00,000 5) ☐ Above 5,00,000.
- g) Help from family members: Husband ☐
Children ☐
Others ☐
- h) Nature of help: Financial ☐
Household Work ☐
Participation in business ☐
- i) Reason for starting the business
1) ☐ Own motivation 2) ☐ Encouragement from Husband 3) ☐ Encouragement from original family members 4) ☐ Financial Incentives 5) ☐ Any other (specify)

PART-II

(Please tick mark your choice, from the alternatives attached to the following statements as 'S A' if you Strongly Agree, 'A' if you Agree, 'U' if you are Undecided, 'D' if you Disagree and 'S D' if you Strongly Disagree)

EMPLOYER- EMPLOYEE RELATIONSHIP

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. Attitude of male superiors is favourable.	1) ☐	2) ☐	3) ☐	4) ☐	5) ☐
2. Attitude of female superiors is favourable.	1) ☐	2) ☐	3) ☐	4) ☐	5) ☐
3. Attitude of male subordinates is favourable	1) ☐	2) ☐	3) ☐	4) ☐	5) ☐
4. Attitude of female subordinates is favourable	1) ☐	2) ☐	3) ☐	4) ☐	5) ☐
5. Attitude of male co-workers is favourable	1) ☐	2) ☐	3) ☐	4) ☐	5) ☐

6. Attitude of female co-workers is favourable 1) ☐ 2) ☐ 3) ☐ 4) ☐ 5) ☐
7. I am happy with the number of holidays enjoyed. 1) ☐ 2) ☐ 3) ☐ 4) ☐ 5) ☐
8. I am comfortable at the workplace 1) ☐ 2) ☐ 3) ☐ 4) ☐ 5) ☐

JOB SATISFACTION

- | | Strongly
Agree | Agree | Undecided | Disagree | Strongly
Disagree |
|---|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 9. My job is related to my qualification. | 1) ☐ | 2) ☐ | 3) ☐ | 4) ☐ | 5) ☐ |
| 10. I am proud of my present job. | 1) ☐ | 2) ☐ | 3) ☐ | 4) ☐ | 5) ☐ |
| 11. I don't want to change my job. | 1) ☐ | 2) ☐ | 3) ☐ | 4) ☐ | 5) ☐ |
| 12. Office environment is satisfactory. | 1) ☐ | 2) ☐ | 3) ☐ | 4) ☐ | 5) ☐ |
| 13. Non-monetary benefits are satisfactory. | 1) ☐ | 2) ☐ | 3) ☐ | 4) ☐ | 5) ☐ |
| 14. There is job security. | 1) ☐ | 2) ☐ | 3) ☐ | 4) ☐ | 5) ☐ |
| 15. There are enough chances of promotion. | 1) ☐ | 2) ☐ | 3) ☐ | 4) ☐ | 5) ☐ |
| 16. Remuneration is satisfactory. | 1) ☐ | 2) ☐ | 3) ☐ | 4) ☐ | 5) ☐ |
| 17. Home and work place are close by. | 1) ☐ | 2) ☐ | 3) ☐ | 4) ☐ | 5) ☐ |
| 18. Hours of work are convenient. | 1) ☐ | 2) ☐ | 3) ☐ | 4) ☐ | 5) ☐ |

EMPOWERMENT IN FAMILY

- | | SA | A | U | D | SD |
|--|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 19. I believe that my employment has a role in fixing my marriage. | 1) ☐ | 2) ☐ | 3) ☐ | 4) ☐ | 5) ☐ |
| 20. Job has increased my self-esteem. | 1) ☐ | 2) ☐ | 3) ☐ | 4) ☐ | 5) ☐ |
| 21. I believe that my job contributes to my importance in the family | 1) ☐ | 2) ☐ | 3) ☐ | 4) ☐ | 5) ☐ |
| 22. Employment is a cause for limiting the number of children. | 1) ☐ | 2) ☐ | 3) ☐ | 4) ☐ | 5) ☐ |
| 23. I have full freedom to decide the number of children. | 1) ☐ | 2) ☐ | 3) ☐ | 4) ☐ | 5) ☐ |
| 24. I have an important role in all the decisions taken in the family. | 1) ☐ | 2) ☐ | 3) ☐ | 4) ☐ | 5) ☐ |
| 25. Employment helps me to keep up my individuality. | 1) ☐ | 2) ☐ | 3) ☐ | 4) ☐ | 5) ☐ |
| 26. The present job has increased my self-dependence. | 1) ☐ | 2) ☐ | 3) ☐ | 4) ☐ | 5) ☐ |
| 27. The job has greatly increased my family income. | 1) ☐ | 2) ☐ | 3) ☐ | 4) ☐ | 5) ☐ |
| 28. Employment has secured me the respect of my husband's family | 1) ☐ | 2) ☐ | 3) ☐ | 4) ☐ | 5) ☐ |

EMPOWERMENT IN SOCIETY

- | | SA | A | U | D | SD |
|---|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 29. I can travel alone anywhere within the state without any fear. | 1) ☐ | 2) ☐ | 3) ☐ | 4) ☐ | 5) ☐ |
| 30. I am confident to file a petition. | 1) ☐ | 2) ☐ | 3) ☐ | 4) ☐ | 5) ☐ |
| 31. I am confident to go to a police station and file a petition in case of need. | 1) ☐ | 2) ☐ | 3) ☐ | 4) ☐ | 5) ☐ |
| 32. I am confident to meet a Govt. official and discuss an issue. | 1) ☐ | 2) ☐ | 3) ☐ | 4) ☐ | 5) ☐ |
| 33. I am confident to talk before an audience. | 1) ☐ | 2) ☐ | 3) ☐ | 4) ☐ | 5) ☐ |
| 34. I have got the freedom to spend money by myself. | 1) ☐ | 2) ☐ | 3) ☐ | 4) ☐ | 5) ☐ |
| 35. I have got the freedom to decide my own future. | 1) ☐ | 2) ☐ | 3) ☐ | 4) ☐ | 5) ☐ |

EMPOWERMENT IN ORGANISATION

TEAM WORK

- | | SA | A | U | D | SD |
|--|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1. Usually I get involved in team work | 1) ☐ | 2) ☐ | 3) ☐ | 4) ☐ | 5) ☐ |
| 2. I express my ideas, opinions and feelings in the team | 1) ☐ | 2) ☐ | 3) ☐ | 4) ☐ | 5) ☐ |
| 3. Team work has increased my effectiveness | 1) ☐ | 2) ☐ | 3) ☐ | 4) ☐ | 5) ☐ |
| 4. There is mutual trust and respect among the team members | 1) ☐ | 2) ☐ | 3) ☐ | 4) ☐ | 5) ☐ |
| 5. The members work with harmony and enthusiasm. | 1) ☐ | 2) ☐ | 3) ☐ | 4) ☐ | 5) ☐ |
| 6. There is care, concern and helping attitude among the members | 1) ☐ | 2) ☐ | 3) ☐ | 4) ☐ | 5) ☐ |
| 7. Team work increases my creativity. | 1) ☐ | 2) ☐ | 3) ☐ | 4) ☐ | 5) ☐ |
| 8. My opinion is seriously taken by the team members. | 1) ☐ | 2) ☐ | 3) ☐ | 4) ☐ | 5) ☐ |

LEADERSHIP

SA A U D SD

- 9 The opportunities for leadership has made me a powerful person. 1) ☐ 2) ☐ 3) ☐ 4) ☐ 5) ☐
- 10 I listen patiently to different opinions. 1) ☐ 2) ☐ 3) ☐ 4) ☐ 5) ☐
- 11 I encourage the team members. 1) ☐ 2) ☐ 3) ☐ 4) ☐ 5) ☐
- 12 Contributions of group members have helped me to achieve my goal. 1) ☐ 2) ☐ 3) ☐ 4) ☐ 5) ☐
- 13 I believe that I can accomplish the impossible, with the help of my team. 1) ☐ 2) ☐ 3) ☐ 4) ☐ 5) ☐
- 14 The work has increased my potential for growth and development. 1) ☐ 2) ☐ 3) ☐ 4) ☐ 5) ☐
- 15 I take the time to understand the problems before responding to them. 1) ☐ 2) ☐ 3) ☐ 4) ☐ 5) ☐
- 16 I give directions to the subordinates to get the work done, instead of doing it by myself. 1) ☐ 2) ☐ 3) ☐ 4) ☐ 5) ☐

COMMUNICATION

SA A U D SD

17. I am well informed of the goal of the team. 1) ☐ 2) ☐ 3) ☐ 4) ☐ 5) ☐
18. I have communicated the goal to the other members of the team. 1) ☐ 2) ☐ 3) ☐ 4) ☐ 5) ☐
19. "Knowledge is power." This is true of me. 1) ☐ 2) ☐ 3) ☐ 4) ☐ 5) ☐
20. There is an effective communication channel in the organisation. 1) ☐ 2) ☐ 3) ☐ 4) ☐ 5) ☐
21. Communication brings more co-operation. 1) ☐ 2) ☐ 3) ☐ 4) ☐ 5) ☐
22. Communication mechanisms help to solve problems. 1) ☐ 2) ☐ 3) ☐ 4) ☐ 5) ☐
23. I try to get feedback from others. 1) ☐ 2) ☐ 3) ☐ 4) ☐ 5) ☐
24. I get involved in discussions before taking important decisions. 1) ☐ 2) ☐ 3) ☐ 4) ☐ 5) ☐

PERFORMANCE

SA A U D SD

- 25 I have a sense of belongingness to the institution. 1) ☐ 2) ☐ 3) ☐ 4) ☐ 5) ☐
- 26 I have a liking towards the work. 1) ☐ 2) ☐ 3) ☐ 4) ☐ 5) ☐
- 27 I prefer to stick on to the work. 1) ☐ 2) ☐ 3) ☐ 4) ☐ 5) ☐
- 28 I always see that I accomplish the task entrusted to me. 1) ☐ 2) ☐ 3) ☐ 4) ☐ 5) ☐
- 29 I make use of my skill and experience at work place. 1) ☐ 2) ☐ 3) ☐ 4) ☐ 5) ☐
- 30 I have received recognition for my work. 1) ☐ 2) ☐ 3) ☐ 4) ☐ 5) ☐
- 31 I am capable of maintaining perseverance in times of difficulty. 1) ☐ 2) ☐ 3) ☐ 4) ☐ 5) ☐

SELF CONFIDENCE

SA A U D SD

32. While trying something difficult or challenging, I feel confident that I will succeed. 1) ☐ 2) ☐ 3) ☐ 4) ☐ 5) ☐
33. I stick to my decisions, even if others disagree strongly with me. 1) ☐ 2) ☐ 3) ☐ 4) ☐ 5) ☐
34. I do things that are risky. 1) ☐ 2) ☐ 3) ☐ 4) ☐ 5) ☐
35. I am moving in the way of becoming the person I want to be. 1) ☐ 2) ☐ 3) ☐ 4) ☐ 5) ☐
36. I seek increased responsibility and accept it with happiness. 1) ☐ 2) ☐ 3) ☐ 4) ☐ 5) ☐
37. I feel quite safe in the organisation. 1) ☐ 2) ☐ 3) ☐ 4) ☐ 5) ☐
38. I am proud of what I am. 1) ☐ 2) ☐ 3) ☐ 4) ☐ 5) ☐
39. I always accept novel ideas from others. 1) ☐ 2) ☐ 3) ☐ 4) ☐ 5) ☐

CREATIVITY

40. I always accept novel ideas from others. 1) ☐ 2) ☐ 3) ☐ 4) ☐ 5) ☐
41. I have no hesitation to seek alternative solutions for a problem. 1) ☐ 2) ☐ 3) ☐ 4) ☐ 5) ☐
42. I do not give up doing things though they seem difficult. 1) ☐ 2) ☐ 3) ☐ 4) ☐ 5) ☐
43. It gives me a lot of satisfaction when I succeed in my attempts. 1) ☐ 2) ☐ 3) ☐ 4) ☐ 5) ☐
44. I accept the mistakes of self and others and try to correct them. 1) ☐ 2) ☐ 3) ☐ 4) ☐ 5) ☐
45. I am willing to risk new behaviours. 1) ☐ 2) ☐ 3) ☐ 4) ☐ 5) ☐
46. I favour job enrichment experiments. 1) ☐ 2) ☐ 3) ☐ 4) ☐ 5) ☐
47. I always value change for growth. 1) ☐ 2) ☐ 3) ☐ 4) ☐ 5) ☐

WEAKNESSES

	SA	A	U	D	SD
48. Employment has led to bad husband-wife relationship.	1) ☐	2) ☐	3) ☐	4) ☐	5) ☐
49. The job has led to lack of communication in the family.	1) ☐	2) ☐	3) ☐	4) ☐	5) ☐
50. The job is a cause for bad relations with family members and relatives.	1) ☐	2) ☐	3) ☐	4) ☐	5) ☐
51. It has led to high family expenditure.	1) ☐	2) ☐	3) ☐	4) ☐	5) ☐
52. There is lack of time for recreation and socialisation.	1) ☐	2) ☐	3) ☐	4) ☐	5) ☐
53. Job has led to abortion, miscarriage etc.,	1) ☐	2) ☐	3) ☐	4) ☐	5) ☐
54. I find it difficult to find time for home management.	1) ☐	2) ☐	3) ☐	4) ☐	5) ☐
55. I have no freedom to spend my salary as I wish	1) ☐	2) ☐	3) ☐	4) ☐	5) ☐
56. The job has badly affected my health.	1) ☐	2) ☐	3) ☐	4) ☐	5) ☐
57. Job gives me a lot of mental stress at work place	1) ☐	2) ☐	3) ☐	4) ☐	5) ☐

FACTORS AFFECTING WOMEN EMPLOYMENT

Given below are certain factors affecting Employment of Women. Which one do you think, is the most important factor ?

Rank them according to their relative importance. For example, if you think item, No. 3 is the most important, give Rank No.1 in the nearby column.

1. Unwillingness of husband and in-laws to send women to work.	☐
2. Family traditions	☐
3. Caring for small children	☐
4. Difficulty in getting job related to qualification.	☐
5. Employer's preference for male employees.	☐
6. Distance to work place and frequent transfers.	☐
7. Lack of rules and regulations enforcing employment of women.	☐
8. Certain jobs not open to women.	☐
9. Special facilities to be provided for women acts as a hindrance.	☐
10. Discrimination and harassment at work place	☐
11. Certain jobs considered below status.	☐
12. Inconvenient working hours.	☐

**PART -III**

(Please answer only the questions relating to the particular organization in which you have membership)

INVOLVEMENT IN SOCIETY

Do you belong to any of the following?			Are you selected to any post?	
a) Religious Organisation	☐ Yes	☐ No.	☐ Yes	☐ No.
b) Mahila sangam	☐ Yes	☐ No.	☐ Yes	☐ No.
c) Political parties	☐ Yes	☐ No.	☐ Yes	☐ No.
d) N.G.Os	☐ Yes	☐ No.	☐ Yes	☐ No.
e) Co-operatives	☐ Yes	☐ No.	☐ Yes	☐ No.
f) Clubs	☐ Yes	☐ No.	☐ Yes	☐ No.
g) Neighbourhoods(Ayalkoottams)	☐ Yes	☐ No.	☐ Yes	☐ No.
h) Gramasabha	☐ Yes	☐ No.	☐ Yes	☐ No.
i) Trade Unions	☐ Yes	☐ No.	☐ Yes	☐ No.