

**WOMEN EMPLOYMENT AND EMPOWERMENT:
A CASE STUDY OF AIZAWL DISTRICT, MIZORAM**

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**WOMEN EMPLOYMENT AND EMPOWERMENT:
A CASE STUDY OF AIZAWL DISTRICT, MIZORAM**

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**Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirement of the Degree of Doctor of
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CERTIFICATE

This is to certify that the thesis entitled “**Women Employment and Empowerment: A Case Study of Aizawl District, Mizoram**” by **Rachel Zote** has been written under my supervision. The thesis is the result of her investigation into the subject. Neither the thesis as a whole nor any part of it was ever submitted to any other University for any research degree.

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Declaration

I, **Rachel Zote**, hereby declare that the subject matter of this thesis is the record of work done by me, that the contents of this thesis did not form basis of the award of any previous degree to me or to the best of my knowledge to anybody else, and that the thesis has not been submitted by me for any research degree in any other University/Institute.

This is being submitted to the Mizoram University for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Economics.

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Date:

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ABBREVIATIONS

ICDS	: Integrated Child Development Services
NSSO	: National Sample Survey Organisation
FWPR	: Female Work Participation Rate
WPR	: Work Participation Rate
FWPR	: Female Work Participation Rate
MWPR	: Male Work Participation Rate
MGNREGA	: Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act
NREGS	: National Rural Employment Guarantee Scheme
PLFS	: Periodic Labour Force Survey
MoSPI	: Ministry of Statistics and Programme Implementation
NMEW	: National Mission for Empowerment of Women
CSO	: Central Statistics Office
ERA	: Empowerment over Resources and Assets
EPDS	: Empowerment in Personal Development and Securities
WEMP	: Women Empowerment
PDA	: Personal Development and Asset ownership[
PHH	: Personal Health and Hygiene
EFW	: Empowerment within the Family
NSDP	: Net State Domestic Product
PMJDY	: Pradhan Mantri Jan Dhan Yojana
YMA	: Young Mizo Association
MUP	: Mizoram Upa Pawl
MHIP	: Mizo Hmeichhe Insuihkhawm Pawl
YC	: Youth Club
NGO	: Non-Government Organisation
IRDP	: Integrated Rural Development Programme
DRDA	: District Rural Development Agency
GO	: Government Organisation
RWECF	: Rural Women Employment Creation Project
CEI	: Cumulative Empowerment Index
SHG	: Self Help Group
ELMPS	: Egypt Labour Market Panel Survey
OBC	: Other Backward Class
IHDS	: Indian Human Development Survey
ESCAP	: Economics and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific
GGS	: Generation and Gender Survey
ps	: Usual Principal Status
Ps+ss	: Usual Status
ss	: Subsidiary Status
CV	: Coefficient of Variance

Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Introduction

Women's economic empowerment is the most important factor that contribute to gender equality between men and women (Tornqvist & Schmitz, 2009). Womens' access to income through gainful employment may be considered the key factor of women's economic empowerment. Employment is empowering as it helps women to develop their identity; and when they become organised they build up courage and confidence to talk to the police, the courts, banks or their husbands as equals (Bhatt, 2018). Sen (1990) advocated that gainful employment opportunities outside the home reduces women's economic dependence on men and increase their bargaining strength, and the extent of bargaining power depends on the nature of work she is employed in. A mere employment of women does not implicate empowerment, it is the quality of employment that matters (Paul, 2009). Researchers are of the opinion that employment is potentially empowering and liberating only if it provides women an opportunity to improve their well-being and enhance their capabilities but if employment is forcefully driven by distress and is low paying, it only increases women's drudgery (Srivastava, 2009). While formal employment has empowering implication for women consistently (Kabeer, 2013), employment in informal sector does not necessarily have positive impact on empowerment. The average women workers earns only about 3/5th of what their counterpart man earns in informal jobs (Pillai, 1995). Even with the trend of increasing women's share in wage employment,

gender gap still persists and the wage gap is more pronounced in manual works (Das, 2006).

The need for empowerment of women arose from centuries of domination and discriminatory treatment given to women by men in the society. Women are the suppressed lot as they are the target of discriminatory practices done by men all over the world (Agarwal et al., 2016). Empowerment of women is felt to be an urgent need of the hour all over the world, irrespective of nationality, culture or religion. Since ages women around the world have made significant contributions to the economy in one form or the other but much of their work remain unrecognised and undervalued, equal treatment has not been accorded to them as men. Most of their economic contributions have not been documented or accounted and their valuable service to family and the society have been taken for granted. Such was the pathetic status of womenfolk in the society.

There are certain prerequisites that need to be incorporated in order to empower women successfully. One of them is that women must participate in the labour market because it has shown that when women earn an income they can gain both financial independence and a greater sense of agency over their lives (Vildoo, 2017). Empowerment and employment are two closely related concepts as employment is found to be a vital determinant in empowering women. According to Rosa (2010) a women when employed undergoes a lot of transformation in her personality. The decision to take up a job itself confers on the women a certain degree of self-confidence and self-worth. With the decision to take up employment she lifts herself out of confinement of the four walls of the kitchen and expose herself to the

wider world and experience a whole new world of change. Employment is found to empower women by providing financial independence, alternative source of social identity and exposure to power structures.

Women historically have never been given the required importance in India because traditions are deep rooted in Indian society where the sociological set up has been a male dominated one. Men are considered to be the primary bread winner of the family and women are considered a weaker sex and always made to depend on menfolk in their family and outside throughout their life (Goyal & Prakash, 2011). Women are taught to accept their position through the socialisation process and to remain obedient wives or sisters. They are neither considered as individuals with a personality of their own nor do they have any personal life. Their participation in prominent decision-making position is limited by several cultural and social constraints because they are perceived by men as incapable of taking good decisions (Kumari, 2014). As a result women are exploited, humiliated, suppressed and disempowered and accorded a low status in society.

Swami Vivekananda, the great Hindu philosopher in addressing the issue of gender inequality warned that there is no chance for welfare of the world unless the condition of women is improved. He felt that the best thermometer to the progress of a nation is its treatment of its women. Therefore he urged that attention should be given to women's plight by giving them the opportunity to be in position of power to solve their own problems in their own way (Wikipedia.org). Mahatma Gandhi was of the opinion that womanhood should not be restricted to the kitchen alone and that a woman's true spirit will be discovered only when she is liberated from the slavery of

the kitchen. Dr. B.R. Ambedkar favoured women's empowerment as he believed that the progress of a community can be measured by the level of progress achieved by women, and as such he facilitated the legal recognition of women as equal citizen. Pandit Jawarhar Lal Nehru said that when women are in the mainstream of progress they will automatically bring empowerment within the family and villages and ultimately take the nation on a path of greater development.

In view of the need to empower women, steps have been taken by the government to formulate policies at the national, state and local levels in many sectors including health, education, economic opportunities, and gender based violence and political participation. Some welfare schemes and policies implemented both at the state and central levels aiming at women's empowerment and gender equality in India (Nagaraja, 2013) includes: Integrated Child Development Services (ICDS) (1975), Rashtriya Mahila Kosh (1993), SWADHAR Greh Scheme (2001), Swayam Siddha (2001), Integrated Child Protection Scheme (ICPS) (2009-10), Pradhan Mantri Mantru Vandana Yojana (2010), Rajiv Gandhi Scheme for Empowerment of Adolescent Girls- Sabla (2010), National Mission for Empowerment of Women (2011), Beti Bachao Beti Padhao(2015), Pradhan Mantri Ujjwala Yojana (2016), etc.

1.2. The Concept of Women Empowerment

It is difficult to give a concise and holistic definition of women empowerment since there is no consensus definition of empowerment among researchers. It can mean different things in different contexts depending on who is using the concept (Mosdale, 2005). However it has been noted that in recent empowerment literature

the meaning of the term empowerment is often assumed rather than explained or defined (Weda, 2013). How empowerment is understood varies among different perspectives as it is shared by different discipline and arenas. For some researchers it is easy to define empowerment by its absence but difficult to define in action as it takes on different forms in different people and context (Rapport, 1984). In the absence of universally accepted definition we can generally accept what most researchers agree upon that empowerment is multi-dimensional, occurring at different levels and in different ways depending on individuals and communities and the environments in which they live. It is a process and therefore involves changes in existing power structure and a move from the state of disempowerment to empowerment (West, 2006).

Empowerment is therefore powerful; changing the power relations in favour of those who previously exercised little power over their lives. It is the process of wholesome upliftment of the traditionally under privileged women in society. Meanwhile Hasan (2013) refers women's empowerment to the process of improving gender equality in economic, social and cultural issues through developing awareness of women's subordination and building their capacity to challenge the power relation. For Agarwal et al. (2016) women's empowerment is bestowing power to women to decide for themselves or inculcating such abilities in them so that they are capable of finding their rightful place in the society. And for Shettar (2015) it is a process of upliftment of economic, social and political status of women, traditionally the underprivileged ones in the society and guarding them against all form of violence. According to Esplen and Brody (2007) women's empowerment is more than just for financial gain; it is about enabling women to live lives of well-being and dignity

based on equality, rights and justice. Thus, women's empowerment is not merely gaining financial independence from men but also the freedom to exercise one's right as an individual and as a female. Therefore, empowerment is something to be acquired rather than have it given to them by someone. As for Kabeer (2005) empowerment can take place only from a situation of disempowerment. Though women empowerment is determined by multiple factors, one thing that is very clear is that for women to acquire wholesome empowerment (i.e. social and economic) one has to be economically empowered first to be able to stand on her own feet. Thus, economic empowerment through employment is the core area selected for this research.

Since empowerment always brings change, a person who exercise a great deal of choice all through her life cannot be considered empowered as she has never been denied choice before. Consequently to be denied choice is to be disempowered. She is only powerful but not empowered because she was never disempowered in the first place and does not go through any change in her life. Therefore empowerment requires change at different level and in different dimensions: change at the individual level and change in their 'inner' sense of self or in their access to material resources and relationships within the family and household (Kabeer *et al.*, 1999). Given the numerous definitions and explanation, it can be concluded that for empowerment to take place women must empower themselves first by changing their attitude. They should be made aware that opportunities will not land in their hands unless they fight for it. Empowerment should come from within for the real change to take place.

Empowerment of women can also be discussed in relation to social, political and economic empowerment. Economic empowerment is found to reduce poverty, promote gender equality and improve the wellbeing of women as a whole. Employment being the fundamental components of economic empowerment it is considered to be one of the most vital determinants of women's empowerment. As such more attention will be given to the discussion of empowerment and employment as this study aims to find the relationship between employment and empowerment.

1.3. Measures of Employment and Unemployment in India

Employment is not only critical for poverty reduction but it has emerged to be one of the most important determinants of empowering women. Employment in simple terms is defined as a situation in which available labour resources are being used in the most efficient way. It can also be defined as a situation where an individual works in return for payment which may be in the form of hourly wage, by piecework or an annual salary, depending on the type of work an employee does or which sector they are working in. The National Sample Survey Organisation (NSSO), Ministry of Statistics and Programme Implementation, Government of India, provides three different estimates of employment and unemployment based on different reference periods used to classify an individual's activity status. They are -

- (i) The status of activity on which a person has spent relatively longer time of the preceding 365 days prior to the date of survey is considered to be the *usual principal activity status*. It is normally written as *usual status (PS)*. It is the

majority time criterion for determining the status of employment and unemployment of an individual.

(ii) Current weekly status (cws) approach with a reference period of seven days preceding the date of survey.

(iii) Current daily status (cws) approach with each day of the seven days preceding date of survey as the reference period.

To find out whether an individual is employed or unemployed it needs to know first whether the individual belongs to the labour force which in turn depends on the activity status of the individual i.e. the activity situation in which the individual is found during the reference period with respect to his participation in economic or non-economic activities. The NSSO defines three broad Activity Status (i) Working (engaged in economic activity) i.e. employed, (ii) Seeking or available for work i.e. unemployed, and (iii) neither seeking nor available for work. Those individual classified in activity status (i) working and (ii) seeking or available for work are considered to be in the labour force, while those in (iii) not available for work are counted out of labour force. Thus, according to NSSO labour force constitutes of both employed and unemployed persons. The rate of unemployment rate is calculated as the proportion of persons classified as 'unemployed' as a percentage of all those classified as being in the Labour Force.

If an individual reports as having worked for less than 6 months but sought/available work for another months in a year are classified as 'unemployed' on the *usual status (ps)*. Meanwhile, *usual principal subsidiary status (ps+ss)* is more inclusive as compared to *ps* as it seeks to identify workers out of those who are

classified as 'unemployed' or 'outside labour force' on the basis of majority of time criterion. All individuals who are either unemployed or outside the labour force, but have worked for a minor period of not less than 30 days during the reference period are classified as *subsidiary status* workers. According to the *ps+ss* criterion, the status of an individual is determined on the basis of his usual principal status and usual subsidiary status taken together. Inclusion of subsidiary status increases the proportion of persons inside the labour force as compared to *ps* (Arthapedia, 2013). At the sametime, a person is considered to be employed if he or she pursues any one or more of the gainful activities for at least one hour on any day of the reference week under *current weekly status (cws)*. On the other hand, if a person does not pursue any gainful activity, but has been seeking or available for work, the person is considered as unemployed under *cws*. Meanwhile, the *current daily status (cws)* considers the person-days in employment for each day of the reference week to arrive at the persons-days of employment and unemployment.

On the other hand, the Labour Bureau has a more simple way of defining employment/worker as anyone engaged in an economic activity or establishment either as owners, members of the household working as co-owner or partner or helping the owner in running the business , whether hired or not, besides regular and salaried employees, casual/daily wage labourers. Also persons who despite their attachment to economic activity abstained from work due to sickness, accident or any other reasons is considered employed together with paid and unpaid apprentices (Quarterly report on Employment Scenario, 2017).

1.4. Profiles of Women Employment and Unemployment in India

1.4.1. Female Work Participation

The Female Work Participation Rate (FWPR) may be considered a good proxy for women employment or unemployment. The trend of WPR over different Censuses in India since 1971 is presented in Table 1.1. Women as an independent group constitute 48 percent of the country's total population. In spite of the high economic growth during the last two decades India has a very low overall female participation rate compared with other countries of the world. The overall WPR also shows wide disparities between males and females over the five census period. As presented in Table 1.1. Work Participation Rate by sex in India during 1971-2011, one can see that in all the census years the overall female WPR does not even make up to half of the WPR of male members.

Table 1.1: Work Participation Rate (WPR) by sex in India during 1971-2011

Census year	All	Males	Females
1971	33.08	52.61	12.11
1981	36.7	52.62	19.67
1991	37.5	51.61	22.27
2001	39.1	51.68	25.63
2011	39.8	53.3	25.5

Source-Statistical Profile on Women Labour 2012-13, Labour Bureau, Govt. of India.

For instance, in the 2011 census the female WPR was only 25.5 % while that of male WPR was 53.3%. Ghosh & Mukhopadhyay (1984) blames the low female participation on the dominant position of male in the workforce and the adverse sex-ratio of females in the population. The International Institute of Labour Studies (2004)

conducted a study to look into the quality of female employment. The study concluded that women are highly employed in low quality work as most women are engaged in part-time work, informal sector and in the form of non-unionised labour.

To supplement the trend of FWPR in India as observed in different rounds of NSS is presented in Table 1.2. In all the NSS rounds there is considerable urban-rural gap for females while there is no urban - rural gap for males. For instance, in 2011-12 WPR for urban and rural male was more or less the same (54.6% & 54.3% respectively) but one can see a wide rural-urban gap for females (urban 14.7% & 24.8% respectively) in the same year.

Table 1.2 : Urban & Rural Work Participation Rates(WPR): Male & Female

NSS rounds /year	Female WPR		Male WPR	
	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural
43rd (1987-88)	15.2	32.3	50.6	53.9
50th (1993-94)	15.5	32.8	52.1	55.3
55th(1999-00)	13.9	29.9	51.8	53.1
61st(2004-05)	16.6	32.7	54.9	54.6
66th(2009-10)	13.8	26.1	54.3	54.7
68th(2011-12)	14.7	24.8	54.6	54.3

Source- Employment and Unemployment surveys of NSS

1.4.2. Distribution of Female Employment

Table 1.3 presents the sector Wise Female Employment in India as observed in different NSS rounds. Agriculture continues to be the main provider of women employment in rural areas accounting for more than 75% of the women workforce throughout the years from 1987-88 to 2011-12 where most rural women are casually employed and engaged in low paying agriculture works. Meanwhile services sector

have become the main provider of employment in urban areas accounting for 55% of the women workforce engaged in low paying unskilled jobs .

Table 1.3.: Sector wise Female Employment Distribution in India

Round/year	<i>Percent</i>					
	Rural			Urban		
	agriculture	manufacturing	services	agriculture	manufacturing	services
43rd (1987-88)	84.7	6.9	3.7	29.4	27	27.8
50th (1993-94)	86.2	7	4	24.7	24.1	35
55th (1999-00)	85.4	7.6	4.3	17.7	24	34.2
61st (2004-05)	83.3	8.4	4.6	18.1	28.2	35.9
66th (2009-10)	79.4	7.5	5.7	13.9	27.9	39.3
68th (2011-12)	74.9	16.7	8.3	10.9	44	55.1

Source-Employment and Unemployment surveys NSS, 2011-2012, MoSPI, Govt. of India

1.4.3. Women Unemployment

The condition of women employment in rural and urban areas in India as given in different NSS Rounds is presented in Table 1.4. The unemployment rate among women in India has shown a growing trend and it has more than double of that of men. The unemployment rates presented in Table 1.4 reveals that in the entire NSSO rounds female unemployment rate is much higher than male unemployment. Unemployment rates in urban areas are higher for both female and male but the urban/rural gap for female unemployment is seen to be wider than male unemployment. The rising trend continues in 2015-16 (5th Annual Employment-Unemployment Survey, Labour Bureau) where female unemployment rate is 5.8% and 3% for male. There is a considerable rural-urban gap in unemployment rate of females (rural-4.7%, urban-10.9% respectively).

Table 1.4. Unemployment Rates (in the labour force) according to Usual Status (Percentage)

Round	Year	Female		Male	
		Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban
27th	1972-73	0.5	6	1.2	4.8
32nd	1977-78	2	12.4	1.3	5.4
38th	1983	0.7	4.9	1.4	5.1
43rd	1987-88	2.4	6.2	1.8	5.2
50th	1993-94	0.9	6.1	1.4	4.1
55th	1999-00	1	5.7	1.7	4.5
61st	2004-05	1.8	6.9	1.6	3.8
66th	2009-10	1.6	5.7	1.6	2.8
68th	2011-12	1.7	5.2	1.7	3

Source: National Sample Survey, 68th Round, July 2011-June 2012

Notes: Figures relate to usual status adjusted labour force

In addition, the Periodic Labour Force Survey (PLFS) of the National Sample Survey Office (NSSO) released in June 2019 also recorded that the overall unemployment rate in the country is at an all-time high of 6.1%. The unemployment rate is highest among urban females at 10.8% followed by urban males at 7.1% and 5.8% for rural males and 3.8% for rural females respectively. The Ministry of statistics and programme Implementation (MoSPI) in explaining the rationale behind the high unemployment rate in urban area said that rise in educational levels and household income has raised the levels of educated youth. And these youth are no longer willing to join the labour force requiring low skills and low remuneration (economictimes.com, 2019).

1.5. Scenario of Women's Empowerment in India

India may be amongst the fastest growing economy in the world today, but if women who comprise 48% of its population are not made equal partners in the development process sustainable development cannot take place. Empowering women is imperative for sustainable and solid development. However, there is no single measure which can represent women empowerment. In the absence of official data on women empowerment, the relevant indicators of women empowerment as given in the National Family Health Survey 4 (NFHS-4), 2015-16 is presented in Table 1.5.

Table 1.5- Indicators of Women's Empowerment in India according to NFHS-4 (2015-16)

SN	Indicators	Percent		
		Urban	Rural	Total
1	Participate in HH decision making	85.8	83	84
2	Work paid in cash	23.2	25.4	24.6
3	Experienced spousal violence	23.6	31.4	28.8
4	Experienced violence during pregnancy	2.9	3.5	3.3
5	Owned house or lands alone/jointly	35.2	40.1	38.4
6	Owned Bank/Saving account for personal use	61	48.5	53
7	Owned mobile phone for personal use	61.8	36.9	45.9
8	Had full antenatal care	31.1	16.7	21
9	Women aged 15 to 49 years who have undergone examination of cervix	25.3	20.7	22.3
10	Women aged 15 to 49 years who have undergone examination of breast	11.7	8.8	9.8
11	Women who have comprehensive knowledge of HIV/AIDS	28.1	16.9	20.9
12	Women who know that consistent condom use can reduce the chances of getting HIV/AIDS	67	48.1	54.9
13	Use hygienic method of protection during menstruation	77.5	48.2	57.6
14	Household with electricity	97.5	83.2	88.2
15	Household with improved drinking water source	91.1	89.3	89.9
16	Household using sanitation facility	70.3	36.7	48.4
17	Household using clean fuel for cooking	80.6	24	43.8
18	Houshold with any usual member covered by a health scheme or health insurance	28.2	29	28.7
19	Women who are literate	81.4	61.5	68.4
20	Women with 10 or more years of schooling	51.5	27.3	35.7

Source : The National Family Health Survey 2015-16 (NFHS - 4)

In assessing the empowerment level of women in India based on key indicators of NFHS-4, one can say that women as a whole still lag behind in empowerment. According to the empowerment indicators except for participation in household decision where more than 80% take part in decision making both at the rural and urban level all other indicators scores well below average. If taking part in household decision is one indicator of being empowered then it can be accepted that women in India are empowered in this area. Whereas for all the other indicators the scores are equally low and the situation seems to be worse in the rural areas. It has been observed that only 24% of women get paid in cash for the work they performed implying that work performed by women generally goes unrecognised and undervalued by men. Women remain exploited at the hands of their husband and community and the valuable work they performed is taken for granted.

Gender based violence exist in many communities of India. A narrow improvement is seen from the previous survey where the percentage of women who experienced spousal violence decreased from 37% to 28% at the national level. Comparatively women in rural areas experienced more spousal violence and remain disempowered and helpless in the hands of their husband. About 3% experienced violence at one time or the other during pregnancy at the national level; there are more victims of violence in rural areas than those in urban area. At national level about 38% women owned house or land in their name or jointly with others. Here it is interesting to note that there are more rural women (40%) owning house or land in their name or jointly with others than those living in urban area. With owning bank or savings account in one's name for personal use an improvement is seen from the

previous NFHS survey where a substantial increase is recorded from 15% to more than 53%. A good percentage of women both in urban and rural area owned bank or savings account in their name for their own use. As for ownership of mobile phones for personal use around 45% women owned mobile phones at the national level while there are far less percentage of women who owned one in the rural area. And with the issue of practising personal hygiene more than 57% claimed to use hygienic methods of protection during menstrual period at the national level. There are 77% practising the same among urban women while it is less lower in the rural area. Over time initiatives taken by government to bridge the gender based disparities has resulted in some progress but more corrective steps need to be taken to improve the prevailing situation as women are still not fully empowered.

1.6. Women Empowerment in Mizoram – situational overview

Mizoram is a state where there is no caste system and against the backdrop of a liberal set-up, male and female co-exist freely in the society. There is general presumption that women in Mizoram enjoy equal status with men and enjoy a higher degree of freedom comparatively than women of other states in India. Conservative attitude and restriction imposed on women by other culture and religion is absent in Mizo culture. Women and young girls dress in outfit of their choice and there is no restriction with their movement in public spaces whether alone or in group. All this must have convinced outside observers, like Chatterji (1975) and Dutta (1978), to conclude that men and women are equal and that the status of women in Mizo society is in no way inferior to that of men and hence suffered none of the derogatory and

discriminatory treatment as may be found in some advanced societies. However, Hnuni (1999) strongly opposed these findings and opined that outsiders have such conclusions often due to the fact that these writers have no exposure to the village life where the true cultural life can be best observed and have not truly immersed themselves into the real social life of Mizo people and unable to interpret the data correctly. When compared with the social life of traditional Hindus and Muslims, Mizo society is indeed liberal regarding the social freedom women enjoy. But the fact remains that women are not liberated as seen from the surface. Family and kinship relations are organised strictly along corporate patriarchal lines with authority vested in the male household head. Descent and family property is transmitted through the male line, leaving women effectively without property and genealogically irrelevant. Women generally marry outside their own kinship system and move to the husbands' home after marriage cutting them off from the support of, and the ability to contribute to their natal family (Kabeer et al., 2011). As a result she could not acquire true membership either in their natal home or in their husband's family. She would always be referred to as 'monu' (bride). In fact as long as the couple live with the natal family of the husband, she (wife) would not normally acquire the status of full membership and would always be referred to as *monu* (Nunthara, 1996).

However, today the status of women is not as bad as it was although some form of discrimination still prevails in the Church and social organisations. The advent of Christianity and the expansion of education brought about such tremendous changes in the status of women, so much so that one of the Mizo proverbs that previously ridiculed women's capability has been drastically reversed as 'the wisdom of women has reached beyond the other side of the river' (Lalhmingpuii, 2014).

Doors have been opened for women outside the domestic sphere. Women are no longer considered inferior to their male counterparts in the professional field. Today Mizo women are everywhere working in various capacities as government officers, Professors, Lecturers, Teachers, Doctors, Nurses, Lawyers, Bankers, Entrepreneur, Contractor, Fashion Designer, Beautician, Floriculturist, Seamstress, Flight attendant and other professions.

A Bill passed by the government on 12th November 2014 to provide for the law relating to Marriage, Divorce and Inheritance of property greatly improved the status of Mizo women. Under the Mizo Marriage, Divorce and Inheritance of Property Act, 2014 women can now have a share not exceeding 25% and 50% (depending on the nature and reasons for divorce) over the acquired property along with her personal property, which was previously denied to her (www.mizoramassembly.in). As for the inheritance of property, in the traditional society women were not entitled to any inheritance. In the absence of a son, the mother and daughter could not claim the property as a matter of right and the family property would normally go to the nearest male relative (Lalthansangi, 2005) . Today in reverse to the traditional practice, in the absence of a male heir, the family property will be divided equally between the surviving wife and the unmarried daughters who are living with the surviving wife. And a divorced daughter who has returned to her parent's house is to be treated as unmarried daughter for the purpose of inheritance (www.mizoramassembly.in) .

The coming of Christianity has placed women in an important position in the evangelization work of the Church and even today they continue to be important and useful pillars of the Church. But sadly women are still excluded from all high level

decision –making bodies and responsible positions in the Church. The largest congregation in Mizoram, The Mizoram Presbyterian Church until now refused to confer ordination to theologically trained women on the ground of being a woman. Gender based discrimination is also seen to exist subtly even in the largest social based organisation of Mizoram, the Young Mizo Association (YMA). At the local (section and branch) level generally female gets elected to the leadership post, normally as Treasurer or Finance Secretary. However at the Central YMA level history shows that except for the founding Vice President Miss K.Hughes, in recent time women seldom gets elected to the leadership post, and so far only a handful has been appointed as member of the executive committee. Currently Central YMA has exclusively all-male members in its high level executive committee giving one the impression that women’s representation is only welcomed at the local level but not at the state level. Gangte (2011) argued that while modern ideas inculcated by Christianity and education greatly help to improve the status of women. Yet it is far from achieving a status of equality for women because modernisation is largely in terms of material culture, whereas traditionalism still influences the Mizo society at the level of consciousness and ideas.

1.6.1. Traditional Mizo Society

The traditional Mizo society is patriarchal in nature where males dominate the family and society. The husband being the head of the family exercises unlimited dominance over his wife and other members of the family. Inheritance is always on the paternal line passing from the father to the sons. In the traditional Mizo society

women were discriminated upon simply on the ground of sex. Women were not treated as equal to men and seen as a subordinate in every aspect. They were looked down upon so much by men that many derogatory phrases were invented to express their views on the status of women. The well-known phrase, 'Crab's meat is not a meat, a women's word is not a word' clearly reflect the low regard men have for women. Women are compared to crabs which are regarded as less than an animal as it has no skin and flesh. Another saying, 'The wisdom of women does not cross beyond the village spring' refers to the traditional belief that there is a limit to the wisdom of women (Lalhmingpuii, 2014). 'Bad wife and bad fence can be changed', she is likened to an old garden fence which can be easily replaced at the whim and fancy of the husband. Another saying 'A woman, a dog and a walnut tree, the more you beat them the better they be' suggest men resort to beating to discipline his wife. These few examples reveal the derogatory and discriminatory treatment women faced during the pre-Christian days. Women had no voice in any decision making within home and outside and even if she had, her voice was never heard or taken seriously by men. She undertook all responsibilities in the family without authority. Women discrimination in the form of inheritance rights was also high in the society.

Women did not have any legal claim on the family property except a small share at the time of marriage which she carried with her as a form of dowry. Mizo women thus possessed nothing, having no rights in matters of succession and inheritance (Nunthara, 1996). If there is no son in the family to inherit, on the death of the father the family property goes to his brother or his nephew, as daughters and mother of the family cannot keep the family property. This is an extreme case of gender discrimination. Mizo women play a significant role in the traditional economy

of their society. Since agriculture was the only means of livelihood women did a significant portion of the farm work from clearing the jungle for cultivation to sowing seeds, weeding, harvesting and transferring harvests to home. Apart from jhum work she also engaged herself in household works. She was responsible for fetching firewood and water, cooking for the family, caring for the children and elderly members of the family. Weaving clothes and bedding for the family was also the duty of women. In spite of the laborious task she perform outside and within her own household, it was always men who were referred to as bread-winners of the family and the sole decision-makers in the family (Lalrinchhani, 2004).

1.6.2. Legal provision

The Constitution of India not only grants equality to women but also empowers the state to adopt measures of positive discrimination in favour of women for neutralizing the cumulative socio economic, education and political disadvantages faced by them (Yunus & Verma, 2015). Cueva (2006) stated that one of the most important elements in enabling empowerment of women is having a supportive legal and regulatory framework (Cueva Beteta, 2006). This element ensures whether or not women's rights are codified in law so as to give them protection from the many discriminatory customs and practices women are exposed to. With regard to the status of women in Mizo society one aspect that draws more attention is the Mizo women's ability to inherit or obtain property (Pratley, 2016). The Mizo Customary Law is based on patriarchal ideology which discriminates women. Women do not have inheritance rights and has no legal right to claim over families acquired property in

the event of divorce. And on the death of a husband a widow can inherit her dead husband's property only by virtue of her children and for promised fidelity to the dead husband.

Mizoram is the first state in North East India to have a written customary law. The first written form of Mizo customary law was compiled by N.E.Parry in 1927 called, 'A monograph on Lushai custom and ceremonies'. Over time the issue of whether to make the mizo customary law a statute law or to remain a monograph was discussed. Majority resolved to keep the mizo customary law as a statute law. The first Mizo Customary Law compiled by the Mizo District Council was published in 1957. Apart from the Mizo District (Inheritance of Property) Act 1956 there were no notable changes made to marriage, divorce and inheritance. This new act allowed for women to have a share of the deceased property if she is included in the will. However it has been contested that a will by itself is not a 'right' and can be easily contested by the husband's family. Again in 2006 the first edition of Mizo Hnam Dan or Mizo Customary Laws was published by Law and Judicial Department, Government of Mizoram. Most of the laws which were enacted during the Autonomous District Council were adopted without modification. This attracted a lot of debate in certain quarter of the public over its male friendly nature and questioned its credibility to meet the changing needs of Mizo women of the 21st century. Finally after years of advocacy and numerous submissions of memorandum and draft bills to the assembly and other executive bodies, the MHIP (United Organisation of Mizo Women) finally managed to push the government into considering judicial and legislative changes in the marriage, divorce and inheritance and succession laws to safeguard the interest of ordinary mizo women.

The State Law Commission finally took upon itself to review the Mizo Marriage Bill 2013, the Mizo Inheritance Bill 2013 and the Mizo Divorce Bill 2013 (Hanghal 2014). As a result the Mizo Marriage, Divorce and Inheritance of Property Act, 2014 (Act No.9 of 2014) was enacted by the Mizoram Legislative Assembly on 12th November 2014. This new Act prove to be an improvement in many ways from the previous Act for women's rights. Prior to 2014 Mizo women were reeling under the yoke of the Mizo Customary Law as it was found to discriminate women especially with inheritance rights. The enactment of the Mizo Marriage, Divorce and Inheritance of Property Act, 2014 (Act No.9 of 2014) by the Mizoram Legislative Assembly, Chapter VI (26) of the Act has provided on the right of a women leaving her husband on 'mak 'and this is a marked improvement from the previous Act. The enactment of this Law is a historic victory for women's movement in Mizoram as it has taken MHIP more than a decade to get the attention of the government to review the Mizo customary law. This Act is a breakthrough for every woman in Mizoram as it has removed some of the legal biases present in the system. It has helped women in gaining security and protection as well as promoting the rights of women in the family in particular and the society as a whole.

1.6.3. Role of Mizo Hmeichhe Insuihkhawm Pawl (MHIP) in empowering women

The Mizo Hmeichhe Insuihkhawm Pawl (MHIP) (United Organisation of Mizo Women) established in 1974 is one of the largest voluntary organisation in Mizoram. The organisation has 7 sub-headquarters and 700 branches all over Mizoram with its main office located in Aizawl, the capital of Mizoram. Girls from age 14 years onwards can become a member of MHIP. The basic principle of MHIP is

based on philanthropic social work and has done a great service in looking after the welfare of women at large and stand up for the rights of women on various issues like protection of vulnerable female from sexual exploitation and protecting the dignity of women. Being an all women organisation it has worked for the development of women for the past 25 years. MHIP has been at the forefront in fighting atrocities against women. They stand up for destitute women like victim of rape, violence and murder .They organise processions in large scale across different districts to protest against cruel treatment meted out to fellow women.

MHIP works tirelessly to improve the status of women in Mizo society. Even in the political front they advocated increased participation of women in the local political parties and demanded 33 percent reservation in the political system. The years 1997-2001 was declared as 'Women's Year' in Mizoram. During which time they organised workshops, seminars all across Mizoram focusing on theme like the low status of women in Mizoram and the need to review the Mizo customary law which provide very little right and protection to Mizo women (Mizoram.nic.in). They lobby for reforms of the customary laws relating to divorce and inheritance rights to the advantage of all Mizo women. The decade long pressure waged by MHIP to review the divorce and widows inheritance rights came to fruition when the Mizo Marriage, Divorce and Inheritance of Property Act, 2014 was unanimously passed by the state legislature on 12th November 2014.

1.7. Women Employment and Empowerment in Mizoram

Table 1.6 highlights the employment status of female population during the last 40 years covering 5 censuses. While the number of main workers has remained more or less constant till 1991 it started to fall in 2001 and drop further in 2011. Similarly, the percentage of marginal workers also dropped substantially from 69.8% in 1981 to 61.7% in 2011. This downward trend witnessed in both main workers and marginal workers from 2001 onwards contribute to the drop in the overall LFPR by 10.1% at the national level as revealed in a survey conducted by NSSO. This result in 22.6 million fewer women in the labour force across the different states including Mizoram in 2010 than in 2005.

Table 1.6: Percentage distribution of Main workers, Marginal workers & Main workers by sex

Sl.No	Year	Main workers		Marginal workers		Non-workers	
		Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
1	1971	58	42	NA	NA	45.9	54.1
2	1981	62.9	37.1	30.2	69.8	45.3	54.7
3	1991	61.3	38.7	32.7	67.3	47	53
4	2001	62.2	37.8	35.9	64.1	46.5	53.5
5	2011	63.4	36.6	38.3	61.7	43.3	56.7

Source-Directorate of Census operations, Mizoram

Table.1.7. presents the district wise classification of main, marginal and non-workers in Mizoram. The district of Serchhip has the highest number of women engaged as main worker while Kolasib, Lawngtlai and Saiha have equally low number for the same. Mamit district has the highest percentage of marginal workers while Saiha has the lowest percentage. Aizawl district which has the highest population in the entire districts of Mizoram has the third highest percentage of women main workers while it also has the highest percentage of women non-workers.

Comparatively the percentage of male main workers is higher than female main workers in all the districts. But reverses for marginal workers where female marginal workers are far more than male workers. As for non-workers the percentage for both male and female has remain more or less constant in the entire district of Mizoram.

Table 1.7 -District-wise classification of Main workers, Marginal workers & Non-workers by sex in percentage (2011)

Sl.No	District	Main workers		Marginal workers		Non-workers	
		Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
1	Mamit	64.2	35.8	25	75	44.3	55.7
2	Kolasib	67.4	32.6	39	61	42.7	57.3
3	Aizawl	62.4	37.6	43.9	56.1	41.9	58.1
4	Champhai	59.3	40.7	36.1	63.9	44.7	55.3
5	Serchhip	58.4	41.6	32.6	67.4	44.8	55.2
6	Lunglei	66.1	33.9	32.4	67.6	44.1	55.9
7	Lawngtlai	67.6	32.4	36.9	63.1	44.4	55.6
8	Saiha	67.8	32.2	47.2	52.8	44.1	55.9

Source- Directorate of Census Operations, Mizoram

Looking at the Work Participation Rate of Mizoram presented in Table 1.8. the female work participation rate is substantially higher in rural area (41.9%) as compared to urban area (31.1%).Whereas the difference is not much for male workers. On the whole the total WPR for female is only 36.2% whereas it is 52.4 % for male according to 2011 census.

Table 1.8. Work Participation Rate of Mizoram according to 2011 Census (%)

Rural			Urban			Combine		
Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total
41.9	53.9	40.8	31.1	50.9	40.9	36.2	52.4	44.5

Source : Directorate of Census Operations, Mizoram

To examine the present condition of women empowerment in Mizoram, the women empowerment data observed in the NFHS-4 (2015-16) for Mizoram has been

evaluated and presented in Table 1.9. The table displays varying performances on several indicators. For instance, in assets ownership there are more rural women owning land/house in their name than women in urban area. But the percentage of urban women having Bank/Savings account and mobile phone in their name is comparatively higher.

Table 1.9: Indicators of Women's Empowerment in Mizoram according to NFHS-4 (2015-16)

SN	Parameters of Women Empowerment	Percent		
		Urban	Rural	Total
1	Participate in HH decision making	96.3	95.6	96
2	Work paid in cash	34	21.4	29
3	Experienced spousal violence	16.7	17.6	17
4	Experienced violence during pregnancy	2.8	1.1	2.1
5	Owned house or lands alone/jointly	14.9	27.8	19.7
6	Owned Bank/Saving account for personal use	68.4	38.8	57.4
7	Owned mobile phone for personal use	88.5	58.2	77.3
8	Had full antenatal care			38.5
9	Women aged 15 to 49 years who have undergone examination of cervix	24.4	15.4	20.9
10	Women aged 15 to 49 years who have undergone examination of breast	9.2	4.8	7.5
11	Women who have comprehensive knowledge of HIV/AIDS	70.9	58.7	66.4
12	Women who know that consistent condom use can reduce the chances of getting HIV/AIDS	94	86.9	91.4
13	Use hygienic method of protection during menstruation	96.3	88.6	93.4
14	Household with electricity	99.7	90.5	95.9
15	Household with improved drinking water source	94.1	87.8	91.5
16	Household using sanitation facility	90.9	73.1	83.5
17	Household using clean fuel for cooking	92.9	29.9	66.6
18	Household with any usual member covered by a health scheme or health insurance	42.3	49.9	45.4
19	Women who are literate	98.6	85.4	93.5
20	Women with 10 or more years of schooling	52	21.4	40.2

Source : The National Family Health Survey 2015-16 (NFHS - 4)

With empowerment within the family urban women seems to be more empowered than rural women in almost all the indicators except for experiencing violence during any pregnancy. With health and socio-economic condition urban women are doing much better than rural women in all the indicators. Therefore, based

on the various indicators of empowerment it is safe to conclude that urban women in general are more empowered than women in rural areas. And it also appears from the NFHS-4 data that women in Mizoram are more empowered than women of other states, detailed analysis of which is presented in the later chapter of the study.

1.8. Significance of the study

India is among the few developing countries where gender equality and improvement in the status of women is the central goals of development and social policy till today. Every Five Year Plan since 1950 onwards has certain policies which aimed at increasing women's welfare. The Sixth Five Year Plan (1980-85) championed the cause of women as the concept of 'women and development' was introduced for the first time in this plan. Policy for Empowerment of Women was declared by Government of India in 2001 to eliminate all types of discrimination against women and to ensure justice, besides empowering women both socially and economically (Planning Commission, 2001). The 12th Plan also had women's empowerment as the central theme envisioning empowered women living in dignity in an environment free from violence and discrimination and contributing as equal partners in the development of a country. On International Women's Day in 2010 the National Mission for Empowerment of Women (NMEW) was launched by the Government of India with the objective of bringing together different Ministries and Departments of Government of India as well as State Governments and UT Administrations in the implementations of schemes and programmes of empowerment (Mokta, 2014).

Despite all the efforts shown by the government and its agencies, the work participation rates of women has declined rather sharply for all age groups for the past 35 years, leading to the conclusion that women are largely being excluded from employment in India (Rosa, 2010). Among the G-20 nations in terms of women empowerment and employment India is third from the bottom next only to Pakistan and Saudi Arabia. The World Economic Forum's *Global Gender Report 2015* ranked India at 139 among 145 countries on the Economic participation and opportunity sub index and in the rankings by indicator, India's rank in Female Labour Force Participation Rate is 136 among 145 countries (Labour Bureau, 2015-16). Given all these, it is clear that India still has a long way to go to achieve its vision of having empowered women and inclusive development. Therefore it is the felt need of the hour that women are empowered socially and economically to overcome their pathetic situation. Providing equal employment opportunity as men will help in empowering them more and take control of their lives. The study is significant from economic point of view as it help to transform life of traditionally underprivileged women in the society from a situation of disempowerment to empowerment.

1.9. Statement of the problem

In India family and kinship are organised along patriarchal lines where descent and property is transmitted through the male line leaving women effectively without property and genealogically irrelevant (Kabeer *et al.*, 2011). Men have supreme authorities in their respective families and in the society at large. All important decisions are taken by men and women obediently follow them. In many conservative

society women are considered subordinate to men in every aspect and taken merely as an object of reproduction. In remote rural society girl child are still denied education and confined to the four walls of the kitchen. As a result they remain illiterate, unemployed and poor unable to fend for themselves and end up living under the mercy of their husband. The census figures show that majority of women in India are illiterate, unemployed, low paid and occupying a very poor status in the society (Rosa, 2010).

The Mizo society, like most societies is patriarchal where a woman by nature is considered inferior to men. During the pre-Christian days Mizo women were discriminated on the basis of sex. Women were regarded as subordinate to men both physically and mentally. Many derogatory terms were used by men to express the low mental regard they have for women. For example, 'Women and crabs have no religion' and 'Let a woman and a dog bark as they like', were often quoted by men to reflect women's inferior status in the Mizo society of olden days.

However, the advent of Christianity and the expansion of education brought about tremendous improvement in the status of women. These expressions still prevail today but they tend to be used in a lighter sense and are considered to be less meaningful as was perceived in the olden days. Today the general perception of the public towards women appears to be gradually improving due to their increasing participation in the economic and political spheres. They have made remarkable contributions to the social and economic upliftment of the mizo society. Women continue to play a major role in the workforce as they did in the pre-Christian era. While the traditional jhum cultivation still continues in the villages, in the growing

urban centres many educated women hold respectable jobs and working in various capacities as Officers in Government offices, doctors, nurses, lecturers, teachers, Bankers, entrepreneurs etc. The high work participation rate of women in Mizoram compared to other NE states and India, and the rising trend in the number of female employees in public sector during the last three decades greatly increases Mizo women's contribution to the economy. All this have resulted in improving their status in the society and increases their involvement in the community. Moreover the social freedom enjoyed by both sexes in Mizo society have often led outsiders (non- Mizos) to conclude that the status of Mizo women are in no way inferior to men. But social freedom does not mean economic liberation. (Hnuni, 1999) The fact remain that gender inequalities still exist when it comes to job opportunities. According to 2011 census, of the total number of workers, female make up only 40.25% while men consist of 55.76%. As given in the Statistical Handbook (2009) of the total workforce employed by the state Government, men comprises a little over 75% whereas women consist of only 24% of the total. This reveals the need for greater empowerment of women in areas of employment in all sectors of the economy.

1.10. Objective of the study

This study anchors at the analysis of the relationship between women employment and empowerment so as to draw concrete information on the impact of the former on the latter. The specific objectives of the study are as follows:

1. To examine the existing status of women employment and empowerment across the different states of India and to measure the relationship between the two with special reference to the study area, Aizawl District of Mizoram.
2. To assess the impact of employment on socio-economic conditions of women and their level of empowerment on control of family assets and resources, decision making, personal freedom and development.
3. To examine the differences in the level of empowerment and employment of women in rural and urban areas.

1.11. Hypotheses

To chalk out concrete conclusion from the data on the various indicators on empowerment and employment, the following hypotheses were proposed tested:

1. Women empowerment is significantly determined by employment
2. Employed women have a significantly higher advantages in ownership of Household assets.
3. Employment has increased the level of female participation in household decision making.
4. Level of women empowerment is significantly higher in urban areas than in rural areas.

1.12. Methodology

1.12.1. Data Source

1. Primary Data.

Primary data were collected through well-structured and pre-tested questionnaire schedule from the sampled villages and urban localities in Aizawl District of Mizoram. As per the Population Census 2011, the total population of this district stood at 4,00,309, which is as much as 37% of the total population of Mizoram, while Aizawl city alone contributed more than 73% of the entire district population. In view of the main economic activities and the population, the study area is broadly divided into two as urban for all localities within Aizawl city, and rural for all villages outside Aizawl. Accordingly, this study adopted stratified random sampling design for the collection of primary data in which the two areas (rural and urban) are considered as the strata. A total of 350 samples, 150 and 200 from rural and urban areas respectively, were covered in the survey. After screening of the result and data validation, 17 samples were rejected (13 from rural and 4 from urban) due to insufficient and inconsistency of data, and thus, the final sample size becomes 333 (i.e. 137 rural and 196 urban).

It is understood that the sampling units consist of female members of the population in the study areas. Selection or identification of the sample was undertaken as follows: Villages or urban localities are selected randomly from the list of villages and localities in Aizawl district, and this was followed by selection of the households. One female member was selected for interview from each of the selected households. Working women or women in working age are purposively selected from each sample

household, while more priority was given older female family members in the selection. The field survey was undertaken during July 2017 to March 2018. It was realised after covering substantial number of sample, relatively lower number of employed women were selected through the process of random sampling exercise. In view of the study objectives and hypotheses, employed women (government employees, self-employed, business, etc.) were given more priority in the subsequent sampling exercise to suit the need of the study.

2. Secondary Data.

Secondary data are collected from various sources, mostly official data of the Central and State governments. Employment data are obtained from National Sample Survey, Labour Bureau, and Primary Abstract of Population Census 2011. Data related to women empowerment are generated from National Family Health Survey 4 (NFHS 4), 2015-16. Further, other information are collected from the reports and publications of Central Statistics Office (CSO), Government of India; and Directorate of Economics and Statistics, and Planning and Programme Implementation, Government of Mizoram; and individual research paper and publications.

1.12.2. Methods of Analysis

Data analysis collected from primary and secondary sources are analysed using different statistical measures. The methodology of data analysis is broadly divided into three – descriptive statistics, construction of indices, and measurement of impact or relationship.

1. *Descriptive Statistics.*

To study the general trends and patterns of data collected from secondary and primary sources, descriptive statistical tools like percentage, frequency distribution, charts, mean, and standard deviation are adopted. These are the key tools that are used to describe the general conditions of employment and empowerment so as to enable factual interpretation of the present scenario, and to form basis for further impact and relationship analysis.

2. *Construction of Indices Women Empowerment*

Different studies identified indicators of women empowerment (Karl, 1995; Kishore and Gupta, 2004; Rustagi, 2004; Sudha, 2006) in view of the availability of the data set. Keeping in view, information collected from the study area using interview schedule, this study decided to construct indices of empowerment. four indices are constructed. As such, four indices constructed are on the basis of the responses in the structured questionnaire schedule administered in the field. Detailed descriptions of these indices are given as follows:

- a) Empowerment over Resource and Assets (ERA). This index is constructed using 13 questions related to the command and ownership of different assets (heritable, family property, business, personal property, etc.). The answers by the respondents were measured in four points scale as follows: 1-family does not have; 2-family has, but not by self; 3-joint ownership with husband; and 4-ownership by self. Given the number of scales and questions adopted, the ERA Index has Maximum Point of 52 and Minimum of 13 points. The information used for construction of ERA are the following:

1. Land Pass (LSC, P. Patta, VC, others.)	2. Pass for other land (agriculture land, etc.)
3. Dwelling house	4. Two wheeler
5. Four Wheeler	6. Jewellery (gold, silver, etc.)
7. Mobile Phone	8. Personal Computer/Laptop
9. Employment Card (NREGA, etc.)	10. Food Subsidy Card
11. Driving License	12. Gas Subsidy Card/Connection
13. Business Establishment (shops, etc.)	

b) Empowerment in Decision Making (EDM). It is constructed based on the answers of 24 questions asked to the respondents on the one who make decisions on different family matters (*i.e. the one who make decision*). The answers were rated in 5 points scale as follows: 1-others; 2-husband; 3-no answer; 4-with husband; and 5-by self. The EDM has maximum value of 120 points and minimum of 24. Near EDM point of 120 means there is more women participation in household decision making, near 24 points means there is less participation and near 72 points means undecided view/no answers. The EDM is constructed based on the decision on the following areas:

1. House Construction/Repair	2. Purchase of land
3. Selection of size for land purchase	4. Selection of land for cultivation
5. Crops selection	6. Assignment of work to family members
7. Purchase of vehicle & type selection	8. Loans
9. Purchase and disposition of property	10. Purchase of household appliance (fridge, washing machine, etc.)
11. Purchase of jewellery	12. Business/new venture
13. Fund allocation to different consumption items	14. Saving
15. Contribution to NGOs and church	16. Participation in NGO/Church activities
17. No. of children	18. Family planning method
19. Selection of school for children	20. Buying of clothing for children
21. Purchase of cloths for self	22. Doctor visit and health matter
23. Food preparation and selection	24. Marriage of Children

c) Empowerment in Personal Development and Security (EPDS). It is based on 11 questions related to individual development, freedom and security. As they

are all 'yes' or 'no' type answer, each was rated in two points scale as 1-No, and 2-Yes. Accordingly, the EDPS has maximum point of 22 with minimum value of 11. The variables adopted for construction of EDPS are

1. Are you a member of state level NGOs?	2. Do you Self-help Group?
3. Do you have Saving Bank Account on own?	4. Have you ever availed loan?
5. Do you have Life Insurance Policy?	6. Do you use social networking site?
7. Can you drive vehicle?	8. Do you go to market as and when desire?
9. Do you withdraw money from ATM on your own?	10. Do you use internet/mobile banking service
11. Do you visit/consult doctor freely as and when desire?	

d) Women Empowerment (WEMP). This is the aggregate of the above three indices, ERA, EDM and EPDS, and is taken to mean the overall measure of women empowerment in the study areas. It has maximum value of 146 points and a minimum of 48 points.

The scores of each respondent in each of these indices are grouped into three categories as *low*, *medium* and *high* levels of empowerment using percentiles. Percentile is a number where a certain percentage of scores fall below that number. It is the relative standing in a set of data from the lowest value to the highest value. Meanwhile, Sudha (2006) measured the levels on the basis of average and standard deviation in which the range $\bar{X} \pm \sigma$ was used to determine the score as *low*, *medium* and *high*. In view of the variability of the field data, this study found that percentile is more suitable than the standard deviation range. Accordingly, the study adopted 30th and 70th Percentiles as cut-off for categorisation of individual scores. 30th Percentile means the value that up to 30% of the observations fall below this number, while 70th

Percentile indicate the value below which up to 70th of the observations fall. Consequently, all the observations are categorised into three groups as follows: 30th Percentile as *Low*; 30th – 70th Percentile as *Moderate*; and above 70th Percentile as *High*. The detailed measure for the levels of empowerment of the respondent using these percentiles is presented Table-5.

Table 1.10: Categorisation (Levels) of the Respondents on Empowerment Scores

ERA	EDM	EPDS	WEMP
Minimum: 13 Maximum: 52	Minimum: 24 Maximum: 120	Minimum: 11 Maximum: 22	Minimum: 48 Maximum: 194
30 th Percentile = 30 70 th Percentile = 36	30 th Percentile = 78 70 th Percentile = 90	30 th Percentile = 15 70 th Percentile = 16	30 th Percentile = 113 70 th Percentile = 141
≤ 30 Low	≤ 78 Low	≤ 15 Low	≤ 124 Low
30 - 36 Moderate	78 - 90 Moderate	15- 16 Moderate	124-141 Moderate
≥ 36 High	≥ 90 High	≥ 16 High	≥ 141 High

In addition, women empowerment index is also constructed from the data obtained from NFHS-4 for all states and UTs in India. The scores of different states are also grouped by using the 30th and 70th percentiles, while other measures like unemployment, work participation, labour force participation and per capita income are also grouped by the same method.

3. Measurement of Impact and Relationship

Firstly, to examine the relationship or impact of employment on women empowerment, the different parameters of empowerment and socio-economic conditions of the respondents are cross-tabulated with their employment status, and the significance of the relationship between these attributes are tested using Chi-squares statistic given by

$$\chi^2 = \sum \frac{(o_i - e_i)^2}{e_i} \quad \text{Eq (1.1)}$$

which follows Chi-square distribution where o_i and e_i are the observed and expected frequencies respectively. Secondly, to the cause-effect relationship or the significance of employment in determining the level of empowerment, the following dummy variable regression model was estimated for different indices of empowerment by OLS method:

$$E_i = \alpha + \beta Z_i + e_i \quad \text{Eq (1.2)}$$

Where

- E_i = The empowerment index.
- $Z_i = 0$, if the respondent is unemployed.
- $= 1$, if the respondent is employed.

Thirdly, to test the significance of difference between the scores rural and urban respondents on empowerment index, t-test for difference of means is adopted. Symbolically,

$$t = \frac{\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2}{\sqrt{S^2 \left(\frac{1}{n_1} + \frac{1}{n_2} \right)}}, \quad \text{Eq (1.3)}$$

which follows student's t-distribution with $n_1 + n_2 - 2$ degrees of freedom where \bar{X}_1 and \bar{X}_2 are the mean scores of rural and urban areas respectively, and $S^2 = \frac{\sum(X_{1i} - \bar{X}_1)^2 + \sum(X_{2i} - \bar{X}_2)^2}{n_1 + n_2 - 2}$.

In addition to the test of significance between rural and urban areas, the differences among the different employment categories (housewife, self-employed, government employees, others) were tested using one-way ANOVA technique. Under

the assumption of no difference among the groups the following statistic, which follow F-statistic with $(k-1)$, $(n-k)$ degrees of freedom was tested. i.e.

$$F = \frac{SST/(k-1)}{SSE/(n-k)} \sim F_{(k-1), (n-k)} \quad \text{Eq (1.4)}$$

Where SST is the sum of squares due to class (or class effects), SSE is the sum of squares errors, and k is the number of classes.

1.13. Demographic and Administrative Settings of the Study Area

This research attempts to examine the condition of women employment and empowerment and their relationship in the state of Mizoram taking Aizawl district as case. The state is one of the North-eastern states and lies between East longitude 92.15' to 93.29' and North Latitude 21.58 to 24.35' covering a total area of 21,081 square kilometres, and constitute about 0.64 percent of India's total area. The state with its capital in Aizawl is sandwiched between Bangladesh in the west and Myanmar in the east and south. It also shares borders with the three sisters' state of Manipur and Assam in the north and Tripura in the west. It has a long international boundary of 404 kilometres with Myanmar and 318 kilometres with Bangladesh occupying an area of strategic importance for border trade. Mizoram has moderate climate throughout the year, generally cool in summer and mildly cold in winter. During summer the temperature ranges between 20 to 30 degree centigrade and winter temperature ranges from 11 to 21 degree centigrade.

Mizoram has a population of 10.97 lakhs, and a population density of 52 persons per sq. km., and the sex ratio is 976, according to the 2011 Census. Mizoram

has the third highest total literacy rate of 91.33% next to Kerala and Lakshadweep and the second highest female literacy rate (89.27%) next to Kerala. The total number of households in the 704 villages and 23 notified towns is 2.22 lakhs. Tribal population dominates the state's population as ST population constitutes 94.43% while SC population is 0.11% only. Most of the people (more than 90%) follow Christianity. The state is divided into 8 administrative districts and 26 Rural Development (RD) Blocks. Recently, the state government has created 3 other districts, but the new districts are yet to be fully functional. Among the 8 districts, Aizawl district has the largest number of households (37.03% of the total number of households in Mizoram).

Aizawl district is divided into 5 RD blocks, namely Aibawk, Darlawn, Phullen, Thingsulthliah and Tlangnuam, and there are 108 villages excluding Aizawl city. There are 14 legislative assembly constituencies within the district. The capital city housed all important Government offices, State Assembly House and Civil Secretariat. As for connectivity Aizawl is connected by air and road transport with other states of India and has one airport located at Lengpui. According to 2011 census Aizawl district has a population of 4, 00,309. Female members account for half of the population and interestingly the female sex ratio is higher than male in the district. The literacy rate (97.89 %) in the district is much higher than the Mizoram literacy rate (91.33%). The Work Participation Rate (WPR) in the district is 43.63 % which is a little lower than the overall WPR of the state (44.36%). As for the distribution of female workers, the district has 36.1% female main workers, 56 % marginal workers and 58% non-workers. Among male workers 62.37% are main workers, 43.92% marginal and 41.93% non-workers respectively.

1.14. Scheme of Chapterisation

The study is organised in six chapters as follows:

- *Chapter 1 -Introduction.* It deals with introduction, conceptual framework, women unemployment in India, women empowerment parameter, condition of women's empowerment in India, status of women in Mizoram, Women economic participation in Mizoram, significance of the study, Statement of the problem, objectives, hypothesis, methodology, field setting, and organisation of the study.
- *Chapter 2 – Review of Literature.* It portrays all relevant literature related to employment and how it determines women's empowerment in different countries.
- *Chapter 3 – Scenario of Women Employment and Empowerment in Different States of India.* It examines the status of women employment and empowerment in different states of India to help better understand the current situation of women in the study area. It makes an outline of the existing situation of employment and empowerment of women in different states of India using available secondary data and their relationship examined using simple analytical tools.
- *Chapter 4 – General Conditions of Women Employment and Empowerment in Aizawl District, Mizoram.* This chapter presents the existing status of women employment and empowerment in the study areas using sample data collected.

- *Chapter 5 – An Analysis on the Empirical Relationship Between Employment and Women Empowerment.* This chapter examines the relationship between women employment and empowerment using several indicators based on the primary survey data of the study area during 2017-18. To chalk out more factual and conclusive result indices of women empowerment are constructed as per the methodology enumerated in chapter 1. The impact of these indices is examined using different statistical measures.

Chapter 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Women employment is an important indicator of development showing the proportion of the working population in an economy. Employment itself lifts women's self-esteem and status in society. However their economic and social well-being will not improve if they are engaged in low paying and low quality job. The National Commission for Women (1994) estimated that 94 percent of the total female workforce is found to be in the unorganised sector and only 6 percent work in the organised sector. Despite two decades of high economic growth and considerable effort made towards gender equality, women still face a lot of unfair treatment at workplace in the hands of their employer, there is still a significant gender inequality in terms of wages, job security etc. Gender gaps still exist at workplace and female work participation rate is among the lowest in the world. Occupational gender segregation also exist in large scale resulting in the under representation of women in the organised sector.

According to Youngs (2000) patriarchal practises established dominance of men in public sphere and restrict women's identity, roles and prime social influence to the private sphere. So, while globalisation is bringing increasing numbers of women into the workplace, gender inequalities see women enter the market place to meet demands for cheap, docile labour and to fill semiskilled and low level tasks in production process and other service sector. The strategy of allowing women into

paid employment, and segregating them from men and paying them less in terms of the kind of employment involved is only increasing gender inequality in workplace.

Basu, et al. (2001) attempted to assess the role of the public sector and voluntary organisations in the process of conducting economic development programmes for women in India. More specifically it analyses whether implementation of economic development programmes automatically improves the level of empowerment of women. The study undertook interview of 70 women beneficiaries of two economic development programmes of a government and non-government organisation based in South 24 Parganas district of West Bengal. The two economic development programmes selected for the survey were the credit programme (Jeevandeep Prokolpo) of the Youth Club (YC) for the non-government organisation (NGO) and The Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP) managed by the District Rural Development Agency (DRDA) for the government organisation (GO). A systematic sampling method was adopted for selecting the sample. Economic and social indicators were used to determine the impacts of the credit programme on economic empowerment of women. Level of income was used as economic indicator while social indicators consist of i) Business knowledge and established market link by women beneficiaries, ii) Mobility outside the home, iii) Participation in the intra-family decision making process. The case study also considered member accountability as a variable to judge the effectiveness of the development strategy to achieve its goal. Member accountability indicators consist of i) initial support with business management and associated skill, ii) role of organisation in loan sanction and associated formalities, and iii) post credit follow up

activities. Jeevandeep Prokolpo , a credit and savings programme of the YC promote savings habit and provide credit particularly to women members. It also helped its members with skill training and business knowledge, monitoring business situation of borrower through post credit follow up programmes. As for the IRDP, it provided loans through commercial banks to households that are officially identified to be below the poverty line to help them with purchase of assets that serves the basis for self-employment. The study shows that the savings and credit programme of the YC (NGO) helps their female borrowers to obtain employment more than the IRDP programme did. Results revealed that while 60% of all female borrowers in the NGO programmes were engaged in income earning business, only 15% women were found to be involved under the IRDP. Female borrowers from NGO were also recorded to be earning better than those from the GO. It was also shown that women under the NGO programme knew how to establish business links better than those under the GO programmes. Also women under the NGO were also found to be increasing their mobility outside their home as compared to those under the GO. The success of the NGO was attributed to the operational strategy and accountability of NGO staff. The participation rate in the decision making process of NGO women were found to be higher. Also at the same level of contribution, more NGO women share joint responsibility with other members of the family.

Parven, et al. (2005) in this study examined the performance of income generating activities supported by Rural Women Employment Creation Project (RWECP) in empowering women. Bangladesh is a country where millions are affected by vicious circle of poverty and women in rural areas are the worst victim.

Due to this condition the government has made poverty alleviation one of its primary concerns. In this regard government and non-governmental agencies are promoting several projects and activities for the economic advancement of rural women across the country. RWECP is one such government projects; it is the largest government project targeting poor women. Therefore this study aims to evaluate the extent of empowerment of women engaged in different activities supported by RWECP.

The study is mainly based on primary data. Primary information related to the various indicators of women empowerment was collected through questionnaire survey among the RWECP beneficiaries. Besides observation, semi-structured interview and interview of key informant, secondary data was also collected to supplement primary data. Out of the 12 thanas selected to implement this project on a phase basis, Dumuria thana was selected as the study area taking into consideration the activity types pursued by the project members which will help to identify the variation in the level of empowerment. A total of 6000 beneficiaries were selected from Dumuria and 80 women were taken as the sample respondents. A proportionate and stratified random sampling method was followed to select respondent from each activity. The activity types consist of cattle rearing, poultry, pisciculture, grocery, basket/rope making, leather goods making, vegetable /fish selling, sari /utensil selling, rice husking/muri making and others.

Three major indicators of empowerment like participation in household decision making, control over income and access to assets have been taken into consideration to evaluate overall empowerment situation. It was observed that after

becoming member of RWECP, women's earnings significantly enhanced their capability to express their opinion and make decision to meet personal needs, to contribute to buy households assets, availing treatment and recreational facilities independently. Comparing the respondent participation in household decision making before and after joining RWECP has shown that women have become bolder in the expression of their opinion and has become aware of their rights and share of contribution to the family income. However, on matters relating to marriage and education of children where decisions are taken jointly with husbands and other family members, women's participation level remain almost the same even after joining RWECP and being involved in economic activities.

When it comes to control over income, it was shown that women living with their husbands were less empowered. While widows and abandoned women have relatively better control over their earnings than women living with their husbands. In the case of widows and abandoned women generally there is no male member to control them. Eventually their involvement in economic activities raised their level of empowerment.

It was also revealed that religion, level of income, amount of savings and the attitude of husbands and other household members play an important role of determining ownership of assets by women. In spite of having personal income, women cannot possess an asset without the approval of their husbands or other family members. In this study it is found that women in grocery and leather goods making failed to achieve any asset of their own. Most of these women's earnings are fully

used for household consumption and they have no savings to buy any. In particular it has been observed that women involved in leather making activity are all Hindu. As per their tradition, these women cannot possess any assets. As a result they have the lowest score in empowerment compared to women of other ethnic group. Therefore, this study concludes that marital status and ethnic affiliation act as influential factors of women empowerment.

West (2006) explores the relationship between women empowerment and employment in India. For this study she used the 1998-1999 Demographic Health Survey (DHS) for India to empirically analyse the link between labour force participation and women's empowerment at the individual level. The sample covers 26 states and is nationally representative of about 90,000 ever married women aged 15-49 years. She uses four indicators to measure empowerment: decision making, freedom of movement, control over resources and views on violence against women. In analysing the four empowerment indicators she found three very different results. In the first case, she finds no relationship between employment status and the ability to make decision at home with regard to obtaining healthcare or visiting friends or relative.

For control over resources and freedom of movement, the relationship between employment status and empowerment is positive, although of different magnitudes. But for views on violence against women she finds that employment actually decreases the empowerment likelihood relative to not working at all. To summarise the general findings, the result of this study suggest that employment is

important to empowerment and that women who work have a greater likelihood of higher empowerment than those who do not work, but the strength of the relationship varies by empowerment indicator. The findings also reveal that women in certain occupations have a greater likelihood for empowerment and that various employment characteristics are associated with some of the indicators of empowerment.

Braunstein (2008) discuss the relationship between women's empowerment and employment and explored the condition under which trade and investment liberalisation result in women's empowerment. The paper explores the microeconomics dynamics of how increase in female employment affects women's autonomy using an intra-household bargaining model. Secondly it explores how trade and investment liberalisation affects women's empowerment. The intra-household bargaining model shows that working for a wage can have direct autonomy-enhancing effects via increasing women's bargaining power. When women's earning or wage employment increases, there are clear and direct positive impacts on women's autonomy and empowerment. Globalisation creates losers as well as winners. While globalisation in the form of trade and investment liberalisation introduces the prospect of lessening gender inequality by increasing the demand for women's labour, particularly in developing countries. If liberalisation increases pressure on public budgets or raise the bargaining power of firms relative to workers and the state, it can lower the supply of social protections and consequently weaken the link between employment and women empowerment. Therefore, the study concludes it is necessary to formulate liberalisation policy that will create employment opportunities for women and be complemented by institutions that will

simultaneously enhance the supply of social protections. Otherwise the potential empowerment effects of wages may well be offset by a growing gap between the need for and supply of social protections.

A study undertaken by Pankaj & Tankha (2010), examine the empowerment effects of the National Rural Employment Guarantee Scheme (NREGS) on women workers. The study is largely empirical, based on primary survey conducted in the four states of Bihar, Jharkhand, Rajasthan and Himachal Pradesh. The survey was conducted using a two-stage purposive and random sampling technique. In the first stage, states, districts and blocks were selected purposively and in the second stage, worksites and women workers were selected randomly. Focused group discussions and structured and non-structured interview were also used for the purpose. States with poor socio-economic conditions were selected, as researchers believed the empowerment effects of NREGS would be observed more sharply here. Further districts and blocks were selected based on the number of schedule caste and tribe in the population, overall and female literacy rate, agrarian conditions and overall implementation of the scheme in the district. The districts selected were Gaya in Bihar, Ranchi in Jharkhand, Dungarpur in Rajasthan and Kangra in Himachal Pradesh. From each district, three blocks were selected based on considerations like participation of women, the level of NREGS implementation and the socio-economic condition of the population.

The empowerment effect was examined both at the individual and community levels. At the individual level it was examined through i) income consumption effects

ii) intra-household effects (decision making roles) and iii) enhancement of choice and capability. At the community-level effects were assessed in terms of realisation of equal wages, increased participation in community development processes, and overall impact on gender relations.

The study revealed that paid work under NREGS has helped rural women in realising income-consumption effects through :i) monetised earnings and ii) better control over earnings because of monetised wages and account payment, leading to greater consumption effects. A women worker's earnings from NREGS constituted 14% of the total annual income of the household on average across the four districts. It was observed that the NREGS has helped to reduce rural women's economic dependence on other family members. Thus, paid employment under NREGS has enhanced both freedom and the choice to use earnings. The study also revealed that increased participation of women in gram sabha meetings was another positive development as it greatly increased their confidence level. The increased participation in the gram sabha, the increasing number of women speaking in the gram sabha, frequent interactions with government officials and access to banks and post office are all new development leading to greater empowerment of women. The most significant development towards empowerment was the practise of female mate system which reversed the traditional gender roles.

Rosa (2010), in this study attempt to measure the degree of empowerment achieved by employed women in various dimensions as personal, organisational, familial and societal. Her study was confined to the state of Kerala, and a district was

selected on a random basis from the north, south and central region of the state. The districts selected were Thiruvananthapuram, Thrissur and Kozhikode. Both primary and secondary data were used for the study. A stratified random sampling method was used for the study and a sample of 210 each was selected from each region and each sector of employment. The seven categories of employed women included in the sample were school teachers, college lecturer, bank employees, nurses, factory workers and self-employed business women. Each respondent were asked to answer a questionnaires consisting of 91 statements. To measure the degree of empowerment elements in an employed women five point Likert scale was used. The main tool used is Satisfaction Index. The Index was calculated for all the 91 statements and 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 study showed that employment leads to empowerment within the person and the family. Women gained empowerment at work place through their teamwork, leadership, communication and performance. It was also found that employed women generally keep themselves away from social organisations and associations because of double burden at home and workplace. It was also revealed that of the seven categories of employed women, a self-employed business woman has the highest empowerment indices. This confirmed the findings that 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. Workers in the unorganised sector and nurses in private hospitals and teachers working in unaided school were among the lowest paid salary and women in the coir co-operatives were getting an income below subsistence. In factories women were mostly employed in the lowest category, while all the supervisors, officers and managers in most organisations were mostly men. Nevertheless, analysis shows that women in all fields of employment exhibit an excellent performance and they were seen to be generally more qualified than what was required for their post.

Jahan (2010) in her study examined the various problems faced by women civil servants of Bangladesh working at the field level. The study concentrates on the nature and types of problems that women officials were facing, the causes and consequences of such problems. She used data collected through questionnaire survey, secondary sources, and in-depth interviews. Quantitative analysis was done using statistical tools such as SPSS. All respondents were women who belonged to the Bangladesh civil service between 30-35 years of age and had less than 5 years' experience. At the time the study was undertaken, Bangladesh had only 6.44 percent women occupying class1 position job as against 93.56 percent for men. The fact that men overwhelmingly outnumber women official was itself a big challenge for women.

Results of the study show that the women officials at the field level had to endure greater problems than their male counterpart when in the field than working in the headquarters. Insecurity, housing, family interference in the profession, unfriendly

work place and dual responsibility of job and household chores were the most common and serious problems cited. With the issue of housing, finding a safe and comfortable decent place to live was a big problem and about 84% of respondent said they had housing problem in the field. Another serious problem was the unfriendly workplace, as society is still not ready to accept a women officer as an office chief. They faced problems from male colleagues and subordinates who refused to cooperate or take orders from them. Negative attitude towards them from the community, colleagues and authorities were a big challenge they had to face. Society perceived women to be soft and not fit for taking up challenges. Their ability as civil servants was constantly put in question and they had to put extra effort to prove their competence. Male domination, patriarchal mentality and perceived lower social status of women were the reason behind most of the problem. Other problems were related to conservative view, lack of education among people and underdevelopment of the country.

Consequences of these problems were reduced performance, mental and physical stress, lack of concentration in work, problem in the family and disturbance in family life, negative image on women, negative effect on children, impaired career development and weakened initiative and innovativeness. It was found that support from family was very crucial for the career of women in Bangladesh. Strong support from family and community as a whole was necessary to overcome many of their problems at home and workplace.

Lalhriatpuii (2010) highlights the economic status of women in Mizoram and identifies factors determining Female Work Participation Rate (FWPR). The study attempt to analyse the female work participation in Mizoram with special reference to the Aizawl, Lunglei and Saiha districts. Based on secondary data from Census and NSS reports her findings reveal that female literacy, freedom to work, and positive attitudes of male towards work in the labour market are the best indicators of Female Work Participation Rate. Analysis of primary data shows that literacy has a strong influence on female work participation rate in all the three districts under study and Mizoram as a whole as there exist a high literacy rate.

Autonomy to take decisions also influence FWPR and it is found to be more significant for Aizawl district which support the argument that increased urbanisation and literacy may have made women more aware of their capabilities which are otherwise normally denied to them.

In a patriarchal society like Mizoram attitudes of male towards women's work play a significant role in women's entry and exit from workforce. It has been observed that with increased literacy, awareness and economic necessity men have shown a positive attitude towards women's work. The positive attitude of men is reflective of their understanding and assigning significance to women's work participation.

However, while findings from the analysis of the primary data suggest that higher literacy rate has raised the social status of women in the state; this has not made entry to the labour market any easier. Women particularly in rural areas tend to

shrink away from the labour market with increased level of education to avoid the probable decline in their status in the society. Therefore increased educational level of females and work participation rates do not rise proportionately.

Kabeer, et al. (2011) studied the impact of paid work on women's lives in Bangladesh. They use a combination of survey data and qualitative interviews to explore the impact of these changes on women's lives and to assess the extent to which these impacts can be considered empowered. They use various empowerment indicators like –control over income, mobility in the public domain, participation in public life, attitudes and perceptions to analyse the impact of paid work on women's life. The analysis suggests that women's empowerment is not a single, unified process unfolding in a linear fashion in the course of social change. It is multi stranded, uneven and frequently contradicting with each other. Their analysis also uncovered that there are other possible pathways of women's empowerment. These pathways are associated with three broad sets of resources in women's lives: material, cognitive and relational. But these pathways of change do not unfold in the same way for all women. It varies with age, marital status and household economic position.

Their study also revealed that access to paid work made a difference to women's lives, but its impact is strongest and most consistent among those who have formal employment. Paid work has cognitive and relational impact. Working women appeared to be confident and taking control of their own lives. They are able to meet not only their own and their family's needs, but also able to provide support for their ageing parents, ability they had previously been denied. They are also more likely to

be consulted by others and invited to attend rural committees and to know about labour laws. Education and TV has both cognitive and relational impacts. Education provides women with information about their rights, helps in household decision making, self-confidence in dealing with others and respect in the community. TV also provide information about the outside world which is beyond their experiences; teaching proper behaviour and home-making and also raising awareness about women's rights and the legal protections available. Support from family members, especially from male members and membership in NGO's has relational impact and greatly enhanced their public mobility and participation in politics.

Two conclusions drawn from this study are-firstly, empowerment brought by well-paid and protected work does not necessarily be restricted to economic change only, and there can be spill-over effects on other aspect of women's lives. The second conclusion is that to bring about sustainable and transformative change in women's lives there should be changes first in women consciousness and understanding, in their material security and well-being and in their capacity to negotiate and participate in existing and new relationships.

Sultana, et al. (2013) conducted a research to examine the role of employment in women empowerment in Khulna City of Bangladesh. Khulna city which lies to the south is backward and women employment rate is relatively low compared to other cities. And because of this the city was chosen for this study. Random sampling technique was used to collect data through questionnaire survey, interviews and focus groups from two groups of respondent consisting of 60 employed women (Treated

group) and another 60 women who were unemployed (Control group). A Cumulative Empowerment Index (CEI) was developed to have a picture about the status of women empowerment. And a multiple linear regression analysis was used to show the role of employment on women empowerment. The CEI was constructed by combining seven key empowerment indicators such as – contribution to household income, access to resources, ownership of assets, participation in household decision-making, perception on gender awareness, coping capacity to hold shocks and access to the political or development activities to get a complete idea of women empowerment.

The multiple linear regression models was used to estimate the effect of independent variables like education, age, household income, employment status on dependent variable which is women empowerment or CEI. The results showed that based on CEI score, employed women were more empowered than those unemployed. It also found that an employed woman had more capacity to face sudden household shocks. On the other hand the regression results showed that age, household income, educational qualification and occupational status had positive effect on CEI and was statistically significant. The most highlighted result was that the change in employment status caused a drastic change in CEI. This means that change in occupational status (from unemployed to employed) helped women to be more empowered. So, based on empirical result, it can be concluded that employment played a positive role for women to be empowered.

Gogoi and Sharma (2013), investigate the performance of SHGs in terms of employment and poverty alleviation. The study was confined at the Bajiagaon Development Block of Nagoan District of Assam. A total of 102 SHGs consisting of 56 females and 46 males groups were randomly selected for the study. Primary and secondary data were used for the study. Members in this study had varied occupation like agriculture, business, service, artisans and others. Members were assessed before and after joining the SHG. Findings revealed a significant improvement in all aspect of the study. There has been a substantial increase in the per capita income of the group members after joining the SHGs. The per capita income of above Rs 800 range rose significantly while those on the lower level showed a decline. It was found that SHG had a positive impact on employment creation. Employment opportunities increased so much that, those recorded as unemployed before SHG all got employment after joining SHG. Even those who used to be employed for few days were able to get employment opportunity for at least some days in a month. Studies have also revealed that through SHGs about 44% of its members had been able to create employment opportunities for their family members. As for the sustainability of employment, 71 percent said it was sustainable while 29% found it unsustainable. The study also made comparisons between male and female performance in terms of savings, repayment of loans, profit, systematic record keeping and attendance of SHG meetings. Results showed that performance of female SHG was far better than male SHG in almost all programme.

Hasan (2013) selected to study the impact of employment on women's empowerment among immigrant women in Bergen. The main objective of the study

was to analyse when employment empowers women, when it does not, and in what ways? Primary data were collected by interviewing thirteen women from seven countries who migrated to Norway for different reasons. The study compared the interview data in the light of household bargaining power by using qualitative analysis method. The three indicators of women's empowerment were-Participation in domestic decision making, access to and control over resources and mobility/freedom of movement. In the context of participation in domestic decision - making, the result of the study indicated a positive relationship between employment and participation in domestic decision-making. The result indicated that employment could not only increase women bargaining power directly by making them contributors to the common household budget, but it also helped develop power within, such as self-esteem and self-confidence and made them empowered. In the context of access to and control over resources, findings from the study indicated that employment had very little effect on control over resources. It depend more on other factors like total income of the individual and the household, the level of education and status in the society. As for the third indicator, findings indicate positive relationship between employment and mobility of movement. Through employment the subjects were able to integrate in the society but double burden of work and difference in cultural background limited their freedom to integrate. Finally the study concluded that the answer to the questions when employment empowers women, when it does not and in what ways depend on the context under which women exercise their power.

Raj (2014), in his paper discusses the various growth prospects and highlights the major issues that hinder these growth processes. She observes that in both social and economic environment, women are not treated on equal parameters with men regarding issues like property rights, employment opportunities, authority in the family, social and security aspects. According to her education and employment are the two basic tools which can change the economic and social status of females in the near future as well as over a long time. Female literacy and employment will add to the gross domestic product of the nation and raise the per capita income of the country. As women are more inclined towards achieving economic independence, they look for small business organisations to start it off where the male dominance is less. She stress that it is of utmost importance to tap the skills of these ambitious women and provide the required support so that their economic potential will be realised to increase the overall growth rate. She concludes that the civilization of the country will undergo a noteworthy positive change with educated and financially sound women folk.

United Nations Economics and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (ESCAP, 2013) in its publication addresses the economic aspect of gender mainstreaming with a particular focus on gender budgeting and women's economic participation in the public domain. Gender budgeting is a way for government to promote equality through fiscal policy and contributes to women's economic empowerment by addressing the issue of control and sharing resources by women and men. In terms of women's economic empowerment gender budgeting is beneficial in fostering women's participation in economic decision making, recognising unpaid

work, addressing income gaps, allocating resources that foster women's salaried and entrepreneurial work in supporting women's access to and control of resources.

India, Indonesia and the Philippines have embraced gender budgeting in their own way to empower its female population. In India gender budgeting takes two forms-the Gender Budget Statement and Gender Budgeting Cells located in government ministries and departments. The Gender Budget Statement was institutionalised in India in the 2005-2006 financial years. It indicates the quantity of public financial resources for which women and girls are the sole and partial beneficiaries. But allocating only 0.2 percent of the total union budget in 2013-14 for gender equality and women's empowerment does not reflect too well on the level of importance the issue has among policy makers.

Sadania (2016) explores the impact of women's work on empowerment in Egypt. This study aimed to shed more light on the relationship between type of work and type of empowerment. The analysis is based on a nationally representative household survey, the Egypt Labour Market Panel Survey (ELMPS) focusing on the 2006 and 2012 rounds covering 5,851 and 12,060 households respectively. The database contains detailed information on individuals' employment, socio-economic characteristics and women's status. The latter module provides evidence of women's bargaining power, asking women aged 15 and over about their participation in a variety of household decisions. The study focuses on the heterogeneous impact of women's work on their participation in household decisions, distinguishing between public work, outside work in the private sector and home-based work.

This study revealed that working outside the home has the greatest impact on women's empowerment. Employment in the public sector helps woman's autonomy in the personal decision-making sphere and in some child-related decisions. But she has lower probability of having the final say alone on decision regarding children's health than a non-working woman. It may be that less contact with children as a result of work outside home may foster the involvement of other household members in decision making. Employment in the private sector outside home has greater impact on decision making power and has higher probability of having the final say alone in decisions on children's health. But the work is least compatible with family life due to higher average work load, the location and rigidity of working hours. Engaging in home-based work, results in more inclusion in the management of the household and it does not enhance a woman's autonomy as the impact of work remains limited.

Bi (2016), in a case study research selected five economically empowered married women between the age group 30-50 years from the Sambalpur Motiharan area. In this research she attempts to portray the demographic employment profile of these five women and also study their educational background in relation to their economic opportunities. Her case study involves four Muslim women and one belonging to the OBC caste, all having educational qualification up to the higher secondary level. All these five women under the study are either self-employed or doing a petty job. But they are able to provide for their respective families and taking full responsibility in looking after the family. Her finding reveals that women are more empowered in the 21st century. As compared to the Vedic age, today women have the freedom to participate in the economic field and enjoy their economic rights.

Secondly, employment at any level and education both formal and informal are important for women empowerment as was seen from her case study. And lastly, providing employment opportunities is the pathway to empowering women in the family and society.

Lagare et al. (2016) examined the impact of SHGs on income, employment, investment and savings in south Konkan region. The study constituted 300 samples SHG members in 60 SHG's across the south Konkan region covering 6 tahsils in two districts Ratangiri and Sindhudurg. From each tahsils 10 SHGs were randomly selected out of which 5 members each were again selected randomly to collect information regarding their experience about SHGs. Primary data were collected through questionnaires and interviews of selected members. The sample SHG's were classified based on their nature of activities as farming, agro-processing and non-farming activities. The study revealed that there was an increase in income to the extent of 13.87 percent per member. This increase in income was 14.84 percent in farming, 12.13 percent in agro-processing and 14.63 percent in non-farming category. After joining the SHG about 73.02% more employment was generated showing positive impact on employment generation. Investment in different assets increased to the extent of 22.62 percent after participating in SHG and savings per member also increased by 27.84 percent. Thus results of the investigation revealed that there was substantial impact of SHGs on women empowerment.

Sarkar (2017) conducted a study to explore the correlation between literacy rate and gender ratio in West Bengal in 2011 and the role of employment in the

economic empowerment of women in West Bengal. He also analyse the socio-demographic co-variables of women employment and their extent of effect on women empowerment. His study is based entirely on secondary data collected from the India Census 2011 and the National Family Health Survey (NFHS-3) conducted during 2005-2006 from 29 states and Union Territories. And the study area covers 19 districts, 347 Community Development blocks, 909 towns and 40,203 villages of West Bengal. His observation shows that there is a fairly low and negative level Correlation, that is, $r = -0.16$ between the literacy rate and sex ratio in West Bengal.

However, this study observed that employment has a positive impact on women empowerment as it increases the active participation in the decision making process at home. The study also shows that 38.1 percent of women generally participated in household decision making, out of which rural women constitute 34.26 percent and 47.5 percent for urban women. The result also shows that Hindu women have higher participation rate in household decision making than Muslim women. This is because Hindu women are highly engaged in employment compared to Muslim women both in rural and urban areas of West Bengal. Thus, based on empirical result, the study concluded that employment has a positive effect on the empowerment of women in West Bengal.

Mattos and Dasgupta (2017) explored the role of a prominent Indian legislation-Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (MGNREGA) and its impact on women's employment and effect on gender relations. MGNREGA is one of the largest and most ambitious public works programmes in the

world. It legally entitles all rural adults 18 years and above to 100 days of work in public per household per year, at minimum wages. MGNREGA has been proved to be instrumental in ensuring paid employment for women in rural areas. Previous research and literature also confirms that paid employment is often positively related to bargaining power in the household and control over decision-making.

This study uses the Indian Human Development Survey (IHDS) data to investigate whether paid employment, in particular MGNREGA work, is positively linked to women's control over household resources and decision-making. The data consists of two rounds of nationally representative panel data one taken before MGNREGA in 2004-05 and the other in 2011-12 after the programme was implemented nationwide. The survey contains module which covers explicit measures of intra-household bargaining dynamics, including household decisions on expenditure, fertility and women's freedom of movement. The survey was restricted only to women who were married and living with their spouse in both rounds of the survey with a sample size of 15,618 women, and a total of 31,236 observations pooled across both survey years.

It was observed that MGNREGA provided the first paid work opportunity for many women and persuaded them to engage in work outside of the home for the first time. It also expanded opportunities for secondary employment and for combining unpaid family work with paid work. Various aspect of MGNREGA like work at government legislated minimum wages, work close to home, facility for child care at work site have all contributed to the programme's positive impact on women's

employment. Results also shows that woman who worked in the MGNREGA programme in 2011-12 were significantly more likely to have more control over household decisions than others. MGNREGA is therefore positively related to women's control over household resources and decision- making hence leading to empowerment. But this study also shows some doubt if MGNREGA itself is enough to create a case for breaking the cycle of disadvantage? It remain to be seen if the next generation of girls in the household will ever get a school education, given that education is one important factor of women empowerment. There have been mixed findings on girls taking care of younger siblings and leaving school, while others have established a positive relation between MGNREGA and children's education. It has been found that the relationship between the hours spent in school by the older girl child and the woman's days worked under MGNREGA is showing a declining impact.

Panhwar, et al. (2017) in their study of the impact of job on the social status of women in Pakistan conducted a survey on 100 employed and another 100 unemployed women selected randomly from the population living in the Hyderabad region. They were made to answer a questionnaire comprising of forty-two closed ended questions relating to jobs and its impact on women status. And the reliability of the questionnaire was found 0.989 using SPSS-22. The findings of the study revealed that the social status of women having job is higher than those of men and women having no job. Employed women enjoyed more rights and command more respect from parents, family members, relatives, friends and colleagues as compared to unemployed men and women in society.

It was also found that the social status of urban working women is higher and enjoyed more rights and freedom than rural women. They also revealed that employment has equipped women with financial independence, enabled them to play a leading role in the family and society and provided confidence to women to lead their daily life successfully and make life choices for themselves. It is also interesting to note that while society members, cultural values, religious practices and caste system of Pakistan discouraged employment of women, yet more respect is given to employed women than unemployed men and women.

Arora (2017) expressed his view that formalisation of India's job market is one of the biggest gifts our policy makers can possibly give to the Indian women. He highlighted the plight of Indian women with regard to unfair treatment given to them in terms of wages, lack of safe working conditions and social security benefits, segregation at workplace and discrimination from male employer and colleagues. He observes that jobs for Indian women, especially rural women remain primarily in the agriculture sector. The share of women in services and industry is less than 20%. This is confirmed by the International Labour Organisation study report that the participation of women in informal employment and non-standard forms of employment is higher than men in India. He also noted that nearly 100% of net job creation in India in the last two decades has happened in the informal sector in small and low productivity enterprises. And this sector is where majority of female labour force fit in, which require less education and skills. They have to cope with higher risks of discrimination as compared to their male colleagues. Their wages are not only below the minimum wage but less than their male counterparts and benefits like

maternity leave and other facilities are not accessible to her. He expresses that for women to be given the fair treatment they deserve, the government must create more formal sector employment opportunities with better wages. But large-scale job creation in the formal sector will need sustained reforms in labour laws and skilling ecosystems. Huge investments will be needed in up skilling and educating women and the girl child, financial inclusion of women, encouraging women entrepreneurs, strengthening legal provisions for safety and security of women. This process may be slow in coming and further political commitment may be required on the part of the policy makers. But he believe that increased availability of stable wage jobs for women will stop their socio-economic exploitation, improving their quality of life, enhancing their control over household decision making and enabling them to lead a life of dignity and keep them empowered.

Shelke, et al. (2017) conducted a study to find out the impact of women's self-help groups on employment and income in Marathwada region of Maharashtra. A multi stage sampling design was used in selecting the district, tehsils, village and SHG groups. Parbhani tehsil was selected purposively for this study for having the largest agriculture base women enterprises in the district. For the purpose of the study 7 buffalo and 7 goat rearing enterprise self-help groups were picked randomly. The cross sectional data was collected from all members of the group, 70 members from buffalo SHG and 80 members from goat SHG, a total of 150 women members altogether. The data collected relates to socio-economic characteristics, income, employment, market margin, constraints and suggestion of women in the SHG.

In this study the economic impact of SHG on its members before and after joining SHG was analysed by taking the variables like income, employment, asset, saving, borrowing and consumption to determine the economic status of these members. It was observed that there were significant changes in women's economic condition before and after joining SHG. Before SHG activity was introduced agriculture labour provide maximum employment. But this was all changed with the introduction of SHG projects. There was a tremendous increase in employment after joining the SHG activity. For buffalo SHG, employment increased by 224.87 percent and 80.48 percent increase for goat SHG. Agriculture labour and non-agriculture labour employment decreased by 26.79 and 20.83 respectively. The percentage increase in total income was 124.11 percent, whereas agriculture income increased by only 20.10 percent. With regard to asset creation high asset category increased from 20 percent to 82.50 percent after providing micro finance in goat SHG, but there were subsequent decrease for medium and low asset category. Savings jumped to 81.25 percent from 17.5 percent .With respect to borrowing, high percentage borrowing category decreased whereas it increased significantly for low category. The consumption level increased to 73.75 percent from 28.75 percent after providing microfinance in the SHG for high consumption category. Results of the study reveal that SHG activity definitely has a positive impact on employment because it provides year round employment to its members by taking income generating activities and improves their economic conditions and standard of living.

Lalhmingsangi (2018), attempt to study the social impact of microfinance through Self Help Group (SHG) among women SHG members in Aizawl district. The

study area consist of the five Rural Development Blocks of Aizawl district - Tlangnuam block, Thingsul block, Phullen block, Darlawn block and Aibawk block. The study mainly focuses on the change in the empowerment level of women SHG members after joining SHGs. For this purpose a comparison was made of member women's status before and after joining SHGs and z-test was employed to analyse the pre and post situation of the SHG members. Both primary and secondary data were used for the study and a multistage sampling method was used for the selection of the sample. The parameters used for measuring the social impact of microfinance programme were self-confidence level, decision making ability, social awareness and participation.

Empirical findings show that increased participation in the SHG has resulted in the overall social empowerment of the SHG members. The study revealed that after micro finance intervention there was significant improvement in confidence level of members dealing with health and financial problems, meeting officials and voicing their opinion in public. The physical mobility of members not only improved but they were found to be bolder in facing new challenge. Studies also revealed that members gained more respect and authority in their household as well as society as a result of earning more income.

When it comes to decision making ability the percentage of members who make decision on household savings were found to increase tremendously from 21.6 percent to 31.8 percent after joining SHG. Just as well members who take decision freely on use of loans increased by 10 percent. Members capable of taking all

decision for their children's education also increased from 29.7 percent to 39.2 percent. Similarly, members capable of taking decision to solve family problems also greatly increased after microfinance intervention.

Findings also show that there was great improvement in the awareness level of social issues by SHG members. Membership in social organisation like MHIP, an apex women organisation in the state increased from 79.5 percent to 82.6 percent after joining SHG. The number of members who participated in social/village meetings improved greatly at all level, from those who never participated to who always participated. The number of members who held position in local bodies was also found to increase by 4 percent after joining SHG. The study concluded that microfinance product and services through SHG have an empowering impact on its members.

Vignoli, et al. (2018), conducted a study to deepen understanding of the relationship between women's employment and marital stability using Generation and Gender Survey (GGS) data for Germany, Hungary, Italy and Poland. They adopted analytical strategy that allows them to account for selection and anticipation mechanisms, that is, they estimate marital disruption and employment jointly and monitor the timing of divorce after entering employment.

In light of the trend of high women labour force participation and high marital dissolution rate, social observers have been interested to study the impact of women's employment on divorce. Empirical findings show mixed result. The study revealed that women's employment is less likely to be linked to divorce in countries

with easier access to divorce and in countries with more generous financial support for families and single mothers, which in turn makes women less reliant on the job market. In this particular study it has been found that women's employment has a strong positive impact on marital disruption in Italy and Poland and no effect in Germany and Hungary. In addition, the study also revealed that women anticipatory employment adjustments are country specific.

While several findings of the reviews given above concluded that paid employment is empowering and liberating for women in rural and urban areas there are studies that argue paid work alone will not bring empowerment to women. Employment makes a person aware and knowledgeable. It makes one confident in mastering the job situation and increases her competence (Hasan 2013). Several studies carried out in South East Asia revealed the positive impact of employment on women empowerment. Studies found that employment increased the percentage of women taking active part in household decision-making both in rural and urban areas. Sarkar (2017) discovered that Hindu women had higher participation rate in household decision making than Muslim women because Hindu women were found to be more highly employed than Muslim women. The intra-household bargaining model also showed that wage employment had a direct positive impact on women's autonomy and empowerment (Braunstein 2008) meaning that women gained more bargaining power in the household and gained more control over decision-making. It is also observed that employed women had more capacity to face sudden household shocks than unemployed women. Sultana, et. al (2013) found that the change in

occupational status from unemployed to employed caused a drastic change in the Cumulative Empowerment Index (CEI) and helped women to be more empowered.

Self Help Groups (SHGs) were also found to have a positive impact on employment and empowerment in India. Lagare et al. (2016) revealed that there were increase in income, investment and savings per member after joining the SHG. It was also found that the project itself helped to generate 73 percent more employment opportunities for the locals. It was also observed that there were significant changes in women's economic condition after joining the SHG activity. Agriculture labour which used to provide the maximum form of employment was replaced by other income generating activities. Assets creation increased, borrowings decreased, savings and consumption jumped tremendously to a high level, so was the employment level which improved the economic condition and standard of living (Shelke, et al., 2017). Results from another study (Gogoi and Sharma 2013) also show that SHG helped to increase the per capita income of its member to a substantial amount. Besides providing employment to all its members, 44 percent of its members were able to create additional employment opportunities to their family members, becoming an agent of empowerment in return. Performances of female SHG were far better than male SHG in almost all programmes. From all this findings it can be concluded that SHG activity definitely had a positive impact on employment and empowerment.

The impact of National Rural Employment Guarantee scheme (NREGS) and the Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (MGNREGA) on employment and empowerment cannot be overlooked. A study undertaken on the four economically poor states of India (Pankaj and Tankha, 2010) to examine the

empowerment effect of NREGS on women workers revealed that after joining NREGS, rural women's economic dependence on male family members for meeting expenditure related to personal needs was reduced. The paid employment under NREGS had enhanced their freedom to use their earnings on themselves. Paid employment also helped them to gain self-confidence and made them bolder in the expression of their opinion. They gained confidence to attend and speak in gram sabha and made frequent interactions with government officials. Opening bank accounts and access to post office were all new development leading towards greater empowerment of women. But the most significant development towards empowerment was the practise of female mate system, which reversed the traditional gender roles. As for the MGNREGA it provided the first paid work opportunity for many women and encouraged them to engage in work outside home for the first time. Results also show that women who worked in the MGNREGA were likely to have more control over household resources and decision-making resulting in increased empowerment. But the downside of MGNREGA was the number of young girls leaving school to take care of younger siblings while the mother was out at work. It remains to be seen if the next generation of girls will ever get a school education. Mattos and Dasgupta (2017) revealed that there were significant increases in women's earning after joining RWECP, enabling them to meet all their personal needs including their medical and recreational expenses and also contributed to buy households assets. Joining the RWECP have transformed women to become bolder in expressing their opinion and had become aware of their rights and share of contribution to the family. However, when it comes to possessing an asset they still

need the approval of their husband and other members of the family (Parven et al 2005).

A study on the impact of job on social status of women also revealed that employed women enjoyed more rights and command more respect from family members and members of the public as compared to unemployed men and women. Employed women were observed to be more confident and in a position to make life choices for themselves. In a conservative Muslim society where women employment is vehemently discouraged, the positive impact of employment is evident from the level of respect given to employed women over unemployed men and women (Panhwar, et al., 2017).

While paid work itself enhances empowerment some findings concluded that the level of empowerment differs with the level of work done. Employment status and empowerment can be of varying magnitudes. Women in certain occupations have greater likelihood for empowerment than others depending on their association with the empowerment indicator (West, 2006). It was found that women working in urban areas enjoyed more freedom and rights than women working in rural areas. Among Middle East countries women those working outside home in public sector have greater autonomy and were more empowered than women employed in the private sector outside home and women engaged in home-based work (Sadania 2016). Studies also revealed that paid work made a difference in women's lives and formal employment has the strongest and most consistent impact on women's lives. They appeared to be confident and taking control of their own life (Kabeer, et al., 2011). A study on women in south India supported that empowerment was not related to

income alone. This was confirmed by the fact that Bank employees with the highest income among the study group scored the lowest in the empowerment indices while a self-employed business woman had the highest empowerment indices (Rosa 2010).

While employment provides pathways for empowerment, marital status, cultural practices or ethnic affiliation can act as an influential factor of women disempowerment. Studies have shown that Hindu women working in the leather making factory were found to own no asset at all. Apart from using all their earnings for household consumption, as per their tradition these women were not allowed to possess any asset. As a result they had no ownership of asset and scored the lowest in the empowerment compared to other ethnic group. When it comes to income, studies revealed that women living with their husbands were less empowered than widows and abandoned women who have no male member to control them (Parven et., al 2005). In examining the relationship between women's employment and marital status, result show that in countries where government benefits is easily accessible for single mother, employment is less likely to be linked to divorce. But it may be the other way round for countries having no welfare payment scheme, in such places women anticipatory employment adjustment may be very high to compensate for it (Vignoli, et al., 2018).

Chapter 3

SCENARIO OF WOMEN EMPLOYMENT AND EMPOWERMENT IN DIFFERENT STATES OF INDIA

3.1. Introduction

Empowerment of women has not only become a global issue in determining the status of women, but economic empowerment of women has been regarded as a sine-qua-none of progress and development for a country (Sathiabama, 2010). Therefore it has become a subject of paramount importance for policy makers and development planners the world over including India. Women empowerment and economic development are closely related: in one direction, development alone can play a major role in driving down inequality between men and women: in the other direction, empowering women may benefit development (Duflo, 2012). If women are empowered economically, culturally and socially it can be expected that the development process of a country will be accelerated within a short period of time (Sultana and Hossen, 2013).

India is among the few developing countries where gender equality and improvement in the status of women is the central goals of development and social policy till date. Every Five Year Plan since the early 1950s has certain policies which specially aimed at increasing women's welfare. The Sixth Five Year Plan (1980-85) may be taken as landmark for the cause of women as the concept of 'women and development' was introduced for the first time in this plan (Kaur, 2018). Taken women empowerment as the central theme the vision of the 12th Plan stated 'empowered women living with dignity and contributing as equal partners in

development in an environment free from violence and discrimination’ (GOI, 2011). The National Policy for Empowerment of Women was declared by Government of India in 2001 to eliminate all types of discrimination against women and to ensure justice, besides empowering women both socially and economically (PIB, 2014). Under this Policy, the Government of India set up National Mission for Empowerment of Women in 2010 with the objective of convergence of schemes/programmes of different Ministries/Departments of Government of India as well as State Governments/UT Administrations.

Despite all these efforts shown by the government and its agencies, the work participation rates of women has declined rather sharply for all age groups for the past 35 years, leading to the conclusion that women are largely being excluded from employment in India (Rosa, 2010). India is the third countries among the G-20 nations in terms of women empowerment and employment next only to Pakistan and Saudi Arabia. The World Economic Forum’s *Global Gender Report 2015* ranked India at 139 among 145 countries on the Economic participation and opportunity sub index and in the rankings by indicator, India’s rank in Female Labour Force Participation Rate is 136 among 145 countries (Labour Bureau 2015-16). Given all these, it is clear that there is a long way to go for India to achieve the vision of having empowered women and inclusive development.

Against this background and in view of the objectives of this study, it is our interest to examine the status of women employment and empowerment in different states of India to enable better understanding of current situation of women employment and empowerment of the study area. Accordingly, this chapter will make

an outline of the existing situation of employment and empowerment of women in different states of India using available secondary data, and their relationship will also be examined using simple analytical tools. However, the challenge that comes up in studying 'women empowerment' is the problem of measuring the level of empowerment as it is multidimensional concept with wide variety of parameters. There is hardly any consensus on its measurement and a single empowerment indicator is certainly not appropriate for every economy since empowerment is influenced by various socio-econ-cultural factors that are not unique to every community (Toufique, 2016). Women empowerment is a very complex and multi-dimensional concept, conducted of many aspects of life, including social status, financial situation, family relations, emotional and physical health conditions in different communities (Raudeliuniene, *et al.*, 2014).

Considering the limited availability of official data pertaining to 'women empowerment' it is decided to adopt the empowerment data used in the National Family Health Survey 4 (NFHS 4), 2015-16, which has 15 parameters ranging from asset ownership to physical health and hygiene. At the same time, employment data are obtained from Labour Bureau, National Sample Survey (NSS) and Population Censuses. The employment variables used in this chapter are (i) work participation rate, (ii) labour force participation, and (iii) employment or unemployment by usual principal status (us).

3.2. Female Work Participation in India

There are interrelated measure of work participation frequently used in the official purposes in India, namely Work Participation Rate (WPR) and Labour Force Participation Rate (LFPR). WPR is defined as the workers population as a ratio of total population aged 15 years and above. At the same time, the LFPR shows the proportion of a country's working-age population that engages actively in the labour market, either by working or looking for work. It is determined by keeping in view the participation of the workforce in the economic activities as per the National Sample Survey Organisation's (NSSO) definitions of usual principal status (ps) and usual status (ps+ss). The activity status on which a person spent relatively long time (i.e. major time criterion) during the last 365 days preceding the date of survey is considered as the usual principal activity status (ps) of a person, while workers who perform some work activity either in the principal status or in the subsidiary status for 30 days or more is considered as worker according to subsidiary status (ss). Thus, a person who is not a worker in the principal status is considered as worker according to usual status (ps+ss). Generally, there is a slight difference between WPR and LFPR due to differences in its methods of measurement. Officially, WPR is mostly calculated on the basis of Census data, while LFPR is based on the several NSS Rounds on Employment and Unemployment in India. In the absence of universally accepted data representing women employment among the states of India, this study adopted female WPR and female LFPR as indicators of women employment in India.

Firstly, the trends Work Participation Rate (WPR) as observed in several Censuses in India is presented in Table 3.1. The total WPR is observed to remain

more or less stable throughout the five census period from 1971 to 2011 and shows a gradual increase from 33.08% in 1971 to 39.80% in 2011.

Table 3.1-Work Participation Rate (WPR) by sex in India during 1971-2011

Census year	Percent		
	Total	Males	Females
1971	33.08	52.61	12.11
1981	36.70	52.62	19.67
1991	37.50	51.61	22.27
2001	39.10	51.68	25.63
2011	39.80	53.30	25.50

Source-Statistical Profile on Women Labour 2012-13, Labour Bureau, Govt. of India.

At the same time, Table 3.1 shows a disproportionate WPR figures over the five census period for males and females indicating the vast gender difference prevailing in the country. As for the gender wise distribution, there are huge variations between male and female WPR for all the given years. While male WPR (MWPR) remained stable between 51% and 53% since 1971, female WPR (FWPR) varies between 12% and 25.63% only over the years. The figure in the table indicates an increasing female participation rate till 2001. However, in 2011 it dropped slightly from 25.63 to 25.5 percent while male participation increases to 53.3% from 51.68%.

Secondly, the trends of WPR in India as observed in the different rounds of NSS Rounds conducted by NSSO, Ministry of Statistics, Government of India is presented in Table 3.2. There is a slight difference between the WPR presented in Table 3.1 and Table 3.2 because of the differences in reference year and methodology of estimation and data collection. In spite of this, the two tables are showing more or less similar patterns, while Table 3.2 give separate estimates for rural and urban areas.

Table 3.2- Urban and Rural Work Participation Rates(WPR): Male & Female

NSS rounds /year	FWPR			MWPR		
	Urban	Rural	All	Urban	Rural	All
43rd (1987-88)	15.2	32.3	23.8	50.6	53.9	52.3
50th (1993-94)	15.5	32.8	24.2	52.1	55.3	53.7
55th(1999-00)	13.9	29.9	21.9	51.8	53.1	52.5
61st(2004-05)	16.6	32.7	24.7	54.9	54.6	54.8
66th(2009-10)	13.8	26.1	20.0	54.3	54.7	54.5
68th(2011-12)	14.7	24.8	19.8	54.6	54.3	54.5

Source- Employment and Unemployment surveys of NSS

It is observed from Table 3.2 that there has been a declining trend on FWPR, while MWPR is showing a slight increase over the years. During the 2009-10, only 13.8% urban females participated while 54.3% participated for urban male. The gap in female employment between rural and urban areas is also quite pronounced. The participation of rural female is significantly higher than urban female. The declining FWPR is accounted for by the fast decline in the FWPR in rural areas.

Female work participation in rural areas has shown declining trend during the 25 years period from 32.3% in 1987-88 to 24.8% in 2011-12, while the urban work participation has also declined from 15.2% to 14.7% during the same period. So, the rate of decline in women work participation in rural areas is much higher than that of urban work participation. At the same time, male work participation have shown increasing trend over the years both in rural and urban areas. There has been consistent decrease in FWPR in rural areas, while urban work participation remains more or less stable. It may be argued that the economic growth of the country especially after economic reform in 1991 does not translate into more participation of women in various economic activities.

To have better outlook on the scenario of women employment in India, Table 3.3 represents the broad sectorial classification of employment for urban and rural females. It is observed that agriculture remain to be the main providers of women employment in rural areas which accounted for more than 75% of the women work force throughout the years from 1987-88 to 2011-12, while services have become the main provider of employment in urban areas which accounted for 55.1% of the women work force.

Table 3.3 clearly reveals that there was no clear structural change in the employment in rural areas till 2009-10 as around 80% of them work in agriculture and allied. However, there was sharp decline in the employment in agriculture from 79.4% in 2009-10 to 74.9% in 2011-12, and the decline is accounted for by the increasing share of manufacturing from 7.5% to 16.7% respectively. Meanwhile, the share of agriculture in urban areas has also declined from 29.4% 1987-88 to 10.9% in 2011-12. To accommodate the declining employment of women in agriculture in urban areas, the share of manufacturing has increased from 27.9% in 2009-10 to 44% in 2011-12, while that of services has increased from 39.3% to 55.1%. Thus, there is significant movement of female workers from agriculture sector to manufacturing and service sectors in urban areas, while agriculture remains the main employment sources in rural areas though it recorded substantial decline in recent years.

Table 3.3-Sector wise Female Employment Distribution in India

Round/year	Rural			Urban		
	Agri.	Manufacturing	services	Agri.	manufacturing	services
43rd (1987-88)	84.70	6.90	3.70	29.40	27.00	27.80
50th (1993-94)	86.20	7.00	4.00	24.70	24.10	35.00
55th (1999-00)	85.40	7.60	4.30	17.70	24.00	34.20
61st (2004-05)	83.30	8.40	4.60	18.10	28.20	35.90
66th (2009-10)	79.40	7.50	5.70	13.90	27.90	39.30
68th (2011-12)	74.90	16.70	8.30	10.90	44.00	55.10

Source: NSSO, *Employment and Unemployment surveys*, 2011-2012

The tables displays the situation of employment and work participation for the entire country (i.e. India), without making comparative study on the state wise performance. So, analysis of the work participations across the states may give better understanding on the scenario of female work participation or labour force participation in India. FWPR in different states obtained from Population Census 2011, and Female Labour Force Participation Rate (FLPR) per 1000 persons of aged 15 years and above for each State and Union Territories are presented in Table 3.4.

Table 3.4 reveals that Himachal Pradesh has the highest FWPR at 44.8% among the states of India followed by Nagaland (44.7%). Delhi scored the lowest (10.6%) followed by Lakshadweep (11%). Secondly, FWPR is observed to be higher than national average in 17 states, of which Chhattisgarh, Himachal Pradesh, Nagaland and Sikkim have relatively higher ratio. Thirdly, the FWPR is shown to be above the national average in most NE States with the exception of Assam (22.5%) and Tripura (23.6%).

Table 3.4: Female Work Participation Rate (FWPR) and Female Labour Force Participation Rate (FLPR) according to Usual Principal Status Approach (ps)

Sl. No	State/UT	FWPR (2011) - percent	FLPR (2015-16) - per 1000
1	Andaman & Nicobar Island	17.8	347
2	Andhra Pradesh	36.2	466
3	Arunachal Pradesh	35.4	370
4	Assam	22.5	204
5	Bihar	19.1	142
6	Chandigarh	16.0	82
7	Chhattisgarh	39.7	543
8	Dadra & Nagar Haveli	25.3	174
9	Daman & Diu	14.9	151
10	Delhi	10.6	122
11	Goa	21.9	246
12	Gujarat	23.4	192
13	Haryana	17.8	145
14	Himachal Pradesh	44.8	170
15	Jammu & Kashmir	19.1	105
16	Jharkhand	29.1	204
17	Karnataka	31.9	327
18	Kerala	18.2	308
19	Lakshadweep	11.0	169
20	Madhya Pradesh	32.6	174
21	Maharashtra	31.1	330
22	Manipur	38.6	304
23	Meghalaya	32.7	467
24	Mizoram	36.2	540
25	Nagaland	44.7	536
26	Odisha	27.2	186
27	Puducherry	17.6	304
28	Punjab	13.9	111
29	Rajasthan	35.1	215
30	Sikkim	39.6	328
31	Tamil Nadu	31.8	392
32	Telangana	---	440
33	Tripura	23.6	314
34	Uttar Pradesh	16.8	112
35	Uttarakhand	26.7	195
36	West Bengal	18.1	188
	All India	26.3	237

Source: Population Census, 2011 & Labour Bureau, 2015-16

In Table 3.4 one can also see the vast disparities in FLPR among the states in India. Chhattisgarh recorded the highest female FLPR at 543 followed closely by Mizoram and Nagaland at 540 and 536 respectively. At the other extreme Jammu &

Kashmir recorded the lowest at 105 followed closely by Punjab and Uttar Pradesh. With the exception of Assam, the female LFPR is higher than the national average in all other North Eastern States.

3.3. Women Unemployment

In fact, those female members who have substantial contribution to the family income are believed to have more say in the family decision, command over assets, etc. and are more empowered than their counterpart unemployed members. This hypothesis can be interpreted as the impact of employment on empowerment in the family. Thus, it is considered worthwhile to examine the incidence of unemployment of women in different states. Table 3.5 presents the rate of unemployment in different states of India in two reference years as 2013-14 and 2015-16 obtained from Labour Bureau. To simplify the discussion, UTs are also interpreted here as states.

Firstly, Table 3.5 clearly reveals the significance of gender gap in employment across the states in India. The rates of women unemployment are found to be substantially higher than their male counterpart in all states, except for two states Chhattisgarh and Maharashtra where the two are almost equal. Thus, it can be concluded that there is wide gender gap in the employment profiles of all states in favour of men. Secondly, there are 7 states which show excessively high rate of women unemployment of more than 20% in 2015-16 such as J&K, Kerala, Rajasthan, Sikkim, Tripura, Uttar Pradesh, and Andaman & Nicobar Island. At the same time, there are 5 states which have relatively lower rate of women unemployment of less

than 5%. They are Andhra Pradesh, Chandigarh, Gujarat, Karnataka, Maharashtra, Mizoram, Telangana, and Chhattisgarh.

Table 3.5: Unemployment rate (%) for persons aged 15 years & above in different states according to usual principal status (ps)

Sl. No	State	2013-14		2015-16	
		Male	Female	Male	Female
1	Andhra Pradesh	3.0	4.3	3.7	4.2
2	Arunachal	12.3	16.4	8.1	10.7
3	Assam	4.3	14.9	4.1	14.5
4	Bihar	6.1	11.9	5.7	7.9
5	Chhattisgarh	3.6	5.2	1.9	1.8
6	Delhi	4.0	13.8	2.6	8.3
7	Goa	7.9	18.4	6.9	17.2
8	Gujarat	1.0	1.8	0.9	1.1
9	Haryana	4.3	8.0	3.9	9.3
10	Himachal Pradesh	6.9	8.5	9.0	17.4
11	Jammu& Kashmir	8.0	24.2	4.4	26.4
12	Jharkhand	6.6	12.0	6.5	12.7
13	Karnataka	1.5	2.8	1.3	2.0
14	Kerala	4.7	27.0	4.1	30.0
15	Madhya Pradesh	2.9	2.9	3.4	8.5
16	Maharashtra	2.7	3.0	2.0	2.2
17	Manipur	6.9	10.0	5.5	6.1
18	Meghalaya	3.4	7.1	2.5	8.7
19	Mizoram	3.4	4.4	2.7	3.3
20	Nagaland	7.8	13.0	8.4	8.6
21	Odhis	5.0	10.0	3.6	11.6
22	Punjab	4.0	19.0	4.0	20.1
23	Rajasthan	5.0	12.2	5.7	12.4
24	Sikkim	8.7	34.4	10.7	37.4
25	Tamil Nadu	2.8	5.6	3.1	6.3
26	Telangana	2.3	4.8	1.8	4.4
27	Tripura	6.7	29.4	7.8	49.8
28	Uttarakhand	6.5	13.2	6.0	11.3
29	Uttar Pradesh	5.4	19.5	5.7	20.9
30	West Bengal	4.4	9.7	3.8	10.1
31	A&N Islands	9.8	26.8	5.0	32.9
32	Chandigarh	3.2	0.6	3.6	1.9
33	Dadra& Nagar Haveli	1.3	23.9	1.9	7.3
34	Daman & Diu	5.5	42.9	0.0	1.8
35	Lakshadweep	7.3	26.3	16.7	14.0
36	Puducherry	9.1	8.5	2.5	10.6
	All India	4.1	7.7	4.0	8.7

Source- Labour Bureau 2013-14 , 2015-16

Thirdly, some states have recorded significant increase in the rate of unemployment by more than 2% in a span of two years only, i.e. between 2013-14 and 2015-16. They are Himachal Pradesh, J&K, Kerala, Madhya Pradesh, Sikkim, Tripura, Andaman & Nicobar Island, and Puducherry. Meanwhile, some states have recorded a decrease by more than 2% during this period such as Bihar, Delhi, Manipur, Nagaland, Uttarakhand, Dadra Nagar & Haveli , Chhattisgarh, Daman & Diu, and Lakshadweep. This observation reveals the volatility of women employment or unemployment in different states of India. Thus, one can conclude that women unemployment is subject to substantial change with time and methodology of estimation.

3.4. Women Empowerment Scenario in India

Empowerment is an abstract concept capable of being interpreted in many ways. According to Jo Rowlands (1998), 'Empowerment' is a complex phenomenon, which took different forms in different spaces of women's life. They cannot be assessed with single dimensions rather it needs a multidimensional assessment in term of various components of women's lives like employment, education, health and social status (Shettar, 2015).

In the absence of universally acceptable standard measurement, this study adopts the parameters of female empowerment adopted by the Ministry of Health and Family Welfare, Government of India in the National Family Health Survey 4 (NFHS-4) during 2015-16. These parameters are broadly divided into three major categories, namely empowerment within the family (EWF), personal development

and asset ownership (PDA), personal health and hygiene (PHH); and they are presented in Table 3.6, Table 3.7 and Table 3.8 respectively.

Table 3.6: Empowerment Within the Family (EWF)

SN.	States/UTs	Percent			
		Code 101	Code 102	Code 103	Code 104
1	A&N Islands	92.6	21	18.3	3.2
2	Andhra Pradesh	79.9	42.1	43.2	4.8
3	Arunachal Pradesh	89.1	17.1	30.7	1.5
4	Assam	87.4	17	24.5	2.1
5	Bihar	75.2	12.5	43.2	4.8
6	Chandigarh	96.6	32.6	22.5	3.5
7	Chhattisgarh	90.5	36.8	36.7	4.9
8	Dadra & Nagar Haveli	78.5	19.1	33.2	4.7
9	Daman & Diu	86.7	19.5	26.6	6.7
10	Delhi	73.8	21	26.8	3.4
11	Goa	93.8	23.6	12.9	1.6
12	Gujarat	85.4	30.2	20.1	1.8
13	Haryana	76.7	17.6	32	4.9
14	Himachal Pradesh	90.8	17	5.9	1.5
15	Jammu & Kashmir	84	12.4	9.4	1.3
16	Jharkhand	86.6	24.8	34	2.8
17	Karnataka	80.4	29.1	20.5	6.5
18	Kerala	92.1	20.4	14.3	1.2
19	Lakshadweep	80.4	21.7	6	0
20	Madhya Pradesh	82.8	29.9	33	3.3
21	Maharashtra	89.3	28.9	21.4	2.9
22	Manipur	96.2	40.9	53.1	3.4
23	Meghalaya	91.4	35.9	28.7	0.4
24	Mizoram	96	29.3	17	2.1
25	Nagaland	97.4	22.3	12.7	1.5
26	Odisha	81.8	22.5	35.2	3.2
27	Puducherry	85.1	21.2	34.5	4.6
28	Punjab	90.2	18.5	20.5	2.3
29	Rajasthan	81.7	18.6	25.1	1.4
30	Sikkim	95.3	19.9	2.6	0.4
31	Tamil Nadu	84	30.5	40.6	6.2
32	Telangana	81.1	45.2	43	5.9
33	Tripura	91.7	26.3	27.9	2.2
34	Uttar Pradesh	81.7	16.6	36.7	4.3
35	Uttarakhand	89.8	15.5	12.7	1.4
36	West Bengal	89.9	22.8	32.8	5
	All India	84	24.6	28.8	3.3

Source: NFHS 4 (2015-16)

Codes: 101-Particpate in HH Decision Making; 102-Work paid in cash; 103-Ever experienced spousal violence; and 104-Ever experienced violence during pregnancy

Table 3.7: Personal Development & Assets Ownership (PDA)

SN	State/UT	Code 105	Code 106	Code 107	Code 12	Code 14
1	A&N Islands	29.7	81.8	66.9	84.1	49.1
2	Andhra Pradesh	44.7	66.3	36.2	62.9	34.3
3	Arunachal Pradesh	59.7	56.6	59.8	65.6	31
4	Assam	52.3	45.4	46	71.8	26.2
5	Bihar	58.8	26.4	40.9	49.6	22.8
6	Chandigarh	21.6	79.6	74.2	83.2	59.2
7	Chhattisgarh	26.4	51.3	31	66.3	26.5
8	Dadra & Nagar Haveli	--	--	--	62.5	35.8
9	Daman & Diu	--	--	--	83.1	49.2
10	Delhi	--	--	--	81.8	55.4
11	Goa	33.9	82.8	80.9	89	58.2
12	Gujarat	27.2	48.6	47.9	72.9	33
13	Haryana	35.8	45.6	50.5	75.4	45.8
14	Himachal Pradesh	11.3	68.8	73.9	88.2	59.4
15	Jammu & Kashmir	33.3	60.3	54.2	69	37.2
16	Jharkhand	49.7	45.1	35.2	59	28.7
17	Karnataka	51.8	59.4	47.1	71.7	45.5
18	Kerala	34.9	70.6	81.2	97.9	72.2
19	Lakshadweep	41.7	72.6	68	95.7	57.8
20	Madhya Pradesh	43.5	37.3	28.7	59.4	23.2
21	Maharashtra	34.3	45.3	45.6	80.3	42
22	Manipur	69.9	34.8	63.1	85	45.9
23	Meghalaya	57.3	54.4	64.3	82.8	33.6
24	Mizoram	19.7	57.4	77.3	93.5	40.2
25	Nagaland	34.7	38.9	70.5	81	33.3
26	Odisha	63.5	56.2	39.2	67.4	26.7
27	Puducherry	40.3	68.2	67.3	85	60.3
28	Punjab	32.1	58.8	57.2	81.4	55.1
29	Rajasthan	24.1	58.2	41.4	56.5	25.1
30	Sikkim	24.8	63.5	79.8	86.6	40.7
31	Tamil Nadu	36.2	77	62	79.4	50.9
32	Telangana	50.5	59.7	47.8	65.2	43.3
33	Tripura	57.3	59.2	43.9	80.4	23.4
34	Uttar Pradesh	34.2	54.6	37.1	61	32.9
35	Uttarakhand	29.2	58.5	55.4	76.5	44.6
36	West Bengal	23.8	43.5	41.8	70.9	26.5
	All India	38.1	53	45.9	68.4	35.7

Source: NFHS 4 (2015-16)

Codes: 105-Owned House or land alone/jointly; 106-Owned Bank/Saving A/C for personal use; 107-Owned Mobile Phone for personal use; 12-Women who are literate; and 14-Women with 10 or more years of schooling

Table 3.8: Personal Health & Hygiene (PHH)

SN	States/UTs	Percent					
		code 108	code 97	code 99	code 94	code 95	code 36
1	A&N Islands	90.3	29.3	59.5	22.7	12.4	53.6
2	Andhra Pradesh	67.5	29	57.5	33.6	5.1	43.9
3	Arunachal Pradesh	73.3	16	45.2	8.5	5.9	3.6
4	Assam	44.8	9.4	44.6	5.2	5.2	18.1
5	Bihar	31	10.1	33.5	12.1	4.5	3.3
6	Chandigarh	92.1	41.1	87.6	53.3	19.3	34.7
7	Chhattisgarh	47.1	20.7	57.5	17.5	7.3	21.7
8	Dadra & Nagar Haveli	57.1	9.3	34.7	16.7	4.6	33.1
9	Daman & Diu	73.2	27.9	63.2	38.2	24.8	29.9
10	Delhi	90.2	32.7	72.5	26.8	10.2	37.3
11	Goa	89.3	34.6	77.4	49.9	45.1	63.4
12	Gujarat	60.3	18.4	43.2	25.2	7.5	30.7
13	Haryana	78.4	31.1	71.6	32.8	15.7	19.5
14	Himachal Pradesh	84.3	30.9	68.6	23.7	9.6	36.9
15	Jammu & Kashmir	66.5	19	68.5	34.5	13.6	26.8
16	Jharkhand	49.6	15.8	45.5	10.5	4.2	8
17	Karnataka	70.3	9.3	42.8	15.6	12.8	32.9
18	Kerala	90	43.1	74.2	61.3	33.4	61.2
19	Lakshadweep	97.1	25.1	50.8	57.6	27.3	66.4
20	Madhya Pradesh	37.6	18.1	46.8	24	10.4	11.4
21	Maharashtra	66.1	30	67.9	42.5	22.1	32.4
22	Manipur	76.1	40.7	79	17.2	4.3	33.9
23	Meghalaya	63.7	13.3	47	19.8	12.4	23.5
24	Mizoram	93.4	66.4	91.4	20.9	7.5	38.5
25	Nagaland	72.6	12.2	39.5	14.6	2	2.4
26	Odisha	47.4	20.3	59.4	28.4	6.1	23.1
27	Puducherry	96.9	25.4	72.7	20.7	15.1	55.6
28	Punjab	84.4	49.3	87.7	38	21.1	30.7
29	Rajasthan	55.2	19.1	50.4	18.9	4.8	9.7
30	Sikkim	84.6	25.5	62.7	12.8	6.8	22.4
31	Tamil Nadu	91.4	16	64.7	23.1	15.4	27.5
32	Telangana	76.3	29.5	59	32.3	9.5	42.2
33	Tripura	43.5	28	57.6	5.1	1.3	7.6
34	Uttar Pradesh	47.1	17.5	47.4	13	4.3	5.9
35	Uttarakhand	69.9	28.6	65.3	16.7	8.5	11.5
36	West Bengal	54.9	18.6	53.9	4.1	2.2	21.8
	All India	57.6	20.9	54.9	22.3	9.8	21

Source: NFHS 4 (2015-16)

Codes: 36-Women who had full antenatal care; 94-Women age 15-49 years who have ever undergone examination of cervix; 85-Women age 15-49 yrs. who have ever undergone examination of breasts; 97-Women who have comprehensive knowledge of HIV/AIDS; 99-Women who know that consistent condom use can reduce the change of getting HIV/AIDS; and 108-Women who use hygienic method of protection during menstruation

Table 3.6 shows that in India 84% of the women participated in household decision making out of which only 24.6% are working in a paid job. It is notable that as much as 28.8% of the women in India are reported to have experienced spousal violence (or domestic violence), and 3.3% have experience violence even during their pregnancy. Looking at the interstate variations in EWF, we observed that women of all states enjoy certain degree of autonomy as indicated by the high percentage of women taking part in household decision-making. Jammu and Kashmir records the lowest (12.4%) and Telangana the highest (45.2%) for women getting paid in cash for the work they do. Manipur has the highest incidence of women experiencing spousal violence; 53.1% reported receiving some form of abuse from their husband. And Tamil Nadu records the highest for women experiencing violence during pregnancy (6.2%) followed by Telangana (5.9%). In ensuring the safety of women Manipur, Tamil Nadu and Telangana has low empowerment level, at the same time women in Telangana are found to experience higher empowerment than women of other states for work paid in cash.

It is observed from Table 3.7 that only 38.1% of the women in India have land (owned alone or jointly), while little more than half of them (53%) are having separate bank account, and only 45.9% have mobile phone for use. The literacy rate of women in India is found to be 68.4%, but it can be assumed that women educational attainment is very low as those who have spent 10 years or more in school constituted only 35.7%. A state-wise examination show that the percentage of women owning personal asset which is an important indicator of empowerment is found to be highest in Manipur (69.9%) followed by Odisha at 63.5%. Himachal Pradesh and Mizoram recorded the lowest (11.3% and 19.7% respectively). Overall the national

average of women owning immovable asset is not high compared to those owning bank account or mobile phones in their name.

Goa and Andaman & Nicobar Islands records the highest (82.8% and 81.8% respectively) and Bihar records the lowest (26.4%) of women having bank/savings account in their name. Kerala has the highest number of women owning mobile phones for personal use (82.2%) while Chhattisgarh recorded the lowest (31%). While this reflects the level of freedom given to women to communicate freely with others, problem of affordability and lack of knowledge to operate mobile phones may also be a good reason for not owning mobile phones by many women. With ownership of house/ land Himachal Pradesh and Mizoram have low empowerment level, while Bihar has low empowerment for ownership of bank/saving account. Meanwhile, women literacy is highest in Lakshadweep (95.7%) followed by Mizoram (93.5%) and it is lowest in the state of Bihar (49.6%). The percentage of women who completed 10 or more years of schooling is highest in Kerala (72.2%) followed by Puducherry (60.3%), while it is lowest in Tripura (23.4%).

The health of women is important for the well-being of the country and it is an important factor in gauging the empowerment of women in the country. As presented in Table 3.8 the percentage of mothers who had full antenatal care is very low nationally (21%), while women who had undergone cervix and breast examinations is also dismally low at the national level revealing the poor level of attention given to women's health by women themselves and their spouse. During the 12 months survey period only 20.9% women in India admit to having knowledge about HIV/AIDS and 48% in rural areas are aware that consistent use of condom can reduce the chance of

getting infected by HIV/AIDS. Meanwhile the percentage of young women reported to be using hygienic method of protection during menstrual period is 48% in rural area as against 77.5% in urban area. Judging by health and personal hygiene parameter, the empowerment level in India as a whole is moderately low and more attention must be given to women's health.

Table 3.8 reveals that the awareness among young female to use hygienic method of protection during menstruation is lower than the national average (57.6%) in states like Bihar, Madhya Pradesh, Tripura and Uttar Pradesh. While Mizoram records the highest (66.4%) in having comprehensive knowledge about HIV/AIDS. Bihar, Dadra & Nagar Haveli and Nagaland have awareness well below the national average (54.9%) on how to stay safe from HIV/AIDS. Kerala has the highest number of women undertaking cervix test (61.3%) and West Bengal has the lowest (4.1%). Goa has the highest number of female (45.1%) undergoing breast examination while Nagaland record the lowest (2%). Awareness on the importance of taking these tests will certainly help in reducing the number of women suffering from cervical and breast cancer every year. Puducherry record the highest (55.6%) for having full antenatal care and Nagaland the lowest (2.4%). So far as health checks and HIV/AIDS awareness are concerned women in Nagaland, West Bengal, Madhya Pradesh, Uttar Pradesh and Tripura have low empowerment level. Women of these states need to be empowered to take care of their own body to remain healthy and fit. Not providing adequate awareness and opportunity will expose them to greater health risk and remain disempowered.

The various parameters of women empowerment grouped in three major categories as empowerment within the family (EWF), personal development and asset ownership (PDA), and personal health and hygiene (PHH) are further consolidated into three major indicators of women empowerment such as EWF, PDA and PHH respectively. This is undertaken to enable us to rank all the states according to the levels of women empowerment. The values for each indicator are calculated simply by taking the average performance of all the parameters included in it. For example, PDA is calculated by taking the average score of the state in 5 variables (code 105, 106, 107, 12 and 14). To solve the problem of missing data on PDA (code 105, 106 and 107) in three UTs of Dadra & Nagar Haveli, Daman & Diu, and Delhi, it is decided to use the all India average.

At the same time, the overall indicators of women empowerment (WEMP) is calculated by adding the scores of states from the above three indicators. To ensure uniformity of measurement of different parameters, two parameters of EWF, namely women who had ever experience spousal violence (code 103) and women who had experienced violence during pregnancy (code 104) are converted into *women who never experience spousal violence* and *women who do not experience violence* by subtracting each observation from 100. Further, all the states are ranked according to the total scores on women empowerment indicators, i.e. WEMP. The results of the exercise are presented in Table 3.9.

The top 5 performing states in terms of the scores in women empowerment (WEMP) are Kerala, Goa, Lakshadweep, Chandigarh, and Mizoram; while the bottom or poorest five states are Bihar, Uttar Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh, and Rajasthan. It is

notable that all the bottom 5 states in terms of women empowerment are the constituents of BIMARU states (it has semblance with the word *bimar* in Hindi, meaning *sick*), the acronym which is frequently used to refer to the poor economic conditions within those states. Looking at the sub-indicators, the top 5 performing states in terms of women empowerment within the family (EWF) are Sikkim, Mizoram, Nagaland, Chandigarh and Goa. It is interesting to see that the top 3 states on EWF are all from the hilly North Eastern States of India. At the same time, the poorest 5 on EWF are Bihar, Uttar Pradesh, Haryana, Dadra & Nagar Haveli, and Delhi.

In case of women empowerment on personal development and asset ownership (i.e. PDA), the top five states are Kerala, Goa, Lakshadweep, Puducherry, and Chandigarh; while the bottom five states are Madhya Pradesh, Bihar, Chhattisgarh, Rajasthan, and West Bengal. Similarly, the top 5 states on personal health and hygiene are Kerala, Goa, Chandigarh, Lakshadweep, and Mizoram; while the worst performing states are Bihar, Assam, Jharkhand, Uttar Pradesh, and Tripura.

Table 3.9: Scores of Different States in the three Indicators of Women Empowerment (WEMP)

SN	State/UTs	EFW	PDA	PHH	WEMP	Rank
1	A&N Islands (AN)	73.0	62.32	44.63	179.98	7
2	Andhra Pradesh (AP)	68.5	48.88	39.43	156.81	20
3	Arunachal Pradesh (AR)	68.5	54.54	25.42	148.46	26
4	Assam (AS)	69.5	48.34	21.22	139.01	29
5	Bihar (BR)	59.9	39.70	15.75	115.38	36
6	Chandigarh (CH)	75.8	63.56	54.68	194.04	4
7	Chhattisgarh (CG)	71.4	40.30	28.63	140.36	28
8	Dadra & Nagar Haveli (DN)	64.9	47.06	25.92	137.90	30
9	Daman & Diu (DD)	68.2	53.86	42.87	164.95	15
10	Delhi (DL)	66.2	54.84	44.95	165.94	14
11	Goa (GA)	75.7	68.96	59.95	204.64	2
12	Gujarat (GJ)	73.4	45.92	30.88	150.23	24
13	Haryana (HR)	64.4	50.62	41.52	156.49	21
14	Himachal Pradesh (HP)	75.1	60.32	42.33	177.75	9
15	Jammu & Kashmir (JK)	71.4	50.80	38.15	160.38	18
16	Jharkhand (JH)	68.7	43.54	22.27	134.46	33
17	Karnataka (KA)	70.6	55.10	30.62	156.34	22
18	Kerala (KL)	74.3	71.36	60.53	206.14	1
19	Lakshadweep (LD)	74.0	67.16	54.05	195.24	3
20	Madhya Pradesh (MP)	69.1	38.42	24.72	132.24	34
21	Maharashtra (MH)	73.5	49.50	43.50	166.48	13
22	Manipur (MN)	70.2	59.74	41.87	171.76	11
23	Meghalaya (ML)	74.6	58.48	29.95	162.98	17
24	Mizoram (MZ)	76.6	57.62	53.02	187.19	5
25	Nagaland (NL)	76.4	51.68	23.88	151.94	23
26	Odisha (OD)	66.5	50.60	30.78	147.86	27
27	Puducherry (PY)	66.8	64.22	47.73	178.75	8
28	Punjab (PB)	71.5	56.92	51.87	180.26	6
29	Rajasthan (RJ)	68.5	41.06	26.35	135.86	32
30	Sikkim (SK)	78.1	59.08	35.80	172.93	10
31	Tamil Nadu (TN)	66.9	61.10	39.68	167.71	12
32	Telangana (TS)	69.4	53.30	41.47	164.12	16
33	Tripura (TR)	72.0	52.84	23.85	148.67	25
34	Uttar Pradesh (UP)	64.3	43.96	22.53	130.82	35
35	Uttarakhand (UK)	72.8	52.84	33.42	159.06	19
36	West Bengal (WB)	68.7	41.30	25.92	135.94	31
	All India	69.1	48.22	31.08	148.43	

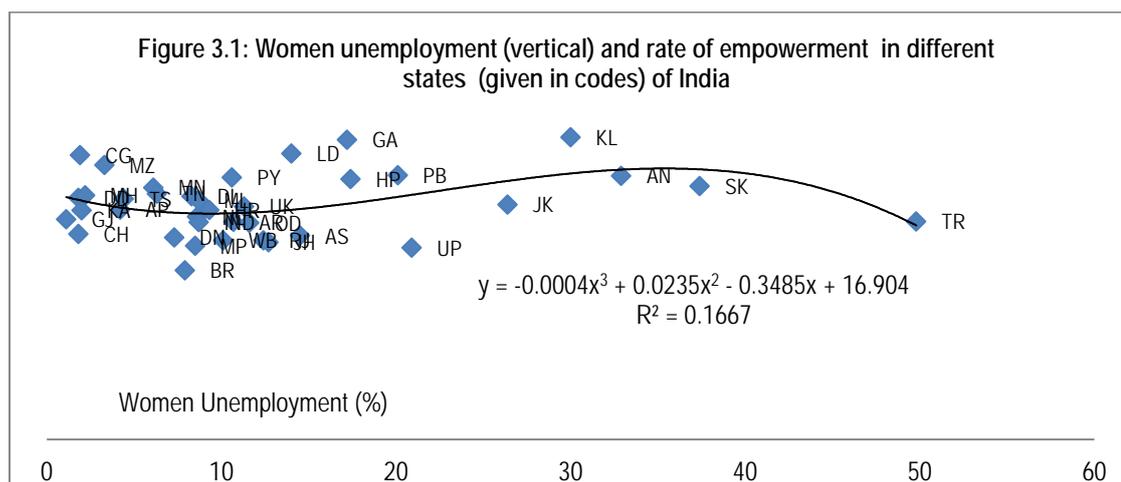
Source: Computed from NFHS 4 (2015-16)

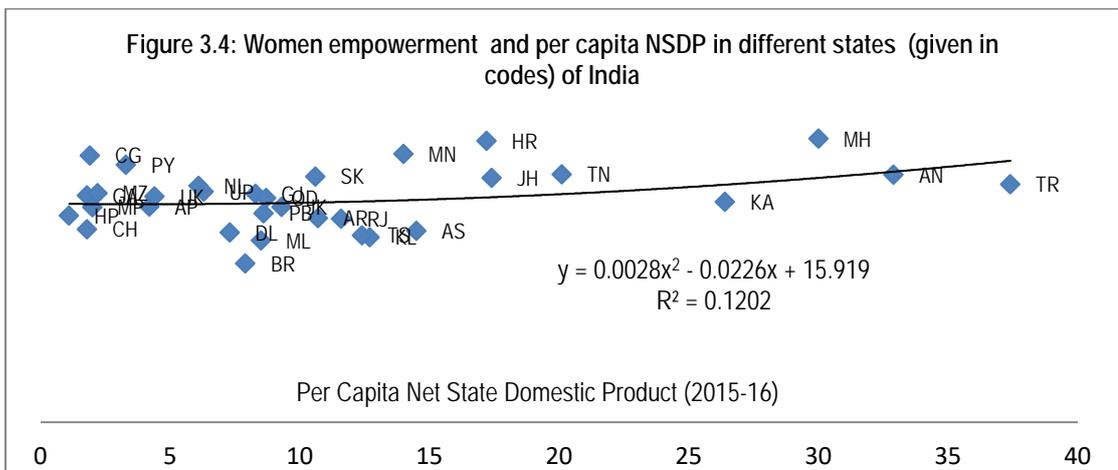
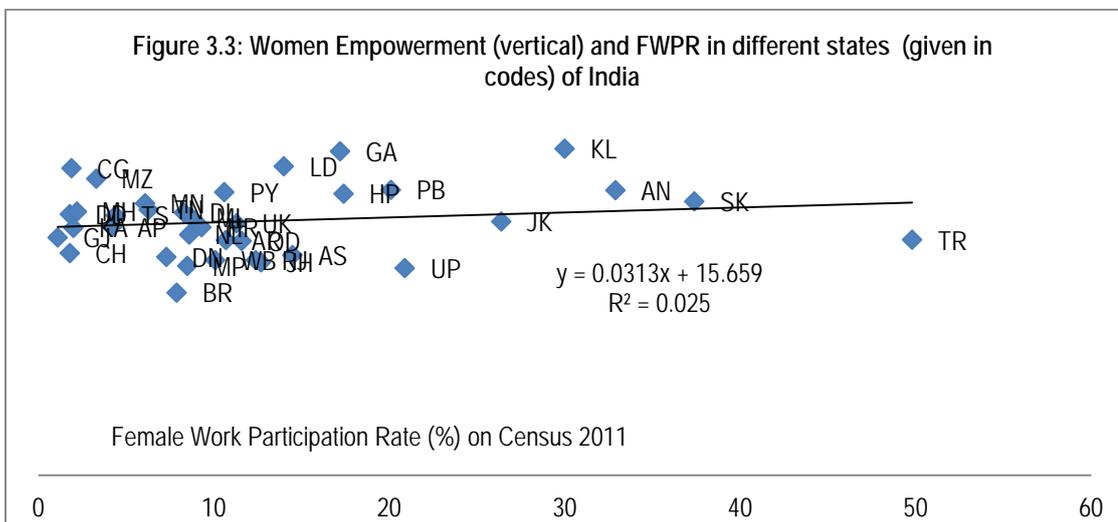
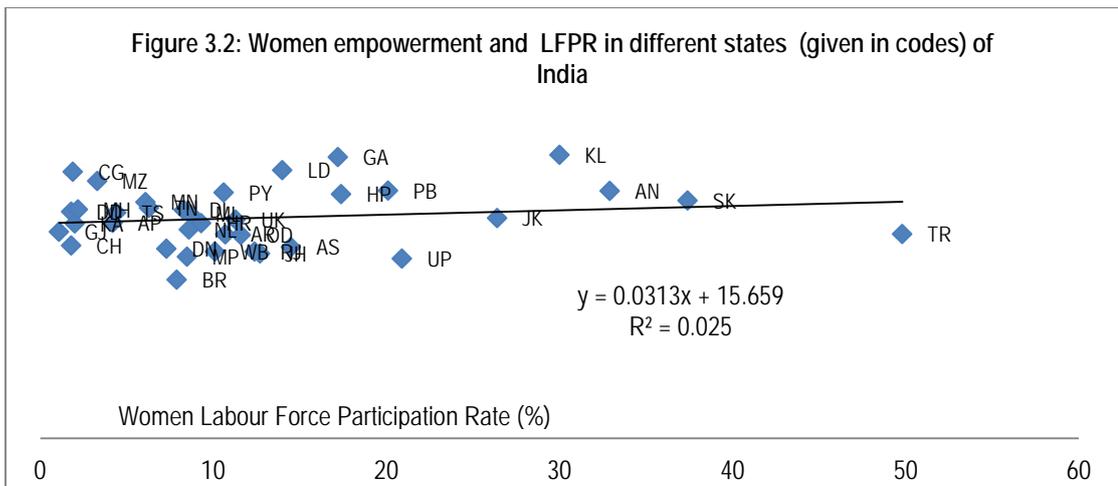
Note 1: EWF-Empowerment Within Family, PDA-Personal Development & Asset Ownership; PHH-Personal Health & Hygiene; and WEM-Women Empowerment.

Note 2: The alphabetical codes of the states are given in the bracket for easy presentation of scatter diagrams in the next section.

3.5. Women Empowerment and Employment

The preceding sections have given the general conditions of employment or unemployment and empowerment among the 32 states and 4 UTs (they are simply stated as ‘States’ for the sake of simplicity). It may be worthwhile to examine if there is relationship or pattern of relationship between unemployment (or employment) and the levels of empowerment in these states. Accordingly, attempt is made in this section to study the relationship between women empowerment (WEMP) and indicators of women employment, such as rate of unemployment, female labour force participation rate (FLFPR), and female work participation rate (FWPR). In addition to this, attempt is also made to examine the impact of economic development as indicated by per capita net state domestic product (NSDP). Firstly, the relationships are examined using scatter plots between each pair of indicators or indices. The results are presented in Figure 3.1, 3.2, 3.3 and 3.4.





As it is shown in Figure 3.1, there is no clear pattern of relationship between unemployment and empowerment till the former reached 40%, but decline at a faster rate afterward. The estimated trend line (cubic function) has slowly decreased with a slight increase in the unemployment, but move up gradually till it reached a point somewhere between 35% and 40% and decline consistently afterward. On examining the sign of the coefficients of the cubic function, one can see inverse relationship between empowerment and unemployment, although the relationship is not very strong. It may be concluded here that with an increase in women unemployment in the states, levels of women empowerment declines.

It can also be observed from Figure 3.2 and Figure 3.3 that there is an increasing relationship between women empowerment and female labour force participation (i.e. FLPR) and work participation (i.e. FWPR) respectively. This is justified by the fact that the slope coefficients of the plotted trend line are positive. Thus, it may be concluded that work participation among the women have positive impact on their levels of empowerment. Interestingly, an increasing relationship is also observed between women empowerment and per capita NSDP. Thus, it may be concluded that the levels of women empowerment tended to increase with economic development.

To test the significance of the relationship between empowerment and employment variables, all the states and UTs are classified into three categories as follows: (i) *low* if the score of the state is less than or equal 30th percentile score, (ii) *medium* if it is between 30th and 70th percentile score, and (iii) *high* if it is greater than 70th percentile score. In the same way, women unemployment, FWPR, FLPR and per

capita NSDP are also classified into three scales based on these percentile values. The result of the cross-tabulation and Chi-square test are presented in Table 3.10.

Table 3.10: Testing of the Relationship between empowerment and employment & NSDP

Employment/Unemployment Variables & NSDP		Women Empowerment (% of States)				Chi-Square	p-value
		Low	Medium	High	Total		
Levels of Women Unemployment	Low	9.1	63.6	27.3	100	14.43***	0.006
	Medium	56.2	31.2	12.5	100		
	High	11.1	22.2	66.7	100		
Levels of Female Work Participation Rate (FWPR)	Low	18.2	36.4	45.5	100	3.77	0.438
	Medium	35.7	50	14.3	100		
	High	36.4	27.3	36.4	100		
Female Labour Force Participation Rate (FLPR)	Low	33.3	33.3	33.3	100	2.658	0.617
	Medium	35.7	28.6	35.7	100		
	High	20	60	20	100		
Total		30.6	38.9	30.6	100		
Per Capita Net State Domestic Product (32 States, excluding Dadra & Nagar Haveli, Daman & Diu, Lakshadweep & West Bengal)	Low	66.7	22.2	11.1	100	11.5**	0.022
	Medium	21.4	50	28.6	100		
	High	0	44.4	55.6	100		
	Total	28.1	40.6	31.2	100		

Source: Computed

***significant at 1% level & **significant at 5% level

It is observed from Table 3.10 that women empowerment is significantly related to two factors such as unemployment and per capita income. Taking into consideration the observations from Figure 3.1 it is safe to conclude that women empowerment decreases with an increase in women unemployment. At the same time, in view of Figure 3.4 and the significance of the chi-square statistic in Table 3.10, we may conclude that levels of women empowerment increases with an increase in per capita income of the states. However, the test statistic is not significant for work participation and labour force participation. Hence, a mere participation of women in the current work force does not necessarily translate into their empowerment.

3.6. Conclusion

The analysis undertaken in this study shows a varying performance of different states in terms of women empowerment. States like Kerala, Goa, Lakshadweep, Chandigarh, and Mizoram are the top performer on women empowerment; while the bottom or poorest five are Bihar, Uttar Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh, and Rajasthan. As the study observed significant relationship between women empowerment and unemployment, it is concluded that levels of empowerment tended to decrease with an increase in women unemployment in all the states. At the same time, women labour force participation is not significantly related to the empowerment levels. As such, participation of women in economic activity does not necessarily translate into their empowerment in the family and society, and the incidence of unemployment led them compromise their empowerment. The positive relationship between empowerment and per capita NSDP may also be interpreted as the need to increase economic growth for gender empowerment in India.

It is of particular interest to note that while Mizoram our study area appears to be doing well on women's empowerment indices considered in this chapter as compared to other states of India. However, it is our understanding and observation that Mizoram has still a long way to go for women to acquire holistic empowerment. Thus, status of women empowerment in Mizoram in different activities (decision making, assets ownership, etc.) and their relationship with employment will be examined in the subsequent chapters.

Chapter 4

GENERAL CONDITIONS OF WOMEN EMPLOYMENT AND EMPOWERMENT IN AIZAWL DISTRICT, MIZORAM

4.1. Introduction

Women's empowerment in simple term is nothing but women gaining freedom from male subordination to be able to take control of their own lives. Women's empowerment and employment are closely related, several research findings show that among many factors, employment is one of the most important sources of women's empowerment. Hasan (2013) likened empowerment to a source of light and employment as one of the windows for the light to come through to illuminate the room. On the same line, Nagaraja (2013) also mentions that employment empowers women by providing financial independence, alternative source of social identity and exposure to power structures. Access to employment acts positively towards women's empowerment by enhancing the ability to exercise agency. Kabeer (1999) cited findings from different studies in Bangladesh, India, Thailand, Zimbabwe and USA where it was claimed that employment have a positive relation to women's empowerment.

Employment is empowering for women because it help her gain autonomy and control over her own lives which was previously denied to her. In a traditional patriarchal society women and girls remain at home under the power and control of men and remain dependent on male members of the family for much of their lives. They remain helpless and subdued with no access to financial resources within their own household .This give them a feeling of powerlessness which often shatters their

self-confidence and self-esteem. But employment ensures economic security to women and lifts them out of their pathetic situation. Earning an income enables women to contribute in the family resources and gives her control over resources. The ability to gain control over resources gives her confidence to make decision for herself and her children and the courage to voice out her opinion at home and in the community. Having greater economic power within the household also help to create more balanced relation in the home and reduces gender inequality.

Using all these as backdrop, this chapter intended to analyse the relationship between women employment and their level of empowerment using sample data collected from rural and urban areas of Aizawl district, Mizoram. Before giving empirical analysis on the relationship between the two key variables of the study, it is considered necessary to examine the general status of employment and empowerments among the sample women in the study areas. The major parameters adopted in this chapter are age, educational levels, family status, age at marriage, number of children, monthly income, occupation, employment status, participation in household decision making, participation in NGOs, banking, etc. All the data presented are obtained from the field survey conducted during 2017-18 which covered a total of 333 respondents (137 and 196 from rural and urban areas respectively). The detailed methodology of sample selection is already given in methodology in Chapter 1.

4.2. Basic Profiles

To understand better the general condition of women empowerment and employment in the study area, the socio-economic conditions of the respondents are

examined. The general statuses of the respondents on the different socio-economic indicators are presented in different tables as follows. Table 4.1 present the age profile of the respondent from rural and urban areas separately.

Table 4.1: Age Distribution of the Sample Respondents

Age Group (yrs.)	No. of Respondents			% of Respondents		
	Rural	Urban	Total	Rural	Urban	Total
below 30	15	43	58	10.9	21.9	17.4
30 – 40	36	45	81	26.3	23.0	24.3
40 – 50	32	46	78	23.4	23.5	23.4
50 – 60	30	44	74	21.9	22.4	22.2
60 & <	24	18	42	17.5	9.2	12.6
Total	137	196	333	100	100	100

It is observed from Table 4.1 that absolute majority of the respondents are in the age group of 30-60 years of age, while 17.4% and 12.6% are below 30 years and above 60 years respectively. Thus, the majority of the selected samples are in the working age group. The proportion of the total sample accounted for by this age group is more or less similar in both rural and urban areas, while there are visible differences in the %age contribution of lower and upper age group between the two areas.

Table 4.2 presents the educational levels of women in the study areas as represented by the sample respondents. The highest numbers of respondents have middle school level education with 26.7% followed by graduate and above with 21.3%. There are 8.7% who have below primary level education and 11.4% with primary level. The table displays a wide gap in educational attainment of urban and

rural respondents. While 35.2% of respondents from urban area are graduate and above, there are only 1.5% for the same among rural respondents.

Table 4.2: Educational Level of Women

Education level Completed	No. of Respondents			% of Respondent		
	Rural	Urban	Total	Rural	Urban	Total
below Primary	22	7	29	16.1	3.6	8.7
Primary	28	10	38	20.4	5.1	11.4
Middle	58	31	89	42.3	15.8	26.7
High School	20	35	55	14.6	17.9	16.5
HSS	7	44	51	5.1	22.4	15.3
Graduate & above	2	69	71	1.5	35.2	21.3
Total	137	196	333	100	100	100

Source: Field Survey 2017-18

Among rural respondents those with middle school level education make up 42.3% while there are around 16% among urban respondents. Almost 79% of rural respondents have education up till middle school level and only 21% have high school and upwards education. Whereas, among urban respondents only around 24% have up till middle school education and the remaining 76% have high school and upwards education. It is thus, clear from Table 4.2 that the level of women education in the study areas is not high as 78% have only up to higher Secondary level and only 21% have graduate level resulting in low achievement of jobs. Further, there is significantly higher attainment among the women in urban areas than in rural areas.

The family status presented in Table 4.3 reveals that almost 78% of women interviewed are married, 5.7% divorced, 8.4% widowed and 8% single. Meanwhile, 65% who live in nuclear family and around 32.7% lives in joint family. As for position in family 70% of those interviewed are wife of head of family and the

remaining 30% are either daughter in-law or daughter. As for housing, 79% lives in own house, almost 19% live in rented house and the remaining 2% live in other unspecified place. Of all the 333 respondents almost 40% lives in kuccha house, 36% in pucca house and the remaining 24% lives in semi pucca house. The average size of family is 5.5. It can be concluded that currently married and wife of head of family make up the highest %age of respondents. As for housing almost 80% live in their own house and 60% have a decent house to live in indicating a stable living standard.

Table 4.3: Family Status of the Respondents

Sl. No	Particulars	Status	No. of Respondent	%
1	Marital Status	Married	259	77.8
		Divorced	19	5.7
		Widowed	28	8.4
		Single	27	8.1
2	Family Type	Joint	109	32.7
		Nuclear	216	64.9
		Single	8	2.4
3	Position in the Family	Wife of Head of Family	235	70.6
		Daughter-in-law	53	15.9
		Daughter (widowed/divorce/single)	45	13.5
4	Housing Status	Own House	263	79.0
		Rented	63	18.9
		Other	7	2.1
5	House Type	Katcha	133	39.9
		Semi Pucca	79	23.7
		Pucca	121	36.3
6	Average Family Size	5.5		

Source: Field Survey 2017-18

To have better understanding on the personal profiles of the respondents, Table 4.4 presents the age at marriage and its distribution. Around 47% marry

between 20-25 years of age while 12.3% marry at 30 years and above. There are 13.8% who marry at 20 years and below. The average age of marriage is around 23.5 years.

Table 4.4: Distribution of Marriage (Age at Marriage)

Age Group	No. of Respondent			% of Respondent		
	Rural	Urban	Total	Rural	Urban	Total
below 20	31	15	46	22.6	7.7	13.8
20 - 25	72	85	157	52.6	43.4	47.1
25 - 30	26	52	78	19.0	26.5	23.4
30 & >	4	37	41	2.9	18.9	12.3
no answer	4	7	11	2.9	3.6	3.3
Total	137	196	333	100	100	100
Average	22.1	24.6	23.5			

Source: Field Survey 2017-18

Further, the sector wise marriage age distribution shows that the average marriage age of rural respondents are lower than that of urban dwellers. While the average marriage age is around 22 years in rural areas, it is nearly 25 years for urban. Table 4.4 also reveals that among rural respondents almost 75% marry before 25 years of age and while it is 51% for urban. On the other hand, the percentage of those who marry between 20 and 30 years of age are almost the same for rural and urban dwellers. What is interesting is the pronounced sectorial difference in the percentage of those who marry before 20 years of age. Around 22.6% of rural respondents marry before turning 20 years whereas it is only 7.7% for urban respondents. Besides cultural practices lack of opportunity for girls to attend higher education may be an obvious factor to marry off girls at such an early age in rural areas. What is clear from the table is that girls marry off very early in our study area, 84% marry before 30

years and this has implication on the educational attainment of the respondent and their future career.

As shown in Table 4.5 respondents having 3 children make up the highest number with 27 % and those with 5 and above comprised the lowest with 11%. About 48.3% have more than 2 children and around 26% have more than 4 children. The average number of children is 2.6 per women.

Table 4.5: Number of Children by the Respondents

No. of Children	No. of Respondent			% of Respondent		
	Rural	Urban	Total	Rural	Urban	Total
No Child	9	20	29	6.6	10.2	8.7
1	16	40	56	11.7	20.4	16.8
2	24	47	71	17.5	24.0	21.3
3	42	48	90	30.7	24.5	27.0
4	23	27	50	16.8	13.8	15.0
5 & <	23	14	37	16.8	7.1	11.1
Total	137	196	333	100	100	100
Average No.	3	2.4	2.6			

Source: Field Survey 2017

Comparison between rural and urban sector shows that the percentage of women having more children is relatively higher among rural women. While the percentage for rural respondents shows an increasing trend with more children it is not so for urban respondents. There are 64.3% among rural respondents having more than 3 children whereas there are only 45.4% among urban respondents. On the other hand, while there are 44.4% among urban respondent who have 1 or 2 children there are only 29.2% among rural dwellers who have the same number. What is clear though is that female in rural areas have more children than those living in urban

areas. On the whole, it can be concluded that nearly half of the women surveyed have 2 to 3 children while only 26% have more than 4 children.

4.3. Income and Employment

Table 4.6 display a disproportionate distribution of monthly income of respondents revealing an income gap that exist among different sections of the society. While 24% of the respondent enjoy monthly income of ₹50000 and above there are 23.7% earning below ₹10000 a month. There are a little more than 5% who earn between ₹40000-₹50000 ranges while 15% have income between ₹20000 and ₹30000.

Table 4.6: Monthly Distribution of Household Income of the Respondents

Income Range (₹)	No. of Respondents			% of Respondents		
	Rural	Urban	Total	Rural	Urban	Total
below 10000	67	12	79	48.9	6.1	23.7
10000-20000	26	36	62	19.0	18.4	18.6
20000-30000	18	32	50	13.1	16.3	15.0
30000-40000	12	31	43	8.8	15.8	12.9
40000-50000	3	16	19	2.2	8.2	5.7
50000 & <	11	69	80	8.0	35.2	24.0
Total	137	196	333	100	100	100
Average Income	₹17193	₹49227	₹36047			

Source: Field Survey, 2017

A sector wise monthly income distribution reveals a stark difference in the average income between rural and urban respondents. The average income for rural respondent is only ₹17193 while it is ₹49227 for urban respondent and the overall average being ₹36047. More than 35% of urban respondents earn ₹50000 and above

whereas only 8% among rural respondents earn the same amount. On the other extreme nearly 68% of rural respondents earn around ₹20000 and below while only 6% of urban respondents earn below ₹10000.

The income distribution trend clearly suggest that female in rural areas earn comparatively lower monthly income than those living in urban areas and consequently have a lower standard of living. There can be a number of reasons for this, the most obvious being the absence of a regular stable job in rural areas where the only available work is a seasonal in nature and a lack of opportunity to attend school to secure stable job in future.

Table 4.7: Occupational Profiles of Respondents

Occupation	No. of Persons			% of Persons		
	Rural	Urban	Total	Rural	Urban	Total
Housewife	110	74	184	80.3	37.8	55.3
Self Employed/Business	20	50	70	14.6	25.5	21.0
Government Employee	7	43	50	5.1	21.9	15.0
Casual Work	0	20	20	0.0	10.2	6.0
Other	0	9	9	0.0	4.6	2.7
Total	137	196	333	100	100	100

Source: Field Survey 2017

The Occupational Profiles presented in Table 4.7 reveals that more than 55% of the respondents are housewife who do not have work. About 21% are self-employed running their own business and 15% works for the Government as a regular employee. About 6% are Casual workers consisting of agriculture farm workers, those working under a private employer and daily wage earner. Nearly 3% are engaged in some other work other than works mentioned above. A comparison of the rural and

urban sector shows that nearly all respondents from rural areas are housewife and have no work. However, it is understood that most of these housewife in rural areas are engaged in agriculture and allied activities. While nearly 22% from urban areas works for the Government, only 5% do in rural areas. Around 37% in urban areas are either running their own business, or are casual workers like working under private employer or working in their own farm or working as daily wage labourer whereas in rural areas self-employment makes up only 14% and there are no casual workers. It can be concluded that more than 50% of women in our study area are housewife who do not hold any paid work outside home.

Table 4.8 shows the ranks of the employees who are employed in formal job. Firstly, the average monthly income of all the sample women employees turned out to be ₹28300. This Table reveals that only a very small number (10.2%) in the study area are employed in executive level, and majority of the workers (62.7%) holds clerical, while 27.1% have lower rank job.

Table 4.8: Rank of the women respondents employed in organised job

Rank/Position	No. of Persons			% of Persons		
	Rural	Urban	Total	Rural	Urban	Total
Executive	1	5	6	10.0	10.2	10.2
Clerical	5	32	37	50.0	65.3	62.7
Lower rank job	4	12	16	40.0	24.5	27.1
Total	10	49	59	100	100	100
Average Wage (Rs)	24900	28600	28300			

Source: Field Survey 2017

A sector wise classification in Table 4.7 shows that more than 93% of rural respondent have no formal job and are excluded in Table 4.8. Among the 10 respondents who participated in the interview, 50% hold clerical job and 40% have

lower rank job, while only 10% are at the executive rank. As for urban respondents 75% have no formal job while 25% only holds formal job. Among the urban respondents employed in formal job, only 10.2% hold executive job, 65.3% have clerical job and 24.5% have lower rank job and the monthly wage of all the employees ₹28600 and ₹24900 for urban and rural respectively. Among women employed in formal job, those employed in clerical work make up the biggest number followed by those employed in lower rank job like peon, cleaners, chokidar etc. This clearly reveals that women in our study area, who are engaged in formal job, have no high achievement in the ranks of their employment.

As majority of the women are not working outside home and earn income from it, as such, one can assume that they are doing family works. So, it may be worthwhile to examine their contribution towards household work. This is presented in Table 4.9.

Table 4.9 presents women's contribution to household work and time spent on work place. It reveals that 57% spend more than 2/3 of their time in workplace and about 0.3% gave less than 1/3 of their time. On asking how they spend their free time, about 47% say they do household chores, 9.6% do outside work like gardening, weeding etc. and another 8% say they remain idle. As for contribution to family works other than household works, about 9% say they contribute less than 25% of their time for other family works other than house work (cultivation, family business etc.), 47% contribute more than 50% and 6% contribute more than 75% of their time in doing other family work. In assessing their contribution to household works 40%

contribute more than 75% of their time for household work, 39% contribute more than 50% and only 2.7% spent less than 25% of their time doing household work.

Table 4.9: Status and Contribution of the Women on Family Works

Sl. No	Categories	Persons			% of persons		
		Rural	Urban	Total	Rural	Urban	Total
A	Duration of Work (in No. of days/year)						
	more than 2/3	101	89	190	73.7	45.4	57.1
	more than 1/3	34	51	85	24.8	26.0	25.5
	less than 1/3	0	1	1	0.0	0.5	0.3
	NA	2	55	57	1.5	28.1	17.1
B	Uses of Leisure time						
	Household Chores	29	129	158	21.2	65.8	47.4
	Outside Home	30	2	32	21.9	1.0	9.6
	Other	63	5	68	46.0	2.6	20.4
	Stay idle	14	13	27	10.2	6.6	8.1
	No Answer	1	47	48	0.7	24.0	14.4
C	Contribution to other Family Works other than household works						
	less than 25%	5	25	30	3.6	12.8	9.0
	25-50%	56	66	122	40.9	33.7	36.6
	50-75%	70	89	159	51.1	45.4	47.7
	more than 75%	6	16	22	4.4	8.2	6.6
D	Contribution to Household Works						
	less than 25%	2	7	9	1.5	3.6	2.7
	25-50%	11	48	59	8.0	24.5	17.7
	50-75%	25	106	131	18.2	54.1	39.3
	more than 75%	99	34	133	72.3	17.3	39.9
	no answer	0	1	1	0.0	0.5	0.3

Source: Field Survey 2017. NA: Not Applicable/No Answer.

Thus more than half of the women interviewed spent more than 2/3 of their time in workplace and about 47% make full use of their leisure time by doing chores around the house and about 30% engages in doing other useful work outside home. It has also been found that nearly half of the women in our study area contribute almost all their time for doing other family works besides normal household works. As for

contribution to household works, less than 50% claim to give almost full time to doing household works and the remaining lot engages in doing other menial works outside home. One thing that is quite obvious from the table is that women are the main contributor of family works (chores, etc.) and most of them even sacrifice their leisure time for doing household works.

4.4. Ownership of Household Properties

Ownership of assets and properties is considered as one of the important indicators empowerment among the women. Table 4.10 presents the ownership of household properties by female members in the study areas. In all about 22% recorded having individual ownership of Land Pass while 64% have none and about 8% recorded joint ownership with their husband. About 8% recorded individual ownership of other plot of land inherited from their parents, 4% have joint ownership with their husband and about 87% do not have at all either as an individual or as a family. As for ownership of house 30% of respondents live in house registered in their own name while about 12% have joint ownership with their husband. For the ownership of vehicles a total of 15% have individual ownership of two wheeler and four wheeler vehicles while 4% have joint ownership with their husband. The remaining 81% have none either as an individual or as a family.

Table 4.10: Ownership of Household Properties by the Female Members in the Study Areas

Household Properties	%			
	have	Husband /other	joint ownership	family don't have
1. Land Pass (LSC, P. Patta, etc.) by name	22.22	64.26	8.71	4.80
2. Other plot of land (LSC, P.Patta, etc.) by name	8.41	72.37	3.90	15.32
3. Dwelling House	30.03	54.05	12.61	3.30
4. Two Wheeler by Self	12.01	66.97	1.80	19.22
5. Four Wheeler by Self	3.30	57.96	2.40	36.34
6. Jewellery (Gold, Diamond, Silver, etc.)	52.25	42.04	0.30	5.41
7. Mobile Phone	91.29	8.41	0.00	0.30
8. Laptop Computer	9.31	60.96	3.60	26.13
9. Employment Card (NREGA, etc.)	11.11	53.45	1.80	33.63
10. Ration Card (Food) by name	49.25	24.92	24.92	0.90
11. Family Gas Connection by name	50.15	37.84	8.71	3.30
12. Have Driving License	13.51	83.18	0.30	3.00
13. Own business (shops, etc.)	17.12	51.65	1.80	29.43

Source: Field Survey 2017-18

More than half of the respondents recorded having some form of jewellery like gold, diamond, silver etc. while 42% records having none. As for ownership of mobile phones 91% have it for personal use as it has become a necessity and only less than 1% does not have it as a family. There are only 9% who owns laptop for personal use while 3% have joint use with their husband. There are 11% job card holders like NREGA etc. provided by the Central Government for livelihood support to people living below the poverty line. About 49% have family ration card (a scheme provided by the Government to avail certain basic food item at subsidize rate) recorded in their name while 24% reported not having it in their name. Half of the respondents' ie.50% has cooking gas connection registered in their name and only 3% reported not having it as a family. As for ownership of driving license only 13% have it for use while 83% reported to have none. About 17% run business i.e. shop in their own name while 1.8% reported a joint ownership with their husband.

To have further insight on the asset ownership profiles of the women respondents in the study areas, Table 4.11 and Table 4.12 present the cases for rural and urban areas respectively. In rural areas, only 13% reported to have Land Pass registered in their name while almost 3% recorded to have Land Pass for other plot of land. While 84% live in house registered in their husband or family's name, 9% live in house registered in their name.

While no rural respondents owns two and four wheeler vehicles in their name 14% reports to own jewellery in some form like gold, diamond, silver etc. About 86% owns mobile phone for personal use but none own laptop computer as most respondents in rural areas are engaged in farm works and have no use of computers. About 20% have employment card like NREGA etc. in their name and 75% do not have it. While 57% have family ration card in their name 40% do not have it meaning that their ration card is recorded in their husband's name. There are 62% who do not have gas connection in their name, only 29% have their own connection. As for driving license less than 2% have it registered in their name and the remaining 98% do not have it. About 10% run business like shop etc. in their own name and less than 1% are said to run jointly with their husband. Ownership of properties has been found to be very low in rural areas, many household who do not own many of the properties listed in the table. Except for mobile phones and Family ration card individual ownership of household properties is quite low among the respondent. Joint ownership of properties together with husband is also very low. With the exception of Job card there is hardly any properties which are jointly owned by wife husband duo suggesting that families in rural areas are relatively poorer than those living in urban area.

Table 4.12 presents the urban female household properties ownership status. In that 28% reports to have Land Pass in their name while about 14% have joint ownership with their husband. As for the ownership of other plot of land 6% reports to have joint ownership while 12% have it registered in their name. As for dwelling house 44% live in houses registered in their name while 21% have joint ownership with their husband or other family member. About 26% urban female have two and four wheeler registered in their name while 6% have joint ownership with their husband.

Table 4.11: Ownership of Household Properties by Female Members -- Rural

Household Properties	%			
	have	Husband /other	joint ownership	family don't have
1. Land Pass (LSC, P. Patta, etc.) by name	13.14	79.56	0.73	6.57
2. Other plot of land (LSC, P.Patta, etc.) by name	2.92	67.15	0.00	29.93
3. Dwelling House	9.49	84.67	0.00	5.84
4. Two Wheeler by Self	0.00	54.74	0.00	45.26
5. Four Wheeler by Self	0.00	21.17	1.46	77.37
6. Jewellery (Gold, Diamond, Silver, etc.)	14.60	74.45	0.00	10.95
7. Mobile Phone	86.86	12.41	0.00	0.73
8. Laptop Computer	0.00	39.42	0.00	60.58
9. Employment Card (NREGA, etc.)	20.44	75.18	3.65	0.73
10. Ration Card (Food) by name	57.66	40.88	0.00	1.46
11. Family Gas Connection by name	29.20	62.77	0.00	8.03
12. Have Driving License	1.46	91.97	0.00	6.57
13. Own business (shops, etc.)	10.22	32.85	0.73	56.20

Source: Field Survey 2017-18

Table 4.12: Ownership of Household Properties by the Female Members -- Urban

Household Properties	%			
	have	Husband /other	joint ownership	family don't have
1. Land Pass (LSC, P. Patta, etc.) by name	28.57	53.57	14.29	3.57
2. Other plot of land (LSC, P.Patta, etc.) by name	12.24	76.02	6.63	5.10
3. Living House	44.39	32.65	21.43	1.53
4. Two Wheeler by Self	20.41	75.51	3.06	1.02
5. Four Wheeler by Self	5.61	83.67	3.06	7.65
6. Jewellery (Gold, Diamond, Silver, etc.)	78.57	19.39	0.51	1.53
7. Mobile Phone	94.39	5.61	0.00	0.00
8. Laptop Computer	15.82	76.02	6.12	2.04
9. Employment Card (NREGA, etc.)	4.59	38.27	0.51	56.63
10. Ration Card (Food) by name	43.37	13.78	42.35	0.51
11. Family Gas Connection by name	64.80	20.41	14.80	0.00
12. Have Driving License	21.94	77.04	0.51	0.51
13. Own business (shops, etc.)	21.94	64.80	2.55	10.71

Source: Field Survey 2017-18

As for ownership of jewellery in urban areas, 78% claimed to have jewellery of some form like gold, diamond, silver etc. Less than 2% report to have none as a family which is a stark contrast from rural female. Only 5% report to have no mobile phone while 94% owned one for personal use. About 16% said they have laptop computer for personal use while 76% claimed not to have it. Less than 5% have employment card like NREGA etc. in their name and more than 56% claimed to have none in their family. This is again in stark contrast with rural female as urban female are economically better off and has access to better paid job. While about 43% have family ration card registered in their name another 42% have it registered in their husband's name. Nearly 65% have gas connection registered in their name while another 20% claimed not to have any in their name. As for the ownership of driving license less than 22% have one for use while 64% said they have none registered in their name. Less than 1% has no driving license within their family. About 22% urban

female run business like shop etc. in their own name while less than 3% run it jointly with their husband.

It is thus clear that access to key family assets and valuables like land pass, other land holdings, dwelling house, vehicles, computers etc. by women are quite low in the study areas. More than half of these assets are registered in husband's name or names of other family members. At the same time, women have clear access to gender related valuables like jewellery and mobile phones. It may be noted that Government favours giving Family Ration Card for food subsidy and Gas subsidy connection in housewife's name than male members of the family. This is clearly reflected in the tables where women's proportion is found to be quite substantial for family ration card and gas connection. Given all these, it can be concluded that women's limited access to household assets in comparison with their male counterpart indicates lower empowerment level in terms of asset ownership in the study areas.

4.5. Participations in Social Organisations

Participation of women in different social organisations and institutions have been an indicator of empowerment as they indicate freedom of oneself to engaged in social activities outside home for personal and societal development. Table 4.13 presents the participation level of female members in social organisation and Self-help Group (SHG). About 65% join state level NGO like Mizoram Hmeichhe Insuihkhawm Pawl (MHIP, Mizo Women's Organisation) etc. with around 8% holding executive committee position and 88% participating as regular member of the organisation. Almost half of 43% said they join these organisations because of others;

less than 1% say they join for personal benefit while more than half of 56.2% join for self-improvement and socialising with others.

Table 4.13: Participation in Social Organisation & SHGs

Status	Answer	Rural	Urban	Total	%
1. Whether joined State Level NGO	Yes	97.1	42.3	64.9	
	No	2.9	57.7	35.1	
2. If yes, Level of Participation	OB	4.5	3.6	4.2	
	Committee Member	4.5	13.3	7.9	
	Member	91.0	83.1	88.0	
3. Reason for Joining	Personal Benefit	0.0	1.2	0.5	
	Self-improvement	36.1	17.1	28.8	
	Socialise	39.8	7.3	27.4	
	since others do	24.1	74.4	43.3	
4. Whether improve status in the family and society	Yes	53.4	12.3	37.9	
	No	46.6	87.7	62.1	
5. Whether Joined SHG	Yes	28.5	1.5	12.6	
	No	71.5	98.5	87.4	
6. If yes, whether hold leadership	Yes	48.7	50.0	48.8	
	No	51.3	50.0	51.2	
7. Does it improve self-confidence	Yes	71.1	75.0	71.4	
	No	28.9	25.0	28.6	
8. whether SHGs participation improve status in family and society	Yes	31.6	40.0	32.6	
	No	68.4	60.0	67.4	

Source: Field Survey 2017-18

Asked whether joining NGO improves their status in the family and society, surprisingly 62% said no to the question. At the same time, only 12% are found to join SHG out of which 48% hold leadership position. Asked if participating in SHG improves their self-confidence 71.4% responded positively, while 67.4% said joining SHG does not improve their status in the family and society.

A sector wise comparison in Table 4.13 reveals that participation in state level NGO is comparatively higher among rural female than urban female members. There is also clear difference in the reason for joining NGOs between the two areas. While 76% of the rural women joined for self-improvement and for socialising, 74.4% of the

urban counterpart joined only because they see others doing it. In the same way, joining of NGOs have played significant role in self-improvement in rural areas as 53.4% claimed that it has improve their status in the family and the society, while 87.7% said no in urban areas. Only a limited number of urban female joined SHGs whereas there are around 28% among rural female. It is notable that SHGs have improved self-confidence, while it does not have much impact on improving the status in the family and the society.

Given the above elaboration in Table 4.13, it may concluded that women's participation to state level NGOs (like MHIP, etc.) is quite good in the study areas and many join the group for self-improvement and to socialise with one another. However, there are also a good number of women who feel joining the NGOs do not improve their status in the family and society. Similarly while joining SHGs is found to improve self-confidence among women it does not necessarily result in the improvement of their status in the family.

4.6. Access to Financial Services

Financial literacy and level of banking and financial transaction by the female members may be considered as an important parameter of women empowerment. To examine the condition in the study area, different related indicators as observed in the field survey are presented Table 4.14. It is observed that a total of 76% have Saving Bank Accounts in their name in the bank and most of them around 90% hold Personal Account. More than 50% of the account holders have ATM and 56% maintain their account regularly. Meanwhile, less than 42% of the account holders do not maintain

savings on a regular basis. Further, only a limited number of respondents avail loan mostly for house construction. At the same time, only 14% of women in the study areas are covered with insurance policy.

Table 4.14: Linkages to Financial Institution

Status	Answer	Percent		
		Rural	Urban	Total
1. Have Saving Bank Account	Yes	78.8	74.5	76.3
	No	21.2	25.5	23.7
2. Type of Account	Personal	93.5	88.7	90.7
	Joint	6.5	8.6	7.7
	Both	0.0	2.6	1.5
3. Whether operate regularly	Yes	26.9	76.2	56.1
	No	73.1	23.8	43.9
4. Have ATM	Yes	22.2	78.2	54.8
	No	77.8	21.8	45.2
5. Do you save regularly (monthly)	Yes	11.7	63.6	42.5
	No	88.3	36.4	57.5
6. Ever availed loan	Yes	7.3	20.4	15.0
	No	92.7	79.6	85.0
7. if yes, purposes of loan	House Construction	40.0	48.8	47.1
	Business	20.0	22.0	21.6
	Children Education	0.0	9.8	7.8
	Others	40.0	19.5	23.5
8. Have LIC Policy	Yes	2.2	22.4	14.1
	No	97.8	77.6	85.9

Source: Field Survey 2017-18

A sector wise analysis in Table 4.14 reveals that there are more females opening saving bank account in rural areas than urban. In the same manner the number of female having personal account are greater in the rural area as compared to urban. This is may be the likely outcome of the flagship bank account scheme, “The Pradhan Mantri Jan Dhan Yojana”(PMJDY) launched by the Prime Minister Narendra Modi across the country back in 2015 to provide bank account to every family in India. However when it comes to regular maintenance of account 76% from urban

areas operate regularly while only 27% operate on regular basis in rural areas. Absence of ATM booth in rural areas also results in only 22% female having ATM card while there are 78 % among urban female. While about 64% have monthly savings in urban areas only 11% save regularly on a monthly basis in rural areas. Low income level and seasonal nature of work in villages could be one good reason for low savings among rural female. Further, 22% have LIC Policy among urban female, while only 2% are covered by the policy in the rural areas.

To sum up it has been found that more than half of women surveyed has Personal Bank Account. However the percentage of those who regularly maintain their accounts and do regular savings turns out to be very low. As well as those covered with life Insurance Policy is also alarmingly low among female population in the study areas.

4.7. Decision Making in the Family

In the patriarchal tribal society, household decision making is normally dominated by husband. However, with the improvement of women status through employment and other contribution, it is expected that they are taking active part in the family decision making. As such, their level of participation is considered to be important variables of women empowerment. Table 4.15 presents the contribution of women in family decision making on housing and other assets.

Table 4.15: Female Participation in Household Decision Making on Housing and Other Assets

SN	Decision variable	Location	Percent					
			Self	Husband	with husband	in-law	others	NA
1	House Construction	Rural	10.2	63.5	10.9	5.8	5.8	3.6
		Urban	5.6	6.1	34.2	19.4	7.1	27.6
		All	7.5	29.7	24.6	13.8	6.6	17.7
2	Purchase of Land	Rural	1.5	39.4	11.7	4.4	8.8	34.3
		Urban	3.6	3.6	25.5	14.3	6.6	46.4
		All	2.7	18.3	19.8	10.2	7.5	41.4
3	Size of land to be purchased	Rural	2.9	53.3	6.6	6.6	7.3	23.4
		Urban	3.6	5.6	25.0	17.3	7.1	41.3
		All	3.3	25.2	17.4	12.9	7.2	33.9
4	Site Selection for land purchase	Rural	6.6	68.6	4.4	4.4	13.9	2.2
		Urban	5.1	5.1	15.8	13.3	5.1	55.6
		All	5.7	31.2	11.1	9.6	8.7	33.6
5	Purchase of Vehicle	Rural	0.0	16.1	4.4	0.0	2.9	76.6
		Urban	5.1	7.7	23.0	8.7	8.2	47.4
		All	3.0	11.1	15.3	5.1	6.0	59.5
6	Purchase of white goods(household appliances)	Rural	10.2	0.0	75.2	2.2	12.4	0.0
		Urban	10.7	1.0	52.6	14.8	13.3	7.7
		All	10.5	0.6	61.9	9.6	12.9	4.5

Source: Field Survey, 2017-18

It is observed from Table 4.15 that female participation on household decision making on purchase of durable assets is very low. The percentages of women who make decision are well below the percentage of husband (male) in all cases except for purchase of white goods (i.e. household appliances). The proportion of women is only 7.5% against 29.7% by husband for house construction, 2. % against 18.3% for purchase of land, 3.3% against 25.2% for size of land purchase, 5.7% against 31.2% for site selection, and 3 % against 11% for vehicle purchase; while it is 10.5 % against 0.6% for purchase of household appliances. Though decision taken by women are very low for purchase of housing and other assets in comparison with husband, decision taken together with husband is quite substantial in all cases. Thus, one can

conclude that women member of the family also participate in the decision-making in consultation with husband in addition to decision taken on their own.

A sector- wise analysis in Table 4.15 shows that there is male dominance and limited participation of women in household decision making in rural areas, while the contribution of women are almost equal to that of the husband in urban areas. It may be argued that urban women are more educated and many of them are employed in formal job than their rural counterpart. As such, they are more empowered in terms of household decision making.

Table 4.16 presents the contribution of women in the decision-making of selected economic activities of the families. While comparing with purchase of family assets, the table show better participation of women in the decision making on economic activities. With the exception of work assignment to family members where only 12% are contributed by women members against 31% by male, the decision made by women members of the family are higher than that of male members for loans (5 % against 3 %), sale of household goods (10.2 % against 10.2%), starting of new business (13.5 % against 8.1 %), allocation of money to different activities (23.4% against 4.5%) and savings (21.3% against 2.7%).

Table 4.16: Female Participation in Household Economic Decision Making

								<i>Percent</i>
SN	Decision variable	Location	Self	Husband	with husband	in-law	others	NA
1	Work assignment to members	Rural	8.8	69.3	6.6	5.8	8.0	1.5
		Urban	14.3	4.1	44.9	15.8	9.2	11.7
		All	12.0	30.9	29.1	11.7	8.7	7.5
2	Loans	Rural	0.7	4.4	6.6	0.0	1.5	86.9
		Urban	8.2	2.6	32.7	13.8	7.7	35.2
		All	5.1	3.3	21.9	8.1	5.1	56.5
3	Sale of household goods	Rural	11.7	21.9	54.7	3.6	8.0	0.0
		Urban	9.2	2.0	35.2	13.8	7.1	32.7
		All	10.2	10.2	43.2	9.6	7.5	19.2
4	Starting of new business	Rural	10.9	17.5	51.1	5.1	9.5	5.8
		Urban	15.3	1.5	48.0	11.2	8.7	15.3
		All	13.5	8.1	49.2	8.7	9.0	11.4
5	Allocation of fund on different activities	Rural	14.6	9.5	64.2	4.4	7.3	0.0
		Urban	29.6	1.0	50.5	8.7	5.1	5.1
		All	23.4	4.5	56.2	6.9	6.0	3.0
6	Savings	Rural	19.7	5.1	65.0	2.9	7.3	0.0
		Urban	22.4	1.0	56.6	7.7	5.1	7.1
		All	21.3	2.7	60.1	5.7	6.0	4.2

Source: Field Survey, 2017-18

Table 4.17 presents Female Participation in Household Decision Making on Family Planning & Child related matters. It reveals that with the question of how many children to have 66% say they decide together with their husband, while about 12% say they decide alone. On the selection of the family planning method 63% consult their husband, 9% decide on their own and 3% is decided by others other than family member. For the selection of school for children 25% make their own decision, while 51% decide together with husband and 2% are decided by in-laws. As with the selection of children's clothing 47% decides independently and 31% consult their husband while in-laws also help to decide to some extent. It may be noted that unmarried respondents (Refer Table 4.3) are also included in this Table. As the Table

include all these respondents, substantial number of NA (No answer or not applicable) are observed.

On matters of marriage of children about 50% decide together with husband while about 13% makes independent decision. As for the decision on children's healthcare 48% consult their husband and make joint decision, 43% decide on their own without consulting anyone while less than 1% is decided by husband alone. On family Planning and Child related matters most of the decisions are taken together with husband and few women makes decision on their own.

It is clear 4.17 that women are not necessarily dominated by men (husband) in decisions related to family planning and other child related matters. Decisions are taken by both wife and husband together. As such, one may say that women are empowered in matters related to family planning and other child related decisions.

In addition, Table 4.18 presents participation decision on miscellaneous activities. It reveals that 19% of the respondent makes their own decision on matters of making contribution to social organisation, 55% decide together with husband while about 4% is decided by husband alone. As with decision on participation in social organisation 30% say they take independent decision while 51% makes joint decision with husband and 4% are decided by in-laws. About 59% say they buy jewellery at their own will while 17% say they buy them in consultation with their husband and less than 1% is decided by husband alone. With buying clothing for oneself 83% buys at their own will and 13% say they decide together with their husband. Around 67% decide for themselves what food to cook and its preparation and less than 1% is decided by husband alone while 3% is decided by in-laws. Thus,

joint decision with husband is the common norms for participation in the activities of social organisation. At the same time, decision related to clothing, jewellery and food preparation are mostly taken by female members of the family.

Table 4.17: Female Participation in Household Decision Making on Family Planning & Child Related Matters

SN	Decision variable	Location	<i>Percent</i>					
			Self	Husband	with husband	in-law	others	NA
1	Number of children	Rural	1.5	2.9	64.2	0.0	0.0	31.4
		Urban	19.4	0.0	67.3	1.5	1.0	10.7
		All	12.0	1.2	66.1	0.9	0.6	19.2
2	Family planning method	Rural	0.0	0.7	70.1	0.0	0.0	29.2
		Urban	16.3	1.0	59.2	3.1	5.6	14.8
		All	9.6	0.9	63.7	1.8	3.3	20.7
3	Selection of school for children	Rural	28.5	1.5	39.4	0.0	14.6	16.1
		Urban	24.0	0.0	59.2	3.6	1.5	11.7
		All	25.8	0.6	51.1	2.1	6.9	13.5
4	Selection children's clothing	Rural	55.5	0.0	21.9	0.0	13.1	9.5
		Urban	41.8	0.0	37.8	3.6	6.1	10.7
		All	47.4	0.0	31.2	2.1	9.0	10.2
5	Marriage of children	Rural	2.9	0.0	38.0	0.0	0.0	59.1
		Urban	19.9	0.5	58.2	1.5	3.1	16.8
		All	12.9	0.3	49.8	0.9	1.8	34.2
6	Child healthcare	Rural	50.4	0.0	48.9	0.0	0.7	0.0
		Urban	38.8	0.5	47.4	3.6	3.1	6.6
		All	43.5	0.3	48.0	2.1	2.1	3.9

Source: Field Survey, 2017-18

Table 4.18: Female Participation in Household Decision Making on Miscellaneous Activities

								<i>Percent</i>
SN	Decision variable	Location	Self	Husband	with husband	in-law	others	NA
1	Contribution to Social Organisation	Rural	19.0	8.8	59.1	4.4	7.3	1.5
		Urban	19.9	0.5	52.0	12.2	8.7	6.6
		All	19.5	3.9	55.0	9.0	8.1	4.5
2	Participation in Social Organisation	Rural	32.8	2.9	50.4	0.7	3.6	9.5
		Urban	28.1	1.0	52.0	6.1	3.1	9.7
		All	30.0	1.8	51.4	3.9	3.3	9.6
3	Purchase of jewellery, etc.	Rural	69.3	0.7	19.0	0.0	0.0	10.9
		Urban	53.1	0.0	16.3	3.6	3.6	23.5
		All	59.8	0.3	17.4	2.1	2.1	18.3
4	Purchase of clothing for self	Rural	86.9	0.0	12.4	0.0	0.7	0.0
		Urban	81.6	0.5	14.3	0.0	0.5	3.1
		All	83.8	0.3	13.5	0.0	0.6	1.8
5	Food selection & preparation	Rural	76.6	0.0	2.9	0.0	16.1	4.4
		Urban	60.2	1.5	13.8	5.1	14.3	5.1
		All	67.0	0.9	9.3	3.0	15.0	4.8

Source: Field Survey, 2017-18

Sector-wise analysis reveals that the percentage of decision making by oneself among rural female is comparatively higher than urban female in the entire decision variable indicating some level of empowerment. On the reverse except for food selection and preparation variable the percentage of husband making decision on all the given decision variable is comparatively higher in rural areas suggesting the extent of influence men has in personal and family matters. Overall it has been found that the percentage of women making their own decision in personal related matters like purchase of jewellery, clothing and food selection and preparation is very high whereas decision on contribution and participation in social organisation is mostly taken together with husband.

4.8. Technology Usage and Other Personal Decisions

Today mobile phone has become a necessity of life both for rural and urban dwellers. As shown in Table 4.19 more than 92% of those interviewed have mobile phones while 7% said they do not have one. On asking why they do not have one 70% said they do not know how to operate mobile phones, around 12% said they do not need phones and another 16% simply do not have the money to buy it. Thus, those women who know how to use and have money are free to buy mobile phones. Looking at the sector wise distribution there are more mobile phone owners in urban areas than rural areas. There are 12% who do not have phones among rural respondent while there are only 4% among urban dwellers. As for the reason for not owning one 73% in the rural area said they do not know how to operate it and around 6% said they have no use of it while another 20% said they do not have the money to buy it. In urban area 66% don't know how to use it, 22% have no use for it and another 11% do not have the money to buy it. But overall it can be seen that more than 90% of women within the study area have mobile phones and only a handful do not feel the need to have one.

Table 4.19 also presents uses of social networking sites and reveals how social media has become a part of life for everyone living in urban and rural area. About 46% of the respondent frequent social networking sites while 53% said they do not use social media. Facebook and Whatsapp are the two sites most visited and whatsapp has more users among them. Asked if there is any objection from husband less than 4% said they do get objection but the remaining 96% said they have no objection from husband indicating freedom of women to use social networking sites. About

49% said using social network sites improved self-confidence and about 50% said it made no difference for them. Comparing the two sectors it can be seen that there are comparatively more users of social networking sites in the urban area as compared to rural area. The networking sites most visited by both rural and urban female are Facebook and Whatsapp though the percentage is relatively higher among rural users. The networking sites most frequented is whatsapp for both sectors where it is 97% for urban and 75% for rural dwellers. On asking if there is any objection from husband it is negative for rural while there are 4% who face objection among urban dwellers. Among rural female about 76% say using social networking sites improves their self-confidence while among the urban dwellers around 57% say it made no difference to them. In summing up it can be seen that nearly half of the respondents use social networking sites and just about the same number believe that using social networking sites boost their self-confidence.

Table 4.19: Uses of Mobile Phone

SN	Particulars	Response	Percent		
			Rural	Urban	All
1	Have mobile phone?	Yes	87.6	95.9	92.5
		No	12.4	4.1	7.5
2	If no, reason	don't know how to use	73.3	66.7	70.8
		don't need	6.7	22.2	12.5
		no money to buy	20.0	11.1	16.7
3	Use of social networking site	Yes	21.2	64.8	46.8
		No	78.8	35.2	53.2
4	If yes, sites used	Facebook	3.4	0.8	1.3
		Whatsapp	13.8	29.8	26.9
		Facebook & Whatsapp	82.8	52.7	58.1
		All of these	0.0	16.8	13.8
5	Most frequently used	Facebook	25.0	3.1	6.9
		Whatsapp	75.0	96.9	93.1
6	Any objection from husband	Yes	0.0	4.3	3.5
		No	100.0	95.7	96.5
7	Whether improve self confidence	Yes	75.9	43.1	49.1
		No	24.1	56.9	50.9

Source: Field Survey 2017-18

Table 4.20: Empowerment Indicators in Day to Day Activities

SN	Particulars	Answer	Percent		
			Rural	Urban	All
1	Whether driving vehicle	Yes	0.7	9.7	6.0
		No	99.3	90.3	94.0
2	Goes to Market by self	Yes	96.4	85.1	89.8
		No	3.6	15.4	10.5
3	Whether use ATM	Yes	14.6	54.4	38.0
		No	85.4	46.2	62.3
4	Have internet/mobile banking	Yes	3.6	21.0	13.9
		No	96.4	79.5	86.4
5	Visit doctors' clinic by own decision	Yes	90.5	75.9	81.9
		No	9.5	24.6	18.4

Source: Field Survey 2017-18

Using the empowerment indicators in day to day activities as given in Table 4.20 one can see the level of empowerment among the respondents. Of the total number of females interviewed only 6% said they can drive leaving out the remaining 94% without any driving skill. Around 90% said they go to market on their own but only 38% reported to use ATM and just about 14% use internet banking. About 82% said they visit doctors' clinic in their own initiation while 18% said they cannot do it on their own. Considering the small number of female who could drive vehicles, almost all the respondent interviewed in rural areas could not drive any type of vehicles while there are around 7% among urban female. This indicates 94% cannot move around freely by themselves and has to rely on someone for transport. If being independent is one indicator of empowerment then these women have a long way to go to be empowered. In both rural and urban area more than 85% are free to visit market on their own meaning women have freedom of mobility. The ability to use ATM is quite low for rural female which could be due to non-availability of ATM booth in rural area. There are about 54% among urban female who regularly use ATM whereas there are 85% among rural dwellers who never use ATM most likely due to

non-availability of ATM services in villages as well as non-operation of Bank accounts. The number of respondents who use internet banking both in rural and urban area is relatively very small bringing to light how much work still needs to be done for women to stay empowered. As for visiting doctors' clinic on their own free will rural dwellers surprisingly out do urban dweller which is a useful move toward empowerment. Most women do well with going to the market and visiting Doctor's clinic on their own. But driving vehicle and using internet banking majority of women are reliant on male members and therefore lag behind in empowerment.

4.9. General Perception on Empowerment

To find out the general perception of women on empowerment some pertinent questions were posed to the respondent and they were asked to rate them in a five point scale as follows- strongly disagree, disagree, undecided, agree and strongly agree. The results are presented in Table 4.21. The different responses given by respondents reflect the diverse view of women across the rural/urban sectors. On asking if major and important decision should be made by men alone 51% strongly agree to it while 4% said they strongly disagree and 38% simply disagrees to it. Asked if married women should be allowed to work outside home 81% agree to it but 12% disagree and less than 1% strongly disagrees to the idea indicating that some women are still very conservative in their view of fellow women.

Table 4.21: Women Perception on Empowerment

SN	Decision variable	Location	Percent				
			Strongly Disagree	Disagree	undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	Major decision should be made by man	Rural	0.0	19.0	0.0	70.1	10.9
		Urban	6.6	52.0	1.5	37.8	2.0
		All	3.9	38.4	0.9	51.1	5.7
2	Married women should be allowed to work outside home	Rural	0.0	22.6	3.6	73.7	0.0
		Urban	0.5	5.6	1.5	86.7	5.6
		All	0.5	12.7	2.4	81.3	3.3
3	Husband should also help in household works if wife has a job	Rural	0.0	5.1	0.0	93.4	1.5
		Urban	0.0	3.1	1.5	89.3	6.1
		All	0.0	3.9	0.9	91.0	4.2
4	Wife should be allowed to express her views and comments in family decision	Rural	0.0	0.0	0.0	97.8	2.2
		Urban	0.0	0.0	0.5	88.8	10.7
		All	0.0	0.0	0.3	92.5	7.2
5	Women should have superior position than men in the family	Rural	23.4	74.5	0.0	2.2	0.0
		Urban	9.2	80.1	2.6	6.6	1.5
		All	15.0	77.8	1.5	4.8	0.9
6	Women should have a say in the decision regarding birth control	Rural	0.0	57.7	3.6	38.0	0.7
		Urban	2.6	20.4	9.2	63.3	4.6
		All	1.5	35.7	6.9	52.9	3.0
7	women should be decision maker in children's education	Rural	0.0	81.0	3.6	15.3	0.0
		Urban	1.5	57.7	4.6	33.2	3.1
		All	0.9	67.3	4.2	25.8	1.8
8	Women should have equal right of inheritance	Rural	1.5	13.1	7.3	77.4	0.7
		Urban	0.0	2.0	3.6	86.7	7.7
		All	0.6	6.6	5.1	82.9	4.8
9	Mizo Customary Law Favours man	Rural	0.0	21.9	16.1	62.0	0.0
		Urban	2.6	47.4	12.8	34.2	3.1
		All	1.5	36.9	14.1	45.6	1.8
10	Women should have equal access to hierarchy in church administration	Rural	0.0	29.2	7.3	63.5	0.0
		Urban	1.5	12.8	4.1	76.0	5.6
		All	0.9	19.5	5.4	70.9	3.3
11	Women with permanent job enjoy better status in the family	Rural	0.0	4.4	5.8	89.8	0.0
		Urban	0.0	17.9	10.2	70.4	1.5
		All	0.0	12.3	8.4	78.4	0.9
12	Women with permanent job have more say in buying and selling of family assets	Rural	0.0	31.4	12.4	56.2	0.0
		Urban	0.0	20.4	9.7	68.4	1.5
		All	0.0	24.9	10.8	63.4	0.9
13	Educated employed women command more respect in the family and society	Rural	0.0	0.7	0.7	98.5	0.0
		Urban	0.0	1.0	1.0	89.3	8.7
		All	0.0	0.9	0.9	93.1	5.1

Source: Field Survey 2017-18

With the statement on whether husband should also help with house work if their wives are working, 4% disagree while 91% say they agree to it. About 99% overwhelmingly agrees that wife should be allowed to express her views and comments in family decision and less than 1% remain undecided. The idea of women having a superior position than men in the family is not taken very well by women themselves, 93% disagrees outright to the statement, only 5% agrees to it and less than 2% remain undecided.

On the statement of whether women should have a say in the decision regarding birth control 56% agrees to it, 35% disagree and less than 2% strongly disagree meaning that some women solely depend on their husband to make the decision for them. With regard to children's education 27% agree that women should be decision maker but 67% totally disagree and 1% strongly disagree with the idea. About 83% agree and 5% strongly agrees that women should have equal right of inheritance with men while 7% feels otherwise. According to the Mizo Hnam Dan 1956, as a rule no women can inherit the property as long as the male heir is alive. But only in the absence of a male heir can women inherit (Aleaz 2005). The high %age in support of equal inheritance right with men reflects the common view of Mizo women that they should be treated at par with men. To the statement Mizo customary Law favours men, 46% agrees and 1% strongly agrees to the statement while 39% chose to disagree. To have 39% disagree to this statement contradicts the previous response where an overwhelming 88% feels women should have equal inheritance right with men a direct reference to the biasness of the Mizo customary law. As for leadership role in church administration 71% agree and 3% strongly agree that women should have access to the top echelon within the church's hierarchy. So far, except for the

Baptist Church of Mizoram, all other churches refuse to grant eldership and ordination to priesthood to female theologian which is perceived as discrimination towards women in the religious sphere. To the statement, women with permanent job enjoy better status in the family only 12% disagree to this statement while 79% say they agree and 8% could not make any decision. In buying and selling of family asset 64% agree that women with permanent job have more voice while another 25% think otherwise. These may be taken as clear reflection of the impact of employment on empowerment. There are 98% who fully agree that educated employed women command more respect in the family and society while less than 1% decline to agree with it and less than a %age could not form their opinion.

A sector wise analysis reveals that there are contrasting views among women living in rural and urban areas in some key gender issues. It is quite likely that the background in which they are brought up could be one contributing factor for this difference. While more than half (58%) of urban respondents are against the idea of men only making important decisions 70% of women in rural areas wholeheartedly agree with the statement. When it comes to allowing married women to work outside home rural women are found to be more conservative than urban women because 22% feels that married women should not be allowed to work outside home while 86% of urban respondents support women working outside home. While 63% of urban women agree that women should be allowed to have a say in the decision - making on birth control, 57% of rural respondents could not agree to the idea. Again, while 33% urban dwellers could agree that women should be decision maker on children's education an overwhelming 81% from rural areas could not agree on this statement. For women to have a superior position in the family than men 23% of rural

respondent said they strongly disagree to it as compared to 9% who feel the same among urban female. As for women having equal rights to family inheritance with men, among rural female 14% said they disagree while only 2% said the same among urban female.

The contrasting response given by both sectors reflects how the places we live in determine our views and value. In rural areas where lives are dictated by culture and traditions people have conservative views. Hence they find it difficult to agree on issues which support women folk. The general perception which see women as weak and vulnerable in society, to a large extent mould the mentality of rural women to see themselves inferior to male folk and therefore not in a position to make big decisions. However, it is interesting to note that there are more rural female who agree that Mizo Customary Law favours men while less than 3% strongly disagree among urban dwellers. There are more urban female who agree that women should have equal access to church hierarchy and women with permanent job should have more voice in the buying and selling of family asset. On the other hand almost 90% rural female believe that women holding permanent job enjoy better status in the family and almost 99% agree that educated employed women command more respect in the family and society.

In addition to the assessments on the general perception on different arguments related to women empowerment given in Table 4.21, the respondents were also asked to provide suggested measures for women empowerment. They were asked to provide rating on measures posted in three scales – high, medium and low to understand which measure is considered most important for empowering women. The

result is presented in Table 4.22. The table reveals that providing stable employment opportunities to women is highly recommended for empowering them. Secondly, the survey reveals that providing better access to good education is the second most recommended measure for empowerment. Providing freedom to choose profession and mobility of movement is the third recommended measure to bring about empowerment to women. Also reserving seat for women in the legislature and improving the position of girls to receive better share of the inheritance are also considered to be an important measure for bringing empowerment to women folk. Thus to bring about the much needed empowerment first and foremost it is imperative for government and private sector to provide stable employment opportunity for women.

Table 4.22: Suggested Measures for Women Empowerment

SN	Parameters	<i>Percent</i>			
		High	Medium	Low	Total
1	Provide Stable Employment	84.1	12.6	3.3	100
2	Provide better access to good education	17.6	79.9	2.5	100
3	Strengthening position in the family	5.0	35.0	60.0	100
4	Give opportunity to participate in Church and NGO activities	9.6	26.5	63.9	100
5	Reservation in the Legislature	5.0	14.0	81.0	100
6	Freedom to choose profession & mobility	3.8	12.4	83.8	100
7	Better position in the inheritance	9.0	19.2	71.8	100

Source: Field Survey 2017-18

4.10. Summary

The above analysis on the conditions of women employment and empowerment in the study areas shows that although there is no illiteracy among the

working age women, the level of their educational attainment is very low. The educations of more than 63% of the women are up to High School level, while only 21.3% are Graduate & above. A more intense situation is observed in rural areas where more than 78% are Middle School and below. Low educational level among women will have serious impact on their employability in different kind of jobs.

As much as 55.3% of the women are reported as not engaging in any specific work and they are categorised as housewife and the remaining 44.7% are engaged as self-employed, government employees, casual workers and other works. A further enquiry of the job profile of those engaged in organised job (government job) and who were ready to provide their responses, show that almost 90% of them are working in clerical and lower rank jobs. Thus, most of the women employees are working in clerical and lower rank jobs in Mizoram.

The analysis of the family socio-economic conditions of the respondents show more or less stable condition in which 79% live in own house; and 36.3% in pucca and 23.7% in semi-pucca houses, while 39.9% live in kutcha house. The average monthly income is ₹36047, and urban income of ₹49227 is significantly higher than rural income (i.e. ₹17193). However, this study observed skewed distribution of income where almost half (48.9%) of the rural households are earning below ₹10000 per month with only 8% having above ₹50000 per month. In urban areas, around 57% of the respondent families are having income below ₹30000 per month, while 24% are having above ₹50000 per month. In addition, 77.8% of the respondents are married, while majority (64.9%) are living in nuclear family, and 70.6% are wife of head of

family. Being wife of the head of nuclear families, the respondents are expected to occupy better position and have more freedom to participate in household decisions.

The study observed that women members assumed heavy responsibility of household works like chores, childcare, etc. in addition to their normal works. It is observed that almost half (47.4%) of the women spent their leisure time for household chores, and almost 40% of women claimed to have contributed more than 70% of household works (both in and outside house).

Study of the ownership of family properties and assets in the name of the respondents reveal very low access of women members to household valuable and inheritable assets like land pass, house, vehicles and business. This is shown by the fact that 64.26% of land pass (LSC, Periodic Patta, etc.), 72.37% of other plot of land, 54% of dwelling houses, 67% of two wheeler, 58% of four-wheeler, and 52% of own business (shops) are registered in husbands' name. At the same time, women have visible command and access to personal properties and gender sensitive assets like mobile phone, jewellery (gold, diamond, silver, etc.).

Mizo women have been found to enjoy freedom in joining different social organisations. It is observed that more than half (64.9%) of those surveyed are members of state level NGOs like MHIP for reasons of self-improvement and to socialise with one another (56.2%). And the level of participation is much higher in rural areas. However, it is surprising to note that as much as 62.1% of those joining NGO reported that joining NGO's has made no improvement to their status in the family and society. A similar attitude has also been found to prevail among SHG members. Thus, there is room for improvement in the role of state level women

federation (like MHIP) to uplift the status of its fellow members within family and society. It may be argued that while freedom of women to join community based organisations is considered an indicator of empowerment, in reality it does not necessarily translate into their empowerment in the family and society as a whole.

The banking coverage of women in rural and urban areas of Mizoram is quite impressive as more than 76% have Saving Bank Account, mostly personal account (90%). More than half (56%) are reported to have operated their account regularly and substantial number of 42.5% save on regular basis. Since opening Saving Bank Account in one's name implicate capacity of the female members to handle financial transaction in financial institution, one may say that there is empowerment of women in financial literacy in the study areas. However, the insurance coverage of the women (14.1%) is extremely low reflecting their dismal status in terms of future social security.

Analysis of the contribution of women in the family decision making show that women are not necessarily dominated by husband in most activities. It is observed that joint decision with husband is the common practice in the study areas. For example, decisions are taken jointly with husband in majority of the cases for the following: purchase of white goods (62%), allocation of fund on different activities (56.2%), savings (60.1%), number of children (66.1%), family planning method (63.7%), children's education (51%), contribution to social organisation (55%) and participation in social organisation (51.4%).

In comparing the contribution of men in household decision making, women participation is observed to be very low for acquisition (or purchase) of durable assets.

It is observed that only 7.5%, 2.7%, 3.3%, 5.7%, 3%, and 12% of the decision were taken by women for house construction, purchase of land, size of land to be purchased, site selection for land, purchase of vehicle and work assignment of members respectively. At the same time, decision taken by men to each of these items are 29.7%, 18.3%, 25.2%, 31.2%, 11.1% and 30.9% respectively. Meanwhile, their level of participation is significantly higher than that of husband on decisions regarding purchase of household appliances (10.2%), allocation of fund to different activities (23.4%), savings (21.3%), purchase of jewellery (59.8%), clothing (83.8%), food selection & preparation (67%) and contribution to social organisations (19.5%). It is also noteworthy that women have higher command than men (husband) in the decisions related to family planning and child related matters.

The assessment on the perceptions of the respondents on women empowerment shows that majority of the women agree with the statements that favours women empowerment. However, more than 80% of the respondents are in favour of the statement that major decision should be made by men. Moreover, more than 97% of the respondents disagree with the statement that women should have superior position than men in the family. It is also notable that 62% of respondents believe Mizo Customary Law favours man. Therefore, it can be concluded that most women support empowerment of women in different activities of the family and the society, but are not willing to be superior to man in the family and rather, hold the view that major decision should be taken by men.

Regarding the relationship between employment and empowerment, around 90% agree with the view that women with permanent job enjoy better status in the

family, 56.2% agree with the view that women with permanent job have more say in buy and sell of family assets, and 98.5% agree with the argument that educated employed women command more respect in the family and society. These results clearly suggest that employment have significantly positive impact on women empowerment in the study areas. In clear justification to this conclusion, provision of stable employment is the most suggested measure (High-84.1% in Table 4.22) for women empowerment. Thus, provision of employment should be considered as the significant factors of women empowerment.

Chapter 5

AN ANALYSIS ON THE EMPIRICAL RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EMPLOYMENT AND WOMEN EMPOWEMENT

5.1. Introduction

Opinions have been divided among researchers about the relationship between employment and women empowerment. Many researchers are of the opinion that employment is potentially empowering and liberating only if it provides women an opportunity to improve their well-being and enhance their capabilities but if employment is forcefully driven by distress and is low paying, it only increases women's drudgery (Srivastava, 2009). The argument follows that simply working and earning a wage is not enough to empower women rather it is control over resources which is most important as it influences the bargaining power of an individual in the decision making process (Kabeer, 1997; Blumberg, 2005). West (2006) pointed out on the same line that women may work but if they have no control over resources they are unlikely to gain any power in the household. In other words, women's position in society and household is not determined alone by her contribution to the economic process but by yielding certain amount of control over resources.

However, there are also some who like to oppose that yielding control over resources is empowering for women. Pant (2000) points out that in a patriarchal society where norms support men's right to power, such power is legitimised and become authoritative. As such in these societies the existing power structures remain undisturbed even when women earn and exercise considerable power in decision making within the household. While these varied views may seem valid for some,

there are scholars who think otherwise and consider employment as one of the most important source of women's empowerment (Agarwal, 1997 and Kabeer, 1999). Several empirical findings reveal that employment is critical for enhancing women's status in the family and society. Blumberg (2005) goes so far as to say that enhancing women's control over income and other key economic resource is like a magic potion for gender equality, development and empowerment.

Hossain and Jain (2011) claimed that among different determinants of women's empowerment like education, employment status, age, family status, contribution to household income etc. employment plays a vital role. Women who are involved in any income related activities or who contribute in the family income are found to be more empowered than women who are not engaged in any income related activities. Thus work plays an important role in helping individuals establish their identity and self-esteem and helps them to derive a sense of mastery over themselves and their environment (Ramanamma & Bambawale, 1987). Kabeer (1999) cited findings from different studies in Bangladesh, Thailand, India, Zimbabwe and USA where it is claimed that employment has a positive relation to women's empowerment. As such it is argued from different evidences that access to employment acts positively towards women's empowerment by enhancing their ability to exercise agency- the ability to define one's goal and act upon them (Kabeer, 1999). Thus, women employment as a factor of empowerment is worth studying.

This chapter examines the relationship between women employment and empowerment using several indicators based on the primary survey data of the study area during 2017-18. The central objective of this chapter is to study the relationship

between employment and women's empowerment. Parameters of empowerment are derived from three major areas – control of assets and resources, decision making in the family, and personal development. Meanwhile, employment statuses of the respondents are also correlated with their socio-economic profiles, and their attitude towards empowerment. To chalk out more factual and conclusive result, indices of women empowerment are also constructed as per the methodology enumerated in Chapter 1. The impact of employment on these indices is examined using chi-square statistic and regression analysis.

5.2. Employment and Socio-Economic Conditions

Though it is understood that there are a multiple indicators for the socio-economic conditions of the individual, decision have been made to use here only five indicators to represent the socio-economic profiles of the respondents. They are age distribution, education, marital status, family type and income distribution; and each of these variables is cross-tabulated with respective employment status. The economic status of the respondents are simply divided into four category namely- Housewife, Self-employed/Business, Government Employee and Others (casual/daily worker). Further, for the sake of our study we define *employment* as the act of earning an income from any work done within a period of one year regardless of the duration of work done. Of the four economic status mentioned above Self-employed, Government employee and others (casual/daily workers) are considered *employed* as they earn income in some form within a period of one year. Meanwhile, *housewife* is registered as unemployed in this study as house work performed by wife does not command any

type of income as housework is considered part and parcel of the wife's duty in the family. Table 5.1 presents different socio-economic indicators and the employment conditions of the respondents.

Table 5.1: Categories of Employment and Socio-Economic Conditions (Percent)

Socio-Eco Indicators	Housewife	Self Employed/ Business	Government Employee	Other (casual, daily, etc.)	Total
A. Age Distribution (yrs)					
below 30	60.3	20.7	0.0	19.0	100
30 - 40	50.6	17.3	13.6	18.5	100
40 - 50	53.8	25.6	17.9	2.6	100
50 - 60	47.3	23.0	28.4	1.4	100
60 & <	73.8	16.7	9.5	0.0	100
Total	55.3	21.0	15.0	8.7	100
B. Education					
below Primary	75.9	20.7	3.4	0.0	100
Primary Level	78.9	15.8	2.6	2.6	100
Middle	76.4	19.1	1.1	3.4	100
High School	60.0	23.6	10.9	5.5	100
HSS	39.2	33.3	19.6	7.8	100
Graduate & above	15.5	15.5	43.7	25.4	100
Total	55.3	21.0	15.0	8.7	100
C. Marital Status					
Married	62.5	18.5	14.7	4.2	100
Divorced	15.8	47.4	10.5	26.3	100
Widowed	57.1	25.0	14.3	3.6	100
Single	11.1	22.2	22.2	44.4	100
Total	55.3	21.0	15.0	8.7	100
D. Family Type					
Joint	51.4	25.7	12.8	10.1	100
Nuclear	58.8	17.1	16.2	7.9	100
Single	12.5	62.5	12.5	12.5	100
Total	55.3	21.0	15.0	8.7	100
E. Income (₹/Month)					
below 10000	78.5	15.2	3.8	2.5	100
10000-20000	51.6	32.3	1.6	14.5	100
20000-30000	76.0	12.0	4.0	8.0	100
30000-40000	53.5	18.6	14.0	14.0	100
40000-50000	42.1	21.1	21.1	15.8	100
50000 & <	26.3	25.0	42.5	6.3	100
Total	55.3	21.0	15.0	8.7	100

Source: Computed from Field Survey Data

As presented in Table 5.1 housewives constitute more than half (55.3%) of all the respondents. Of the different age groups, those above 60 years shows the highest percentage of housewife followed by below 30 years. The percentage of other (casual work, daily labourer, etc.) is found to be highest in the age group <30 years followed by 30-40 group, while the percentage of government employees is highest in 50-60 years (28.4%) followed by 40-50 years (17.9%). Given this information, it may be argued that women started working in different job opportunities in the informal sector before getting into formal job or business.

Looking at the educational status of the respondents, it can be seen that the percentage of housewife declines with the increasing level of educations among the women and the decline is accounted for by the increasing percentage of government employees and other works. Those who are graduate & above constitutes the highest percentage of other workers (25.4%), which may be interpreted as the inadequate job opportunities in formal sector which compelled the educated women to earn income from other works. At the same time, there is no clear pattern on the marital status and family type of the respondents with respect to employment. Meanwhile the percentage of housewives declines with an increasing income, but those who are self-employed and government employees tended to increase with income indicating the significant impact of the salary on the family income among the respondents.

Table 5.2: Socio-Economic and Employment Status (Percent)

Indicators	Unemployed	Employed	Total	Chi-Square	p-value
A. Age Distribution					
below 30	19.0	15.4	17.4	9.12	0.058
30 - 40	22.3	26.8	24.3		
40 - 50	22.8	24.2	23.4		
50 - 60	19.0	26.2	22.2		
60 & <	16.8	7.4	12.6		
B. Education level					
below Primary	12.0	4.7	8.7	80.92***	0.000
Primary Level	16.3	5.4	11.4		
Middle	37.0	14.1	26.7		
High School	17.9	14.8	16.5		
HSS	10.9	20.8	15.3		
Graduate & above	6.0	40.3	21.3		
C. Marital Status					
Married	88.0	65.1	77.8	38.86***	0.000
Divorced	1.6	10.7	5.7		
Widowed	8.7	8.1	8.4		
Single	1.6	16.1	8.1		
D. Family Type					
Joint	30.4	35.6	32.7	7.67***	0.022
Nuclear	69.0	59.7	64.9		
Single	0.5	4.7	2.4		
E. Family Income (₹/Month)					
below 10000	33.7	11.4	23.7	54.88***	0.000
10000-20000	17.4	20.1	18.6		
20000-30000	20.7	8.1	15.0		
30000-40000	12.5	13.4	12.9		
40000-50000	4.3	7.4	5.7		
50000 & <	11.4	39.6	24.0		

Source: Computed from Field Survey Data

***significant at 1% level of significance & **significant at 5% level of significance

In our attempt to examine the relationship between the women employment and their socio-economic conditions, it was realised that the limited frequency in some cells of Table 5.1 do not conform to the requirement of Chi-square test. To

make it appropriate for statistical test, it is decided to re-group the employment categories into two as employed and unemployed in all the subsequent sections of this Chapter. As noted above, all respondents who reported themselves as housewife with no engagement in economic activities (income generating activities) are categorised as *unemployed*, while the remaining respondents engaged in economic activities (government employees, self-employed and other works) are categorised as *employed*. The result of the exercise is given in Table 5.2.

As presented in Table 5.2, the Chi-square statistics are found to be significant at 5% level for education, marital status, and family income. Thus, it may be concluded that employment has clear impact on the socio-economic conditions of the women in the study areas. In respect to educational level, one can see that percentage increase with increase in the level of education, while the percentage of unemployment decreasing with an increasing educational attainment. Taking into consideration the highly significant test statistic, it can be concluded that education level has positive impact on the employment condition of the women.

One can also see a significant level of relationship between employment and marital status of respondent. The percentage of those who stay in marriage is exceptionally high for the unemployed but very low for divorce and single status. In comparisons the percentage of divorce and single status is moderately high among employed women indicating the level of independence these women enjoy. An employed female, single or divorcee has better chance of standing on her own feet than an unemployed female as she has financial security to fall back on. She is free to make decisions for herself and takes control of her life. Whereas for an unemployed

female the risk is very high as she is dependent on her husband for all her needs. Therefore we can say that employment and marital status are significantly associated.

Employment and Family type is also found to be significantly related .The percentage of those living in joint family is higher among the employed whereas those living in nuclear family is higher among the unemployed. As for those who live in single family it is relatively higher among the educated women. In comparing the level of income between the employed and unemployed one can see a considerable difference. It is observed from the table that among the unemployed only a small percentage (11%) could afford to earn ₹50,000 and above while over 71 percent earn less than ₹30,000. Comparatively among the employed 39 percent earn ₹50,000 and above a month and over 60 percent earn above ₹30,000. Only 11 percent has been found to earn below ₹10,000. Taken as a whole we can see that income wise the employed are better off than majority of unemployed. Therefore one can say that there is a significant level of relationship between employment and level of income.

5.3. Ownership of Assets and Resources

In a typical patriarchal society where this study was conducted family assets normally goes in the name of male members of the family as they are organised along patriarchal lines. Descent and property is transmitted through the male line leaving women effectively without property and genealogically irrelevant (Kabeer et al., 2011). When a woman move to the husband's home after marriage she is cut off from the support of, and the ability to contribute to her natal family. As such many women ended up in a position where they have no ownership of assets in their name and if

they happen to own one it may be that it is jointly owned with husband or owned together with the husband's family. To examine the impact of women employment on their command of resources and assets in the family, 13 related questions were asked to the respondents and the results are presented in Table 5.3.

In Table 5.3, a comparison of personal ownership of different assets and properties are made between the employed and the unemployed respondents. The calculated Chi-square statistics is found to be significant in all categories of household assets, except for two employment card and family ration cards for food subsidy which are legally bounded for equal access to both sexes. It can thus be concluded that there is significant difference between employed and unemployed women on access to household assets or asset ownership.

Table 5.3: Ownership of Assets by the Employed and Unemployed Women

Different Assets	Unemployed (%)				Employed (%)				Chi-Square
	Family Don't Have	Not by Self	With Husband	Self	Family Don't Have	Not by Self	With Husband	Self	
1. Land Pass (LSC, P. Patta, etc.)	4.3	71.2	7.6	16.8	5.4	55.7	10.1	28.9	9.17**
2. Other plot of land (LSC, P.Patta, etc.)	20.1	72.3	2.7	4.9	9.4	72.5	5.4	12.8	13.7***
3. Living House	4.3	62.5	12.5	20.7	2.0	43.6	12.8	41.6	18.83***
4. Two Wheeler by Self	27.7	69.0	1.6	1.6	8.7	64.4	2.0	24.8	52.68***
5. Four Wheeler by Self	52.7	45.7	1.6	0.0	16.1	73.2	3.4	7.4	55.72***
6. Jewellery (Gold, Diamond, Silver, etc.)	7.1	59.8	0.0	33.2	3.4	20.1	0.7	75.8	62.82***
7. Mobile Phone	0.5	0.0	13.0	86.4	0.0	0.0	2.7	97.3	12.89***
8. Laptop Computer	40.2	57.6	1.1	1.1	8.7	65.1	6.7	19.5	69.10***
9. Employment Card (NREGA, etc.)	31.5	56.0	2.2	10.3	36.2	50.3	1.3	12.1	1.58
10. Ration Card (Food) by name	1.6	24.5	21.2	52.7	0.0	25.5	29.5	45.0	5.76
11. Family Gas Connection	6.0	46.2	6.0	41.8	0.0	27.5	12.1	60.4	25.67***
12. Have Driving License	2.7	0.5	94.0	2.7	3.4	0.0	69.8	26.8	42.2***
13. Own business (shops, etc.)	44.6	53.3	0.0	2.2	10.7	49.7	4.0	35.6	93.27***

Source: Computed from Field Survey Data

***significant at 1% level & **significant at 5% level

It is observed from Table 5.3 that ownership of land pass in the name of women, i.e. self (the respondent) is 28.9% for employed as against 16.8% for unemployed. Similarly, there are clear differences between employed and unemployed, such as it is 12.8% against 4.9% for other land, 41.6% against 20.7% for living house, 24.8% against 1.6% for two wheeler, 75.8% against 33.2%, 97.3% against 86.4%, 60.4% against 41.8% for LPG connection, 26.8% against 2.7% in case of driving license, and 35.6% against 2.2% on business (shops, etc.). All these observations have revealed that employed women has significantly higher advantage in ownership of household assets. It may thus be concluded that, although most respondent follow a patriarchal system where ownership of family assets goes in the name of male members, our study shows that employment do have a profound impact on the ownership of assets by female member.

5.4. Decision Making

Mizo Society, in which this study is conducted, has patriarchal system where male domination is present to be seen at every level of society from household to Churches and NGO's. Churches and state level NGO like Central YMA, MUP etc. all has male members at its top tier of administration leaving no opportunity for female members to climb the top rung of leadership. Therefore, decision-making especially on important matters all fall in the hands of male members whether it is at household level or society level. So, it would be worthwhile to analyse how women employment have impact on the decision-making process in the family and society.

Table 5.4 presents a comparison between employed and unemployed women in household decision making on housing and assets. On matters like purchase of land and vehicles, our data shows that decision taken by employed female by herself is overwhelmingly higher than an unemployed female. On matters of house construction, purchase of land, decision on size and site of land to buy husband dominates the decision-making process among the unemployed female whereas a good deal is decided together with husband among the employed female for the same matter. It is also observed that in-laws interfere to a certain extent in decision-making among the unemployed female household. As the Chi-square statistic is found to be significant for all cases, it may, thus, be concluded that female employments do have a significant relationship with decision-making on housing and assets.

Table 5.4: Participation of Employed and Unemployed Women in Household Decision Making on Housing & Assets (Percent)

Decision		NA	Others	In-Laws	Husband	With Husband	Self	Chi-Square
1. House Construction	U	10.9	3.8	14.7	42.4	22.3	6.0	40.36***
	E	26.2	10.1	12.8	14.1	27.5	9.4	
2. Purchase of Land	U	38.6	5.4	12.0	25.5	17.9	0.5	23.94***
	E	45.0	10.1	8.1	9.4	22.1	5.4	
3. Size for land purchase	U	29.3	4.3	15.2	35.9	13.0	2.2	33.48***
	E	39.6	10.7	10.1	12.1	22.8	4.7	
4. Site selection for land purchase	U	21.2	8.2	10.9	44.6	10.9	4.3	44.5***
	E	49.0	9.4	8.1	14.8	11.4	7.4	
5. Purchase of vehicle	U	67.4	3.8	6.5	10.3	10.9	1.1	19.85***
	E	49.7	8.7	3.4	12.1	20.8	5.4	
6. Purchase of household appliances	U	0.0	11.4	10.9	0.5	72.3	4.9	39.55***
	E	10.1	14.8	8.1	0.7	49.0	17.4	

Source: Computed from Field Survey Data

***significant at 1% and **significant at 5% level. & NA: No Answer, U: Unemployed & E: Employed

Table 5.5: Participation of Employed and Unemployed Women in Decision Making on Economic Activities - (Percent)

Decision		NA	Others	In-Laws	Husband	With Husband	Self	Chi-Square
1. Work Assignment to members	U	1.6	7.6	47.3	25.0	13.6	4.9	71.63***
	E	14.8	17.4	10.7	34.2	9.4	13.4	
2. Loans	U	67.4	0.5	8.7	4.3	18.5	0.5	45.9***
	E	43.0	10.7	7.4	2.0	26.2	10.7	
3. Sale of household goods	U	13.0	4.9	12.0	16.3	46.7	7.1	34.37***
	E	26.8	10.7	6.7	2.7	38.9	14.1	
4. Starting new business	U	7.6	8.2	12.0	13.6	53.3	5.4	46.9***
	E	16.1	10.1	4.7	1.3	44.3	23.5	
5. Fund allocation to different activities	U	0.0	5.4	9.8	7.1	63.0	14.7	40.4***
	E	6.7	6.7	3.4	1.3	47.7	34.2	
6. Saving	U	0.0	5.4	7.6	4.3	69.0	13.6	41.28***
	E	9.4	6.7	3.4	0.7	49.0	30.9	

Source: Computed from Field Survey Data

***significant at 1% and **significant at 5% level. & NA: No Answer, U: Unemployed & E: Employed

Table 5.5 gives comparison between employed and unemployed female regarding decision making on important economic activities. Data shows that decision taken by employed self on all matters is comparatively higher than an unemployed female. It is also interesting to note that decision taken by husband and in-laws is much higher among the unemployed when compared with employed female which make one assume that the level of credibility and responsibility accorded to an unemployed female within the household is very low. While an employed female has the freedom to make decision by herself on important economic matters, data reveals that unemployed females are deprived of this opportunity and treated incapable of taking up such responsibility. As the statistic is significant for all indicators, it can be concluded that employment has a significant relationship with participation in decision –making on important economic activities.

It is also interesting to find out if employment has any impact on the participation of women in decision making related to family planning and child welfare matters. As presented in Table 5.6 a significant relationship has been found between employment and participation of women in decision-making on matters related to family planning method, number of children to have, child healthcare and marriage of children. It has been observed that in all these matters decision taken solely by employed women is comparatively higher than those unemployed making one realize the impact of employment in building self-confidence and courage to employed women to stand up for themselves and take actions accordingly. With decision on selection of children's clothing the relationship is not so significant and selection of children's school has no significance at all with employment. On the whole it can be said that employment has significant relationship with participation of women in decision making regarding family planning and child healthcare.

Table 5.6: Employment and Participation in Decision Making on Family Planning & Child Matters
(Percent)

Decision		NA	Others	In-Laws	Husband	With Husband	Self	Chi-Square
1. No. of Children	U	17.4	0.0	1.6	1.6	75.0	4.3	31.32***
	E	21.5	1.3	0.0	0.7	55.0	21.5	
2. Family Planning Method	U	17.4	0.5	2.2	1.1	74.5	4.3	51.5***
	E	24.8	6.7	1.3	0.7	50.3	16.1	
3. Selection of School for Children	U	10.9	8.2	3.3	1.1	53.3	23.4	8.65
	E	16.8	5.4	0.7	0.0	48.3	28.9	
4. Purchase of Children's clothing	U	5.4	10.9	2.7	33.2	0.0	47.8	12**
	E	16.1	6.7	1.3	28.9	0.0	47.0	
5. Child Health Care	U	0.0	0.0	2.7	0.0	53.8	43.5	29.5***
	E	8.7	4.7	1.3	0.7	40.9	43.6	
6. Marriage of Children	U	36.4	0.0	0.5	0.0	57.6	5.4	32.57***
	E	31.5	4.0	1.3	0.7	40.3	22.1	

Source: Computed from Field Survey Data

***significant at 1% and **significant at 5% level. & NA: No Answer, U: Unemployed & E: Employed

Table 5.7: Employment and Participation in Decision Making on Miscellaneous Activities (Percent)

Decision		NA	Others	In-Laws	Husband	With Husband	Self	Chi-Square
1. Contribution to Social Organisation	U	0.5	5.4	10.3	6.0	63.0	14.7	33.11***
	E	9.4	11.4	7.4	1.3	45.0	25.5	
2. Participation in Social Organisation	U	8.2	2.2	3.8	2.7	58.2	25.0	11.5**
	E	11.4	4.7	4.0	0.7	43.0	36.2	
3. Purchase of Jewellery	U	17.9	1.1	2.7	0.5	18.5	59.2	3.88
	E	18.8	3.4	1.3	0.0	16.1	60.4	
4. Selection of Food Items	U	3.3	12.0	2.7	0.0	7.6	74.5	13.14**
	E	6.7	18.8	3.4	2.0	11.4	57.7	
5. Purchase of clothing for self	U	0.0	1.1	0.0	0.0	15.8	83.2	11.82**
	E	4.0	0.0	0.0	0.7	10.7	84.6	

Source: Computed from Field Survey Data

***significant at 1% and **significant at 5% level. & NA: No Answer, U: Unemployed & E: Employed

Table 5.7 displays the relationship between employment and participation in decision-making on activities other than classified in the above tables (miscellaneous activities). It is observed from the table that apart from other activities it is only decision on how much to contribute to social organisation that shows significant relationship. Decision on participation in social organisation, selection of food and buying of clothing for self-shows less significance. As for the purchase of jewellery no significant relationship has been found with employment indicating that women both employed and unemployed have the freedom to buy jewellery without taking their husband's consent. Employment status does not seem to make much difference when it comes to buying jewellery. In conclusion it can be said that employment does not have much significance in the participation of women in decision making on miscellaneous activities.

The overall conclusion on the contribution of women in decision making is that employment plays an important role in lifting the social status of women. From

all the data presented in the table it has been observed that the percentage of women participating in decision-making is far better among employed women in comparison to unemployed women. Except for Table 5.7: Employment and participation in decision making in miscellaneous activities, data from the rest of the tables shows that employment have been found to be significantly related to women participation rate in decision making. Therefore, it can be concluded that employment help lift women status by building self-confidence and courage in them to be able to stand up for themselves and exercise their influence in decision-making on important issue within the family and society .

5.5. Personal Security and Development

Questions asked to the respondents which are not captured under other indicators (assets and decision making) are clubbed under *Personal Security and Development* as they are considered related to personal development directly or indirectly. Such questions include joining of group, banking and insurance, usage of social networking, driving, and doctor visit. Comparison was made between the unemployed and employed female and presented in Table 5.8. A significant difference of the result has been found between employed and unemployed in joining NGO. Among the unemployed an overwhelming number joined the state level NGO-MHIP while it is comparatively low among the employed. This difference can be interpreted that majority of the unemployed comes from rural background and being a member of NGO provides an outlet for social interaction and develop their social skills. As for the employed the reason for low membership in NGO could be that they

are either too busy with work and have no time for it or their service rules do not allow to join it or they do not feel the need to be a part of the organisation. Joining Self- Help Group (SHG) does not seem to be very important for women in our study area. Data shows that more than 80% among the employed and unemployed never joined SHG. What is interesting is that very low participation among the employed is justified but to have only a few turn out among the unemployed is a bit doubtful as SHG stands for the economic upliftment of such women. So it could be that awareness is lacking in rural areas or simply that there is no one to kick starts the scheme. However, what is clear though is that the number of joining NGO and SHG is sufficiently higher among the unemployed.

Table 5.8: Personal Security and Development of Employed and Unemployed Women (Percent)

Activities	Unemployed		Employed		Chi- Square
	No	Yes	No	Yes	
1. Joined State Level NGO	21.2	78.8	52.3	47.7	35.08***
2. Joined SHG	81.5	18.5	94.6	5.4	12.84***
3. Have Saving Bank A/C	31.5	68.5	14.1	85.9	13.82***
4. Ever availed Loan	95.1	4.9	72.5	27.5	33.03***
5. Have LIC Policy	97.8	2.2	71.1	28.9	48.36***
6. Use Social Networking Site	70.1	29.9	30.9	69.1	51.82***
7. Can Drive Vehicle?	97.8	2.2	89.2	10.8	10.8**
8. Go to market whenever desire	9.2	90.8	12.1	87.9	0.71
9. Use ATM for own money	83.2	16.8	36.2	63.8	77.03***
10. Use Mobile/Internet Banking	97.3	2.7	72.5	27.5	42.5***
11. Visit doctor whenever desire	17.4	82.6	19.5	80.5	0.24

Source: Computed from Field Survey Data

***significant at 1% and **significant at 5% level.

With financial matters like having Saving Bank Account, LIC Policy, access to ATM and internet banking and availing loans it has been found that employed women's participation is overwhelming higher than the unemployed. It can be

interpreted that employed women has more access to finance and control over their income giving them the opportunity to save, use ATM, buy LIC Policy and even avail loans. But all these are not possible for someone who has no control over finances and has no source of income. Thus, the relationship between personal development and freedom and employment has been found to be highly significant. For knowledge of driving only a small significance is found as for freedom of visiting market and doctor's clinic no significance has been found in the relationship between employment and personal development of women. The overall conclusion that can be drawn from this unit is that personal development and freedom enjoyed by women has a significant relationship with employment.

5.6. Attitude towards empowerment

It is of research interest to measure empowerment by finding out the opinion of women in our study area about their perception of empowerment. Table 5.8 displays several questions to assess their attitude towards empowerment. Depending on how women support or disagree with the argument presented in the table it will help us to assess how strong these women want to be empowered. There are mixed opinion among the respondent in their perception of empowerment as presented in the table. While some arguments in favour of women are found to be highly significant, argument strongly in favour of men has also been found to be equally significant. For instance, question supporting men to be the major decision maker has been found to be highly significant while over 70 percent disagree with the argument supporting women to hold a superior position in the family. It can be interpreted that more than

half of the respondent still prefer and accept men to hold superior position in the family and be the major decision maker.

Table 5.9: Opinion of Employed and Unemployed Women on the Arguments of Women Empowerment (Percent)

Arguments		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree	Chi-Square
1. Major Decision should be made by man	U	33.2	2.2	--	59.2	5.4	15.3***
	E	45.0	6.0	2.0	40.9	6.0	
2. Married Women should be allowed to work outside home	U	15.2		2.2	82.6	0.0	17.25**
	E	9.5	0.7	2.7	79.7	7.4	
3. Husband should also attend to household works	U	4.3	--	--	95.7	0.0	22.11**
	E	3.4	--	2.0	85.2	9.4	
4. Wife should be allowed to express views and comments in family decision	U	--	--		98.9	1.1	24.4***
	E	--	--	0.7	84.6	14.8	
6. Women should have superior position in the family	U	15.2	81.0		3.8	0.0	11.3**
	E	14.8	73.8	3.4	6.0	2.0	
7. Women should have a say in the decision regarding birth control	U	0.5	42.9	1.6	53.3	1.6	27.6***
	E	2.7	26.8	13.4	52.3	4.7	
8. women should be decision maker in children's education	U	1.1	70.1	2.2	26.1	0.5	8.3
	E	0.7	63.8	6.7	25.5	3.4	
9. Women should have equal right of inheritance	U	1.1	10.3	3.8	83.7	1.1	23.46***
	E	--	2.0	6.7	81.9	9.4	
10. Mizo Customary Law Favours man	U	2.2	39.7	9.8	48.4	0.0	15.6**
	E	0.7	33.6	19.5	42.3	4.0	
11. Women should have equal access to positions in church administration	U	1.1	22.3	5.4	71.2	0.0	15.4**
	E	0.7	16.1	5.4	70.5	7.4	
12. Women with permanent job enjoy better status in the family	U	5.4	--	7.6	86.4	0.5	20.1***
	E	20.8	--	9.4	68.5	1.3	
13. Women with permanent job have more say in buying and selling of family assets	U	--	21.7	12.5	65.2	0.5	3.6
	E	--	28.9	8.7	61.1	1.3	
14. Educated employed women command more respect in the family and society	U	--	1.1	0.5	97.3	1.1	14.5**
	E	--	0.7	1.3	87.9	10.1	

Source: Computed from Field Survey Data

***significant at 1% and **significant at 5% level. & U: Unemployed & E: Employed

The arguments in favour of women like freedom to express views and comments in family matters, decision on birth control and equal rights to family

inheritance have all found to be highly significant. The argument that women with permanent job enjoy better status in the family is also found to be highly significant. However, surprising though is that argument like husband should also attend to household works, Mizo customary law favours men and women should have equal access to church leadership does not have much significance in relation with employment. Furthermore arguments like women with permanent job have more say in buying and selling of family assets and women should be the decision maker in children's education does not seem to have any significant relationship with employment.

The conclusion one can draw from Table 5.9 is that the idea of empowerment perceived by respondents in our study area varies. Opinion shows that many women seem to fully resign to the traditional belief of male domination and superiority over women in various aspect of life. So, women should be ready to change their mind set and think beyond traditional belief and cultural practice to stand up for their rights. Empowerment should begin from within and it should begin with her.

5.7. Indices of Women Empowerment

To study the conditions of women empowerment and the impact of employment, four indices of empowerment have been constructed using the sample survey data according to the methodology given in Chapter 1. Respondents are grouped into three categories based on their respective scores in these indices using 30th and 70th percentile scores. They are categorised into three groups as follows: 30th

Percentile as *Low*; 30th – 70th Percentile as *Moderate*; and above 70th Percentile as *High* on empowerment. The four indices of empowerment are the following:

- (i) Empowerment on Resource and Assets (ERA) – 13 variables;
- (ii) Empowerment in Decision Making (EDM) – 24 variables;
- (iii) Empowerment in Personal Development and Security (EPDS) – 11 variables; and
- (iv) Women Empowerment (WEMP) – the aggregate of the above three indices, ERA, EDM, and EPDS, i.e. 48 variables.

An abstract of scores on the above four indices of women empowerment calculated from all the respondents is presented in Table 5.10.

Table 5.10: Abstract of the Scores on different Indices of Women Empowerment

SN	Empowerment Indices	Variables	Min.	Max.	Mean	Std. Dev.	C.V.
1	Empowerment over Resources and Assets (ERA)	13	17	46	33.21	5.24	0.16
2	Empowerment in Decision Making (EDM)	24	40	116	82.18	14.25	0.17
3	Empowerment on Personal Development & Security (EPDS)	11	11	21	15.60	1.78	0.11
4	Women Empowerment (WEMP)	48	82	178	130.99	20.63	0.16

Source: Computed from Field Survey Data

As it is given in Table 5.10, the main index of women empowerment (WEMP) consists of 48 variables. Among the sub-indices, the EDM consistent of 24 variables, while ERA and EPDS have 13 and 11 variables respectively. Given the fact that the number of variables and measurement scales are not same for all these indices, we cannot compare their means. But the level of uniformity or divergence can be

measured using the Coefficient of Variation (CV) as given in the last column of this table. It is shown that EDM has the highest CV, while EPDS has the lowest showing that the respondents has the highest inequality of empowerment with respect to decision making (EDM), while their condition is most uniform on personal development and security (EPDS).

5.8. Rural-Urban Differences

It is to be noted that there is wide difference in nature of economic activities to which women get involved and the standard of living between rural and urban areas, and so is also the extent of women empowerment. Thus, this section examines the distribution of the indices of empowerment in both the sectors (rural and urban), and examine the statistical significance of their differences. Table 5.11 presents the percentage distribution of respondents who are classified into low, moderate and high in rural and urban areas. Meanwhile, Table 5.12 shows the means and standard deviations of these measures in both areas. The numbers of urban respondents who are categorised as *high* in ERA constitute as much as 43.4%, while it is only 2.9% in rural areas. The same trend is observed in all other measures as it is 29.1% for EPDS in urban areas against 14.6% in rural areas; while it is 40.3% in case of EDM in urban areas as against 11.7% in rural areas. The main indicator of empowerment (WEMP) also shows significant difference as it is 42.3% in urban areas against 8.8% in rural areas. The differences in the *high* category is compensated by the bottom category (*Low*) where rural percentage is significantly higher than urban percentage in all measures except in case of EDM.

Table 5.11: Status of Women's Empowerment in Rural and Urban Areas

Indices	Areas	Low	Moderate	High	Total	Chi-Square Stat	p-value
ERA	Rural	68.6%	28.5%	2.9%	100%	169.96	0.00
	Urban	4.1%	52.6%	43.4%	100%		
EDPS	Rural	56.9%	28.5%	14.6%	100%	9.60	0.01
	Urban	48.5%	22.4%	29.1%	100%		
EDM	Rural	29.9%	58.4%	11.7%	100%	40.00	0.00
	Urban	30.6%	29.1%	40.3%	100%		
WEMP	Rural	43.8%	47.4%	8.8%	100%	46.27	0.00
	Urban	23.0%	34.7%	42.3%	100%		

Source: Computed from Field Survey Data (2017-18)

Table 5.12: Test of Difference Between Rural and Urban Women on Empowerment Scores

Empowerment Indices	Rural (N=137)		Urban (N=196)		t-statistic
	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.	
1. Empowerment over Resource and Assets (ERA)	28.9	3.8	36.2	3.9	-17.1***
2. Empowerment in Decision Making (EDM)	80.7	11.0	83.2	16.1	-5.56**
3. Empowerment in Personal Development and Security (EPDS)	15.4	1.2	15.7	2.1	-1.65
4. CONSOLIDATED- Women Empowerment (WEMP)	125.1	12.7	135.1	18.2	-5.59***

Source: Computed from Field Survey Data (2017-18)

***significant at 1% level & **significant at 5% level.

Further, as it is given in Table 5.12, the average scores of urban areas are higher than rural areas in all the indicators including the aggregate/consolidated (called Women Empowerment). Besides, the calculated t-statistic for the difference means is significant for WEMP, ERA, and EPDS. It may be said that, level of women empowerment in urban areas is higher than in rural areas. In other words, urban women are more empowered than rural women.

5.9. Empowerment and Employment

To examine the general levels of empowerment among women who are engaged in different types of occupations, their average scores in each of the measurement indices is presented in Table 5.13. As noted earlier, the major categories of occupations/activity to which women are engaged are housewife, self-employed (including business), government employee, other (casual, daily labour, etc.). It is notable that the average scores of government employees are highest for all indicators of empowerment (i.e. WEMP, ERA, and EDM), followed by self-employed women in all measures. At the same time, the scores of housewife are the lowest for ERA, EPDS and WEMP, while other (casual, daily workers) is lowest in case of EDM. It is thus, clear that women who are employed under the government are the most empowered, followed by those who are having self-employment; while housewife who are out of income generating activities are the least empowered.

To substantiate the observations in Table 5.13, ANOVA is conducted to test the significance of difference in the scores in the empowerment indices by women in different categories of employment. The result is presented in Table 5.14. In clear justification to the above conclusion, the F-statistic is significant for all indices. Thus, we may conclude that female government employees are the most empowered followed by self-employed; while housewife are the least empowered women in the study areas.

Table 5.13: Summary Descriptions about the Scores of Women of Different Work Status

Indices	Employment Status	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	C.V.
1. ERA	Housewife	184	30.7	4.4	0.14
	Self Employed/Business	70	35.8	4.1	0.11
	Government Employee	50	37.5	5.2	0.14
	Other (casual, daily, etc.)	29	35.5	3.5	0.10
	Total	333	33.2	5.2	0.16
2. EDM	Housewife	184	80.5	13.3	0.17
	Self Employed/Business	70	86.2	15.3	0.18
	Government Employee	50	86.4	12.1	0.14
	Other (casual, daily, etc.)	29	75.9	17.1	0.23
	Total	333	82.2	14.3	0.17
3. EDPS	Housewife	184	15.0	1.3	0.09
	Self Employed/Business	70	15.8	1.9	0.12
	Government Employee	50	17.5	1.7	0.10
	Other (casual, daily, etc.)	29	15.7	1.8	0.12
	Total	333	15.6	1.8	0.11
4. WEMP	Housewife	184	126.2	15.0	0.12
	Self Employed/Business	70	137.9	16.6	0.12
	Government Employee	50	141.4	15.3	0.11
	Other (casual, daily, etc.)	29	127.1	18.2	0.14
	Total	333	131.0	16.9	0.13

Source: Computed from Field Survey Data (2017-18)

Table 5.14: ANOVA Test for Differences of Empowerment Scores among Different Works Status

Indices	Sources of Variation	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p-value
1. ERA	Between Groups	2718.3	3	906.1	46.7	0.00
	Within Groups	6381.0	329	19.4		
	Total	9099.3	332			
2. EDM	Between Groups	3676.4	3	1225.5	6.3	0.00
	Within Groups	63791.4	329	193.9		
	Total	67467.8	332			
3. EDPS	Between Groups	262.8	3	87.6	36.4	0.00
	Within Groups	791.1	329	2.4		
	Total	1053.9	332			
4. WEMP	Between Groups	13465.4	3	4488.5	18.2	0.00
	Within Groups	81188.6	329	246.8		
	Total	94654.0	332			

Source: Computed from Field Survey Data

In addition to the significance of differences of empowerment among the women holding different occupation, it may be worthwhile to study the frequency distribution of women by employment (unemployed and employed) and levels of empowerment using the four indices; and also to test the relationship between levels of empowerment and employment status using chi-square statistic. The result is presented in Table 5.15. For the first measure Empowerment over Resources and Assets (ERA) it has been observed that employed women have high scores (46.3% respectively) in the moderate and high levels, while unemployed have high scores (49.5%) in the low level indicating that there is significant relationship between employment and empowerment over resources and assets.

With the measure on Empowerment on Personal Development and Security (EPDS) the percentage of employed in the high levels are 3 times higher than the unemployed while on the reverse there is exceptionally high scores for low level among the unemployed. With the third measure- Empowerment in decision-making (EDM) it has also been found that the percentage of employed in the high level is comparatively higher than the unemployed. However those unemployed have been found to have high scores for the moderate and low levels indicating that employment do have a significant relationship with empowerment in decision-making. The final consolidated Women Empowerment (WEMP) also shows that employed women have relatively higher scores in the high level while unemployed has relatively high scores in the low level comparatively. It is also notable that the test statistic (chi-square statistic) is found to be significant in each case. It can thus be concluded that employment has significant impact on women empowerment in terms of the control

of resources and assets (ERA), personal development (EPDS), decision making (EDM), and overall measure of empowerment (WEMP).

Table 5.15: Testing the Empirical Relationship Between Employment and Women Empowerment

Measures	Levels	Unemployed	Employed	Total	Test-Stat/Cases	Value	df	Sig.
ERA	Low	49.5%	7.4%	30.6%	Chi-Square	87.12	2	0.000
	Moderate	39.7%	46.3%	42.6%	No. of Valid Cases	333		
	High	10.9%	46.3%	26.7%				
	Total	100%	100%	100%				
EPDS	Low	65.2%	35.6%	52.0%	Chi-Square	48.27	2	0.000
	Moderate	25.5%	24.2%	24.9%	No. of Valid Cases	333		
	High	9.2%	40.3%	23.1%				
	Total	100%	100%	100%				
EDM	Low	31.0%	29.5%	30.30%	Chi-Square	18.55	2	0.000
	Moderate	49.5%	30.9%	41.10%	No. of Valid Cases	333		
	High	19.6%	39.6%	28.50%				
	Total	100%	100%	100%				
WEMP	Low	41.3%	19.5%	31.5%	Chi-Square	34.61	2	0.000
	Moderate	42.4%	36.9%	39.9%	No. of Valid Cases	333		
	High	16.3%	43.6%	28.5%				
	Total	100%	100%	100%				

Source: Computed from Field Survey Data

Table 5.16: Test of Difference Between Employed and Unemployed Women in Empowerment Scores

Empowerment Indices	Unemployed (N=184)		Employed (N=149)		t-statistic
	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.	
1. Empowerment over Resource and Assets (ERA)	30.7	4.4	36.3	4.4	-11.54***
2. Empowerment in Decision Making (EDM)	80.5	13.3	84.3	15.1	-2.42**
3. Empowerment in Personal Development and Security (EPDS)	15.0	1.3	16.4	2.0	-7.68***
4. CONSOLIDATED- Women Empowerment (WEMP)	126.2	15.0	137.0	17.2	-6.11***

Source: Computed from Field Survey Data

***significant at 1% level & **significant at 5% level.

Having established a significant relationship between employment and empowerment using the chi-square statistics, it is considered pertinent to compare the mean scores of employed and unemployed women in these indices, and test their difference using t-statistic. Table 5.16 shows that the mean scores of employed women are higher than that of their counterpart unemployed women in all measures, while the t-test show significant differences between the two categories of women in all measures. Thus, one may conclude that employed women are more empowered than unemployed women.

The preceding analysis has clearly shown that employment is directly related to women empowerment. However, the above analysis does not show the cause-effect relationship between employment and empowerment. To examine the cause-effect relationship between the two, simple linear probability (regression) model has been estimated where empowerment indices are taken as dependent variable and employment dummy (i.e. 0-unemployed and 1-employed) is taken as independent variable. The regression result is presented in Table 5.17.

Table 5.17: Estimated Regression Equations of Empowerment Indices on Employment

1	ERA	=	36.69 (0.326) <i>t</i> = 94 ^{***}	+	5.63 Employment (0.488) <i>t</i> = 11.54 ^{***}	R ² = 0.53
2	EDM	=	80.5 (1.04) <i>t</i> = 77.15 ^{***}	+	3.77 Employment (1.56) <i>t</i> = 2.42 ^{**}	R ² = 0.017
3	EDPS	=	14.98 (0.12) <i>t</i> = 123.6 ^{***}	+	1.39 Employment (0.18) <i>t</i> = 7.67 ^{***}	R ² = 0.15
4	WEMP	=	126.16 (1.18) <i>t</i> = 106.8 ^{***}	+	10.8 Employment (1.77) <i>t</i> = 6.11 ^{***}	R ² = 0.10

Note: Figures in parentheses indicate standard error. *** & ** indicate significant at 1% & 5% respectively

It is to be noted that empowerment is subjective in nature and encompasses a wide range of indicators, measurable and non-measurable, and is affected by multiplicity of factors, like employment, socio-economic, etc. It is observed in Table 5.17 that the estimated coefficients of employment are all positive and significant for all measures. The coefficient of determination (R-square) is impressively high (0.53) for ERA indicating the strong impact of employment on ownership of assets and resources by the women. At the same time, the R-square are quite low for other measures, including overall indicators of empowerment (WEMP) showing that other factors (socio, cultural, etc.) are also at play in determining level of empowerment, though the coefficient are significant. In view of the significant and positive coefficient of employment, it is thus possible to conclude that employment has positive impact on women empowerment.

5.10. Socio Economic condition and Women Empowerment

The relationship between the socio-economic conditions of women and their employment has already been analysed in Section 5.2 above. In fact, the socio-economic status is believed to affect the position of women in the family and society. So, it is considered necessary to present a brief analysis on the relationship between the socio-economic conditions and empowerment status to enhance the observations and conclusion drawn in the preceding sections. This is done by cross-tabulation of the respondents' socio-economic indicators and the distribution of their scores in the indices of empowerment. The selected socio-economic indicators are age, education,

marital status, family type and income of the respondent families. Table 5.18 to Table 5.21 present the socio-economic indicators to each of the empowerment index.

Taking the first indicator- age group it is clearly noticeable that among the below 30 years age group there are 53.4 % in the low level while there are only 13.8% in the high level. As for the age group between 40 and 60 years which is normally considered as working age group the percentage in the high level is comparatively higher than those below 40 and above 60 years age group suggesting the important role employment play in the empowerment of women. From observation it can be clearly seen that there is high empowerment among working age group i.e. 40-50 age group and their relationship is highly significant.

Looking at the level of education one can see that the percentage of those in high level is the highest among Graduate and above while it is minimally low among those who attain primary and below primary level education. The significance of the test statistic shows the impact of education on women empowerment. For marital status, figure wise it can be seen that those in the high level is found to be highest among married women but this does not necessarily mean that married women are most empowered. On the other hand a significant relationship has been found between family type and empowerment and given data reveals that there is high empowerment among nuclear families. Income wise, those earning ₹ 20,000-50,000 and above appears to have high empowerment since the percentage of high level is observed to be higher than those who earn below ₹ 20,000. Therefore it can be safely concluded that there is high significant relationship between income level and women

empowerment. Thus, women who are economically sound are likely to be more empowered than other women.

Table 5.18: Relationship between Women Empowerment (WEMP) and Socio-Economic Conditions

Indicators	WEMP (no. of respondents)				Percent			Chi-Square
	Low	Moderate	High	Total	Low	Moderate	High	
A. Age Group (yrs.)								
below 30	31	19	8	58	53.4	32.8	13.8	50.71***
30 - 40	29	36	16	81	35.8	44.4	19.8	
40 - 50	13	30	35	78	16.7	38.5	44.9	
50 - 60	10	39	25	74	13.5	52.7	33.8	
60 & <	22	9	11	42	52.4	21.4	26.2	
B. Education								
below Primary	14	9	6	29	48.3	31.0	20.7	25.46**
Primary Level	17	14	7	38	44.7	36.8	18.4	
Middle	26	44	19	89	29.2	49.4	21.3	
High School	10	27	18	55	18.2	49.1	32.7	
HSS	18	19	14	51	35.3	37.3	27.5	
Graduate & above	20	20	31	71	28.2	28.2	43.7	
C. Marital Status								
Married	83	112	64	259	32.0	43.2	24.7	19.65**
Divorced	4	5	10	19	21.1	26.3	52.6	
Widowed	5	8	15	28	17.9	28.6	53.6	
Single	13	8	6	27	48.1	29.6	22.2	
D. Family Type								
Joint	57	30	22	109	52.3	27.5	20.2	39.72***
Nuclear	48	101	67	216	22.2	46.8	31.0	
Single	0	2	6	8	0.0	25.0	75.0	
E. Income (₹/Month)								
below 10000	36	35	8	79	45.6	44.3	10.1	35.25***
10000-20000	23	25	14	62	37.1	40.3	22.6	
20000-30000	17	17	16	50	34.0	34.0	32.0	
30000-40000	4	20	19	43	9.3	46.5	44.2	
40000-50000	3	10	6	19	15.8	52.6	31.6	
50000 & <	22	26	32	80	27.5	32.5	40.0	

Source: Computed from Field Survey Data

***significant at 1% level & **significant at 5% level

Table 5.19: Relationship between Empowerment over Resource & Assets (ERA) and Socio-Economic Conditions

Indicators	ERA (No. of respondents)				Percent			Chi-Square
	Low	Moderate	High	Total	Low	Moderate	High	
A. Age Group (yrs.)								
below 30	17	30	11	58	29.3	51.7	19.0	9.42
30 - 40	31	31	19	81	38.3	38.3	23.5	
40 - 50	21	33	24	78	26.9	42.3	30.8	
50 - 60	17	32	25	74	23.0	43.2	33.8	
60 & <	16	16	10	42	38.1	38.1	23.8	
B. Education								
below Primary	15	12	2	29	51.7	41.4	6.9	94.89***
Primary Level	22	11	5	38	57.9	28.9	13.2	
Middle	46	31	12	89	51.7	34.8	13.5	
High School	10	33	12	55	18.2	60.0	21.8	
HSS	8	23	20	51	15.7	45.1	39.2	
Graduate & above	1	32	38	71	1.4	45.1	53.5	
C. Marital Status								
Married	94	104	61	259	36.3	40.2	23.6	22.82***
Divorced	1	10	8	19	5.3	52.6	42.1	
Widowed	4	17	7	28	14.3	60.7	25.0	
Single	3	11	13	27	11.1	40.7	48.1	
D. Family Type								
Joint	27	49	33	109	24.8	45.0	30.3	4.83
Nuclear	74	88	54	216	34.3	40.7	25.0	
Single	1	5	2	8	12.5	62.5	25.0	
E. Income (₹./Month)								
below 10000	54	20	5	79	68.4	25.3	6.3	117.21***
10000-20000	17	36	9	62	27.4	58.1	14.5	
20000-30000	18	21	11	50	36.0	42.0	22.0	
30000-40000	8	25	10	43	18.6	58.1	23.3	
40000-50000	1	8	10	19	5.3	42.1	52.6	
50000 & <	4	32	44	80	5.0	40.0	55.0	

Source: Computed from Field Survey Data

***significant at 1% level & **significant at 5% level.

Table 5.20: Relationship between Empowerment Decision Making (EDM) and Socio-Economic Conditions

Indicators	Observations				Percent			Chi-Square
	Low	Moderate	High	Total	Low	Moderate	High	
A. Age Group (yrs.)								
below 30	35	15	8	58	60.3	25.9	13.8	59.99***
30 - 40	31	33	17	81	38.3	40.7	21.0	
40 - 50	8	36	34	78	10.3	46.2	43.6	
50 - 60	9	39	26	74	12.2	52.7	35.1	
60 & <	18	14	10	42	42.9	33.3	23.8	
B. Education								
below Primary	11	12	6	29	37.9	41.4	20.7	37.78***
Primary Level	13	16	9	38	34.2	42.1	23.7	
Middle	15	53	21	89	16.9	59.6	23.6	
High School	10	25	20	55	18.2	45.5	36.4	
HSS	24	16	11	51	47.1	31.4	21.6	
Graduate & above	28	15	28	71	39.4	21.1	39.4	
C. Marital Status								
Married	72	120	67	259	27.8	46.3	25.9	28.78***
Divorced	7	3	9	19	36.8	15.8	47.4	
Widowed	5	9	14	28	17.9	32.1	50.0	
Single	17	5	5	27	63.0	18.5	18.5	
D. Family Type								
Joint	66	25	18	109	60.6	22.9	16.5	77.71***
Nuclear	34	111	71	216	15.7	51.4	32.9	
Single	1	1	6	8	12.5	12.5	75.0	
E. Income (₹./Month)								
below 10000	26	43	10	79	32.9	54.4	12.7	26.31***
10000-20000	17	28	17	62	27.4	45.2	27.4	
20000-30000	16	16	18	50	32.0	32.0	36.0	
30000-40000	6	19	18	43	14.0	44.2	41.9	
40000-50000	6	9	4	19	31.6	47.4	21.1	
50000 & <	30	22	28	80	37.5	27.5	35.0	

Source: Computed from Field Survey Data

***significant at 1% level & **significant at 5% level.

Table 5.21: Relationship between Empowerment Personal Development & Security (EPDS) and Socio-Economic Conditions

Indicators	EPDS (No. of respondent)				Percent			Chi-Square
	Low	Moderate	High	Total	Low	Moderate	High	
A. Age Group (yrs.)								
below 30	37	13	8	58	63.8	22.4	13.8	20.66**
30 - 40	36	23	22	81	44.4	28.4	27.2	
40 - 50	35	22	21	78	44.9	28.2	26.9	
50 - 60	33	18	23	74	44.6	24.3	31.1	
60 & <	32	7	3	42	76.2	16.7	7.1	
B. Education								
below Primary	26	3	0	29	89.7	10.3	0.0	81.66***
Primary Level	27	8	3	38	71.1	21.1	7.9	
Middle	52	29	8	89	58.4	32.6	9.0	
High School	28	16	11	55	50.9	29.1	20.0	
HSS	23	13	15	51	45.1	25.5	29.4	
Graduate & above	17	14	40	71	23.9	19.7	56.3	
C. Marital Status								
Married	133	66	60	259	51.4	25.5	23.2	16.45**
Divorced	13	0	6	19	68.4	0.0	31.6	
Widowed	16	11	1	28	57.1	39.3	3.6	
Single	11	6	10	27	40.7	22.2	37.0	
D. Family Type								
Joint	63	20	26	109	57.8	18.3	23.9	4.59
Nuclear	106	60	50	216	49.1	27.8	23.1	
Single	4	3	1	8	50.0	37.5	12.5	
E. Income (₹/Month)								
below 10000	54	21	4	79	68.4	26.6	5.1	67.28***
10000-20000	44	14	4	62	71.0	22.6	6.5	
20000-30000	27	15	8	50	54.0	30.0	16.0	
30000-40000	20	9	14	43	46.5	20.9	32.6	
40000-50000	6	4	9	19	31.6	21.1	47.4	
50000 & <	22	20	38	80	27.5	25.0	47.5	

Source: Computed from Field Survey Data

***significant at 1% level & **significant at 5% level.

Table 5.19 displays the relationship between Empowerment over Resources & Assets (ERA) and Socio-Economic conditions and empowerment. It is observed that age group and family type do not have significant impact on women empowerment in terms of resource and asset ownership, while the statistics for other factors are found to be significant. At the same time, Table 5.20 displays the relationship between Empowerment in Decision –Making (EDM) and employment. It is notable that all the socio-economic indicators under consideration are significantly related to the empowerment in terms of decision making in the family. Table 5.21 shows the relationship between Empowerment in Personal Development & Security (EPDS) and employment using several indicators to measure it. It is notable that the relationship between women empowerment in terms of EPDS and education and income are significant at the highest level, while it is not found significant in case of family type. Thus, the above tables which show the relationship between socio-economic indicators and measures of women empowerment indicate the socio-economic conditions as significant factors determining the level of women empowerment.

5.11. Conclusions

The central objective of the analysis in this chapter is to examine and test the impact of employment on the various indicators of women empowerment. An analysis of the conditions of women empowerment is made with respect to employment. Several indicators such as asset ownership, household decision, personal development and security, attitude, etc., which are related to empowerment *vis-a-vis* their relationship with employment and unemployment status of the respondents are

examined. To make the analysis more factual and chalk out clear conclusion, indices of women empowerment are constructed and their relationship with employment and socioeconomic conditions are also analysed and tested.

Of the women who are on different categories of employment (housewife, government employees, self-employed, others), government employees scored the highest in all the empowerment indices, while housewife score the least. Moreover, the ANOVA test for the scores of the different categories of employment shows significant difference. Thus, female with the most stable employment are most empowered while those who do not earn income for the family are the least empowered. The significantly higher scores of employed female over the unemployed and the positive coefficient of the estimated regression implicate that woman empowerment have been significantly determined by employment. This is in clear justification to the Hypothesis No.1 of this study.

In view of the magnitude of the test statistics and regression coefficient, ownership of assets and resources (ERA) is most affected by employment. Thus, employed women have a significantly higher advantage in ownership of household assets (Hypothesis No.2). It may be concluded that, although most respondents follow a patriarchal system where ownership of family assets goes in the name of male members, the empirical evidence shows that employment do have a profound impact on the ownership of assets by female member.

In the patriarchal society where male domination is present to be seen at every level of decisions from household to social organisation, participation of women in the decision-making process in the family and society must be a good indicator of

empowerment, as their participation would have a substantial impact in lifting their social status. It is noteworthy that the percentage of women participating in decision-making is far better among employed women in comparison to unemployed women. Moreover, the average score of the former is higher than the latter with acceptable statistical significance, while the coefficient of employment in the regression model (Table 5.17) is positive and significant. Thus, employment has increased the level of female participation in household decision making (Hypothesis No.3). It may also be argued that employment help lift women status by building self-confidence and courage in them to be able to stand up for themselves and exercise their influence in decision-making on important issue within the family and society.

Empowerment being subjective in nature and encompasses a wide range of factors, is understood to be affected not only by employment but also a number of factors including the socioeconomic profile of the women. This chapter also tested the relationship between women empowerment and selected socioeconomic indicators using Chi-square statistics. It was found that the calculated statistics are significant in most of the cases leading us to the conclusion that empowerment is also dependent on the female socioeconomic conditions.

Comparative analysis of women empowerment between rural and urban areas shows that the average score of urban respondents are significantly higher than the average scores of rural respondents in the two empowerment indicators - resource and assets (ERA) and decision making (EDM), while the difference is not significant for personal development and security (EPDS). Meanwhile, the score of urban areas is significantly higher than rural score in the overall index of empowerment (WEMP),

thus leading to the conclusion that women empowerment in urban areas is higher than in rural areas (Hypothesis No.4).

Chapter 6

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS AND CONCLUSIONS

6.1. Introduction

Women's empowerment and gender equality are essential for global progress. Women's economic empowerment is the most important factor that contribute to gender equality between men and women (Tornqvist & Schmitz, 2009). Employment is empowering as it helps women to develop their identity; and when they become organised they build up courage and confidence to talk to the police, the courts, banks or their husbands as equals (Bhatt, 2018). Women working outside of home in public and private sector also appears to enjoy a better status in the society and result in greater empowerment (Sadania, 2016). However, a mere employment of women does not implicate empowerment, it is the quality of employment that matters (Paul, 2009). While formal employment has empowering implication for women consistently (Kabeer, 2013), employment in informal sector does not necessarily have positive impact on empowerment.

With this backdrop, it is obvious that employment has positive impact on the economic empowerment of women. The central objective of this study is to gain better understanding of the interrelationship between employment and women empowerment in Mizoram taking Aizawl district as a case. All the analysis undertaken in this study are based on primary data collected by the researcher in the study area and secondary data obtained from sources like NFHS-4, Population Census 2011, Labour Bureau and NSS.

6.2. Major Findings

1. According to the data obtained from Labour Bureau the female unemployment rate in India increases from 7.7% in 2013-14 to 8.7% in 2015-16. Among the states, Tripura has the highest unemployment rate of 49.8% in 2015-16 followed by Sikkim (37.8%) and A & N Islands (32.9%). At the same time the overall indicators of women empowerment (WEMP) calculated from NFHS-4 as presented in Table 3.9 shows that the state of Kerala has the highest empowerment scores followed by Goa and Lakshadweep. It is observed that Tripura which has the highest unemployment rate was ranked very low in the overall indicators of women empowerment. Meanwhile Uttar Pradesh one of the worst performers in terms of women's empowerment is also found to have high unemployment rate. On examining the relationship between empowerment and unemployment across the states of India one can see that there is an inverse relationship between the two. It may thus be concluded that women unemployment and empowerment are inversely related among the states of India.
2. Inter-state analysis presented in Table 3.4 on the performance of empowerment and Female Labour Force Participation Rate (FLPR) shows that Chhattisgarh (543) has the highest followed by Mizoram (540) and Nagaland (536). But in terms of women empowerment these states with high FLPR like Chhattisgarh and Andhra Pradesh (466) are not performing equally well. As for Female Work Participation Rate (FWPR) Himachal Pradesh has the highest score (44.8%) followed by Nagaland (44.7%) and Chhattisgarh

(39.7%). Again states who scores moderately well in FWPR like Chhattisgarh, Andhra Pradesh, Nagaland are not equally good in women empowerment. Further, chi-square test is not significant between work participation and labour force participation. As such the participation of women in economic activity does not necessarily translate into their empowerment in the family and society (Zote and Thanga, 2019).

3. An examination of the relationship between the index of women (i.e. WEMP) with the level of economic development as indicated by the per capita NSDP during 2015-16 among the states of India revealed that the bottom states in terms of per capita NSDP (Bihar, UP, Jharkhand, Madhya Pradesh, Odisha) were the worst performer in terms of women empowerment. Further, the correlation between the two variables across the states was found to be significant and positive ($r = 0.67$). Thus, women empowerment is also directly related to the level of economic development among the states of India.
4. The socio-economic conditions in the study area shows that although there is no illiteracy among the working age group women, the educational attainment level is fairly low and the situation is observed to be more intense in rural areas where 78% of them have middle school and below education. Within the study area taken as a whole 63% have upto high school level education while only 21.3% have Graduate and above degree education. Low educational level among women is considered to have serious implications on their future employability in different kind of jobs.

5. Comparative analysis of the socio-economic conditions of the respondents in rural and urban areas also showed that the average marriage age of rural respondents are lower than urban respondents. While only 7.7% of urban respondent marry off before turning 20 years, around 22.6% marry off at the same age among rural respondents which would have serious implication on the educational attainment of rural respondents. The percentage of women having more children is relatively higher among rural women. The average number of children per women in urban area is observed to 2.4 per women, while it is 3 per women in rural area. Similarly, a sector wise monthly income distribution reveals a stark difference in the average income between rural and urban respondents. While urban respondents enjoy an average annual family income of ₹49227, it is only ₹17193 for rural respondents.
6. As much as 55.3% of the respondents in the study areas are reported to not engage in any specific work and considered to be housewife. The remaining 44.7% are either self-employed, government employees, casual workers or engaged in other works. A further enquiry of the job profile of those engaged in organised government job shows that almost 90% are holding clerical and lower rank jobs. This clearly confirms that majority of women working within the organised sector are located in the lower rung of the hierarchy.
7. The analysis of the family socio-economic conditions of women in the study area shows that 79% live in their own house of which 36% live in pucca house while about 40% live in kuchha house. The average income is ₹36047 however a significant difference is observed in the average income of rural (₹17193)

and urban (₹49227) resulting in vast disparity in living standards between rural and urban dwellers. As for family type 77.8% are married and about 70% are wife of head of family. As for taking up responsibility in the family, beside performing normal household chores and childcare, 47.4% women in the study area sacrifice their leisure time in doing additional housework in and around the house.

8. As for the ownership of family properties and assets, women have very low access to inheritable assets like land pass, house, vehicles and business establishment. It has been found that 62% of land pass, 72% of other plot of land, 54% of dwelling houses, 67% of two wheelers, 58% of four wheelers and 52% of business establishment are registered in husband's name. Women only have visible command and access to personal properties and gender sensitive assets like mobile phones, jewellery etc. As for acquisition or purchase of durable assets like land, vehicle, house construction etc. women have very little voice as most decision are taken by men. However, women have upper hand on decision regarding purchase of appliance, jewellery, clothing, food, allocation of fund to different activities and savings. And it is worth noting that women have higher command than men in decisions relating to family planning and child related matters.

9. Women enjoy considerable freedom to participate in different social organisations. About 64% join the state level women's organisation (MHIP) to socialise and for self-improvement. However 62% finds no benefit in joining the NGO as their status in the family and society did not improve even after

joining the NGO. Therefore freedom to join social organisations does not necessarily translate into empowerment within the family and society as a whole.

10. The banking coverage of women in rural and urban areas of Mizoram is impressive as more than 76% have saving bank account and about 90% operate personal account. Around 56% operate their account regularly while more than 42% do savings on regular basis. All this show the ability of female members to handle financial transactions in financial institutions which indicate that there is empowerment of women in financial literacy in the study area. However, the insurance coverage of women is very low (14%) in the study area which is a matter of concern.

11. While men are found to dominate in almost all important decision making, there are certain areas where mutual decisions are taken with husband. Decision on purchase of white goods or household appliances, allocation of fund for different activities, how much to save, number of children to raise, family planning method, children's education, contribution and participation in social organisation are all decided jointly by husband and wife.

12. In analysing the perceptions of women relating to women empowerment majority of respondents agree with statements that favours women empowerment and 62% agree that Mizo Customary Law favours men. However, 80% agree with the statement that major decisions must be taken by men and more than 97% disagree that women should have superior position in

the family. Therefore, it can be concluded that most women support women's empowerment in the family and society but they are not ready to take up superior position in the family and society than men.

13. A cross tabulation of employment status and several indicators of empowerment which range from resources and assets (ERA), decision making (EDM), personal development and security (EPDS) and overall women empowerment index (i.e. WEMP) showed that employed women enjoy better positions in most of these indicators with significant chi-square statistics. Similarly, the average score of employed women who are in the category of government employees and business ownerships are found to be significantly higher in the four empowerment indices. This observations is also justified by the ANOVA which shows the highly significant F-statistic. Thus, employed women enjoyed significantly better position on different measures of empowerment.

14. On further regrouping of the respondents between employed (those engaged in economic activities e.g. Government employees, self-employed and other works) and unemployed (those who have no engagement in income generating activities e.g. housewife), the mean scores of employed women are significantly higher than unemployed women in all the measures. For ERA, while the mean score is 36.3 for the employed, it is 30.7 for the unemployed. For EDM the mean score is 84.3 for the employed and 80.5 for the unemployed. For EPDS the mean score is 16.4 for the employed and 15.0 for the unemployed. And for WEMP the mean score for the employed is 137 and

126.2 for the unemployed. As the t-statistics for between employed and unemployed are significant in all the measures, it can be said that employed women are more empowered than the unemployed. Further, the estimated regression coefficients of employment to each of the indices of empowerment are all positive and significant. Thus, it can be concluded that employment has positive impact on the level of women's empowerment. The result has proved the study Hypothesis No.1.

15. On further examination of the impact employment on sub-indices of empowerment, the regression coefficient of employment dummy (1-employed, 0-unemployed) on ERA was found to be positive (0.53) and highly significant. Further, as given above, the average score of employed women on ERA is significantly higher than the score of unemployed women. Thus, it can be concluded that employed women have significantly higher advantages in ownership of households assets which supports Hypothesis No.2 of the study as given in Chapter 1.

16. In a patriarchal society where male dominates the family and society, participation of women in decision making process in the family and society will be a good indicator of empowerment as it will have substantial impact in lifting their social status. It is worth noting that the percentage of women participating in decision making is far better among employed women as compared to the unemployed. The average score of employed women (77.15) is higher than the unemployed with acceptable statistical significance, while the coefficient of employment dummy is also significant and positive. Thus,

the study Hypothesis No.3 stating that employment has increased the level of female participation in household decision making is found proved.

17. The average scores of urban respondents in all the empowerment indices are higher than that of their rural counterparts. In fact, the number of urban respondents who are categorised as *high* score (above 70th percentile) constitutes as much as 42.3% as against 8.8% only in rural areas. Besides, the calculated t-statistics for the difference of means between rural and urban areas are significant for WEMP, ERA and EPDS. It can be said that level of women empowerment in urban areas is higher than in rural areas. This supports Hypothesis No.4.

6.3. Conclusions

All the analysis using different tools and indices have shown that employment has been the significant factors determining women empowerment in the study areas. The positive impact of employment as indicated by positive coefficients of employment dummies has indicated that women employment and empowerment are directly related. In other words, it can also be said that there is an inverse relationship between unemployment and empowerment. Further, women in urban areas are enjoying better empowerment status than their rural counterparts in all the measures. *Second*, this study did not observed significant relationship between women empowerment and their labour force participation or work participation. Thus, a mere participation of women in the family labour work or labour force does not necessarily translate into empowerment, while employment in income generating activities in

own-business or in organised sector (mostly government job) has clear impact on empowerment. It can be argued that women having taken active part in the family works are not necessarily empowered within the family.

Third, the critical areas where women have limited access and say in the decision are inheritable or transferable household assets. Women have very low access to inheritable assets like land pass, house, and business establishment; while they have little voice on the purchase or acquisition of these assets as most decision were taken by men. *Fourth*, women in the study areas enjoy clear freedom to participate in various women groups, NGOs and SHGs. Most of them were joining state wide women organisation (i.e. Mizoram Hmeichhe Insuihkhawm Pawl, in short MHIP). However, it was found that majority of the respondents did not find joining these groups are not implicating their empowerment in the family and society. *Sixth*, there is a contradicting perception among the respondents on gender empowerment. As much as 62% said the Mizo Customary Law favours men and 77% favours equal rights of inheritance, while 80% supports the argument that major decision in the family must be taken by men and 97% agree disagree the arguments that women should have superior position in the family. It may be argued that the women in the study areas do not have clear understanding of the parameters of empowerment in the family. *Lastly*, it is interesting to see the positive relationship between economic development (per capita NSDP) and levels of empowerment in different states of India. This is in clear support to the above observations of employed women having been more empowered than unemployed, and thus, it may be said that economic development will have unequivocal implications on gender empowerment in the country.

6.4. Suggestions & Recommendations

It is also desired to propose some suggestions and recommendation based on the findings and observations of this study.

- The critical area where the study observed clear gaps in terms of women empowerment is access of women to heritable and transferrable household assets like house, land pass and other valuable assets. As the limited rights of women on these assets has been embedded in the long cultural and customary practices among the people in Mizoram, it may not be possible to ensure equal rights with men in the foreseeable future. But, it is necessary to change the mindset of the people and take legislative efforts on women's right to inheritance. The Bill, *The Mizo Marriage, Divorce and Inheritance of Property Act , 2014*, passed by the Mizoram Legislative Assembly is seen as a movement in this direction. Strict enforcement of the rules under this Act by the state government will have clear impact on women's access to inheritable and transferable assets.
- Engagement of women in income (cash) generating activities (employment in organised sector and business) has empowerment implication. Meanwhile, the empowerment scores of women in rural areas, where limited opportunities are available for these income generating employment, is significantly lower than the urban scores. It is thus necessary to implement gender-specific livelihood promotion scheme especially in rural areas which may come in the form of SHGs, cooperatives societies, scheme under MGNREGA, etc.

- The study recommends that in order for women to be empowered firstly there need to be sea change in the general perception and mindset of the people. The concept of gender equality must be inculcated in young minds. 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. Further, people should also be made aware of the existing statutory provisions to protect the interest of women in the society.
- It is surprising to see that majority of women who joined the women organisation said joining the groups have not improve their empowerment status in the family and society, while the state wide NGO like MHIP has been seen as champion for improvement of the status of women in Mizo society. Thus, it is considered necessary to revisit the foundational principles and objectives of the women organisations in the state, keeping in view the changing lifestyle and needs of the day, to make them plays significant role towards gender empowerment. The continuous demand of the women bodies on leadership role in Church activities is also required to be attended appropriately.
- This study also suggested on the following areas to generate more intellectual inputs in respect to women empowerment in the study areas: (i) analysis of skill development, skill gap and employability of women in rural and urban areas of Mizoram, (ii) the role and scope for participation of women's groups (SHGs, cooperatives, etc.) in agricultural value chain, (iii) impact of *The Mizo Marriage, Divorce and Inheritance of Property Act , 2014*, (iv) gender roles in

different livelihood activities in rural areas, (v) nature of women employment in the unorganised and organised sector, and (vi) nature and causes of women's unemployment in Mizoram.

- As noted earlier, the level of women empowerment is comparatively lower in terms of ownership of immovable assets. Appropriate institutional change is necessary on this issues. The feasibility of instituting the system of joint ownership of land pass between husband and wife may be looked into.

Date of visit: / /

**Questionnaire on Women Employment and Empowerment
A case study of Aizawl District, Mizoram**

Sector: [] Rural, [] Urban

A. IDENTIFICATION

1. Name _____ 2. Age _____ 3. Vill/ Locality _____
4. Educational Qualification: [] Illiterate, [] Literate, Below Primary, [] Primary Level, [] Middle level, [] High School, [] HSS, [] Graduate and Above.
5. Marital Status: [] Married, [] Divorced, [] Widow, [] Single
6. Family type: [] Joint family, [] Nuclear family, [] Single
7. Status in the Family: [] Wife, [] Daughter-in-law, [] Daughter (widowed/divorced/single)
8. How old were you when you got married? : ____ 9. Age at first child _____
10. How many children do you have? Male _____ Female _____ Total _____
11. Number of Family Members ____ Male _____ Female _____
12. Ownership type: [] Own house [] Rented [] others
13. House type: [] Kutcha [] Semi-pakka [] Pucca
14. Total household income per month ₹ _____

B. INCOME AND EMPLOYMENT

1. Occupation :
 - [] Housewife, [] Self employed/business [] Agriculture/farming [] Govt. Employee
 - [] Private employee (regular)
 - [] daily wage earner [] others.
 - 1.1 Job designation, if a government employee or a regular private employee:
 - [] Executive [] Clerical
 - [] lower rank job [] not applicable
 - 1.2 Monthly Income (Approx.) ₹ _____
2. How much time do you spent in your job? (combining all the past years you have spent)
 - [] Above 2/3 [] Above 1/3 [] Below 1/3
3. How do you spend your leisure time?

[] Household works [] Other job [] Others [] Stay Idle

4. Apart from household works, how much time do you give to do other family works?

[] Above 25% [] 25 – 50 % [] 50-75 % [] Above 75 %

5. How much is your contribution to do household works?

[] Above 25% [] 25-50 % [] 50-75 % [] Above 75 %

C. OWNERSHIP HOUSEHOLD PROPERTIES

Things/Property owned by self (1 – Owned, 2 – Not owned, 3 – Shared, 4 – Not owned by Family)

a.	Plot of land for housing (LSC, VC Pass, P.Patta, others)	
b.	Plot of land not for housing (LSC, VC Pass, P.Patta, others)	
c.	House	
d.	Two Wheeler (registered as own)	
e.	Four Wheeler (registered as own)	
f.	Gold/ Diamond/ Silver jewelry	
g.	Mobile Phone	
h.	Laptop/ Personal Computer	
i.	NREGS Job Card	
j.	Family Ration Card	
k.	Gas Connection	
l.	Driving License	
m.	Shop/Business	

D. INSTITUTIONAL LINKAGE

1. Are you a member of any State level NGO? *[] Yes [] No*

1.1 *If Yes, Name of the Organization _____*

1.2 *If yes, designation : [] O.B [] Committee Member [] Member*

1.3 *Reason for joining the organization : [] Profits [] Self Improvement [] To make friends*

[] Because everyone else joins NGO

1.4 Does joining NGO improve your status in the family or the society? *[] Yes [] No*

2. Are you a member of any Self –Help Group? : *[] Yes [] No*

2.1 If yes, are you a leader? *[] Yes [] No*

2.2 Does joining Self Help Group increases your self -confidence: *[] Yes [] No*

2.3 Does joining Self Help Group improve your status in your family or the society? *[] Yes [] No*

3. Do you have a Savings Bank Account in your name? *[] Yes [] No*

3.1 If yes, what kind of Account do you have? *[] Personal [] Joint [] Both*

3.2 Do you operate your Account regularly? *[] Yes [] No*

3.3 Do you have an ATM Card? *[] Yes [] No*

3.4 Do you save regularly every month? *[] Yes [] No*

4. Have you ever borrowed any Bank Loan? *[] Yes [] No*

4.1 If yes, what was the purpose of it? *[] Housing Loan, [] Business Loan, [] Educational loan [] others.*

5. Do you have a Life Insurance Policy? *[] Yes [] No*

E. DECISION MAKING IN THE FAMILY

Who makes decision under the following circumstances? (1- Me, 2-My husband, 3-Me and my husband, 4-My In-laws, 5-others, 6-NA)

a. Construction of house for living		b. Purchase of land.	
c. Size for land purchase		d. Site selection for land purchase	
e. Selection of crops to cultivate		f. Work/chores assignment to family members	
g. Purchase of vehicle		h. Decision to avail loans	
i. Sale of household goods		j. Purchase of household appliances	

Appendix I

k. Purchase of jewelry		l. Starting a new business	
m. Fund allocation to different activities		n. Savings	
o. Contribution to social organisation		p. Participation in social organisation	
q. Number of children		r. Family Planning Method	
s. Selection of schools for children		t. Purchase of children's clothing	
u. Purchase of clothing for self		v. Child health care	
w. Selection of food items		x. Marriage of children	

F. GENERAL PERCEPTION

Please give us your opinion on the following statement given under: (-2: *Strongly Disagree*, -1: *Disagree*, 0: *Have no Idea (Undecided)* 1: *Agree*, 2: *Strongly Agree*)

a.	Major decision should be made by man	
b.	Married women should be allowed to work outside home.	
c.	Husband should also attend to household chores if wife is working	
d.	Wife should also be allowed to express views and comments freely in family matters.	
e.	Women should have a superior position in the family	
f.	Women should have a say in the decision regarding birth control	
g.	Women should be decision maker in children's education	
h.	Women should have equal right of family inheritance	
i.	Mizo Customary Law favours men	
j.	Women should have equal access to positions in Church administration	
k.	Women with permanent job enjoy better status in the family	
l.	Women with permanent job have more say in buying and selling of family assets.	
m.	Educated employed women command more respect in the family and society.	

G. OTHERS

1. Do you own a Phone? [] Yes [] No.
 - 1.1 If No, why? : [] I don't know how to use it, [] I don't need it [] I don't have money to buy it [] my husband doesn't permit it [] NA.
2. Are you a frequent user of Social Networking Site? [] Yes [] No
 - 2.1 If Yes, what are those: [] Facebook [] Whatsapp [] Email [] FB & Whatsapp [] All
 - 2.2 Out of these Site which one do you use most frequently: [] Facebook [] Whatsapp [] Email
 - 2.3 Does your husband object using social networking site? [] Yes [] No
 - 2.4 Does using these networking site gives you confidence? [] Yes [] No
3. Do you know how to drive a vehicle? [] Yes [] No
4. Do you go shopping whenever desire? [] Yes [] No
5. Do you withdraw money from the ATM on your own? [] Yes [] No
6. Do you know how to use Internet/Mobile Banking? [] Yes [] No
7. Apart from sickness can you visit the doctor whenever desire? [] Yes [] No
8. Choose the three most important suggested measures for empowering women from the following statement. (Give ranking within the box)
 - [] Provide stable job/employment.
 - [] Provide better access to good education.
 - [] Strengthening women's position in the family.
 - [] Provide opportunity to participate in Church and NGO activities.
 - [] Provide reservation in the legislature.
 - [] Provide freedom to choose profession and mobility.
 - [] Provide better position in the family inheritance.

If there is anything you want to add:

BASIC PROFILES OF MIZORAM

SN	Particulars	Unit	
1	State Capital		Aizawl
2	Geographical Area	Sq.Km	21,081
3	Geographical Location		
	(i) Longitude	Degree	92°.15' E to 93°.29' E
	(ii) Latitude	Degree	21°.58'N to 24°.35'N
4	Length		
	(i) North to South	Km	277
	(ii) East to West	Km	121
5	International Borders		
	(i) With Myanmar	Km	404
	(ii) With Bangladesh	Km	318
6	Inter-State Borders		
	(i) With Assam	Km	123
	(ii) With Tripura	Km	66
	(iii) With Manipur	Km	95
7	Administrative Set- up		
	(i) Districts	Nos.	8
	(ii) Autonomous District	Nos.	3
	(iii) Sub-Divisions	Nos.	23
	(iv) R.D.Blocks	Nos.	26
	(v) Total Villages		
	{ 2011 Census }	Nos.	830
	(a) Inhabited	Nos.	704
	(b) Uninhabited	Nos.	126
8	Total Ho usehold (2011 Census)	Nos.	222,853
9	Population Totals {As per 2011 Census}		
	A. Population		
	(i) Persons	Nos.	10, 97,206
	(ii) Male	Nos.	5, 55,339
	(iii) Female	Nos.	5, 41,867
	(iv) Rural	Nos.	5, 25,435
	(v) Urban	Nos.	5, 71,771

Appendix II

B. Decadal Population Growth (1991-2011)			
	(a) Absolute	Nos.	2, 08,633
	(b) Percentage	%	23.48
C.	Population Density (2011 Census)	Per Sq.Km	52
D.	Sex Ratio	Females per 1000 Males	976
E.	0-6 Population		
	(i) Persons	Nos.	1, 68,531
	(ii) Males	Nos.	85,561
	(iii) Females	Nos.	82,970

10 District wise no. of RD Block & Villages (2011 Census)				
S1.	District	No. of Sub-Division	No. of Blocks	No. of inhabited villages
1	Mamit	3	3	86
2	Kolasib	3	2	34
3	Aizawl	3	5	94
4	Champhai	3	4	83
5	Serchhip	3	2	35
6	Lunglei	3	4	161
7	Lawngtlai	3	4	159
8	Siaha	3	2	52
	Total	23	26	704

Source: Basic Statistics of Mizoram 2018, Directorate of Economics & Statistics, Government of Mizoram

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Date of Admission	:	26.08.2013
Approval of Research Proposal		
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Extension	:	Up to 01.05.2021 vide School Board (SEMIS) dated 07.05.209 & AC:36:4(3) dated 22 nd May 2019.
<hr/>		

Head

Department of Economics

ABSTRACT

**WOMEN EMPLOYMENT AND EMPOWERMENT:
A CASE STUDY OF AIZAWL DISTRICT, MIZORAM**

RACHEL ZOTE

**DEPARTMENT OF ECONOMICS
MIZORAM UNIVERSITY**

ABSTRACT

**WOMEN EMPLOYMENT AND EMPOWERMENT:
A CASE STUDY OF AIZAWL DISTRICT, MIZORAM**

By

RACHEL ZOTE

Department of Economics

**Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirement of the Degree of Doctor of
Philosophy in Economics of Mizoram University, Aizawl**

1. Introduction

Women's economic empowerment is the most important factor that contributes to gender equality between men and women (Tornqvist & Schmitz, 2009). Women's access to income through gainful employment may be considered the key factor of women's economic empowerment. Several empirical studies on the impact of employment on women's empowerment have proved that employment has positive impact on women's empowerment. According to Sultana & Hossen (2013) employed women enjoy relatively higher level of empowerment than those unemployed as they contribute to household income and yield greater control over household resources and decision making. Sen (1990) reiterated that gainful employment outside the home reduces the economic dependence of women to men and increases her bargaining power in the family. Kabeer et.al (2013) concluded that formal employment has the strongest and most consistent impact on women's lives. Panhwar et.al (2017) also observed that employed women enjoyed more rights and command more respect from family members and society than unemployed men and women. Paul (2019) also raises no doubt that employment of women results in overall empowerment of women.

However there are scholars who believe that a mere employment of women does not implicate empowerment. While gainful employment opportunities outside the home may help to reduce women's economic dependence on men and increase their bargaining strength, the extent of bargaining power depends on the nature of work she is employed in (Sen, 1990). And it is the quality of employment that matters most for women to remain empowered (Paul, 2009). According to Srivastava (2009) employment is potentially empowering and liberating only if it provides women an opportunity to improve their well-being and enhance their capabilities but if employment is forcefully driven by distress and is low paying, it only increases her burden. Kabeer's (2013) finding also shows that while formal employment has empowering implication for women consistently, employment in informal sector does not necessarily have positive impact on empowerment. This is supported by Pillai's (1995) claim that average women worker earns only about 3/5th of what their male counterpart earns in informal jobs. It is therefore clear that all employment does not

necessarily translate to empowerment. This study will try to make an in-depth analysis of the extent of relationship between women employment and empowerment.

It is difficult to give a concise and holistic definition of women empowerment since there is no consensus definition of empowerment among researchers. It can mean different things in different contexts depending on who is using the concept (Mosdale, 2005). However it has been noted that in recent empowerment literature the meaning of the term empowerment is often assumed rather than explained or defined (Weda, 2013). How empowerment is understood varies among different perspectives as it is shared by different discipline and arenas. For some researchers it is easy to define empowerment by its absence but difficult to define in action as it takes on different forms in different people and context (Rapport, 1984). In the absence of universally accepted definition we can generally accept what most researchers agree upon that empowerment is multi-dimensional, occurring at different levels and in different ways depending on individuals and communities and the environments in which they live. It is a process and therefore involves changes in existing power structure and a move from the state of disempowerment to empowerment (West, 2006).

Empowerment is therefore powerful; changing the power relations in favour of those who previously exercised little power over their lives. It is the process of wholesome upliftment of the traditionally under privileged women in society. Meanwhile Hasan (2013) refers women's empowerment to the process of improving gender equality in economic, social and cultural issues through developing awareness of women's subordination and building their capacity to challenge the power relation. For Agarwal et al. (2016) women's empowerment is bestowing power to women to decide for themselves or inculcating such abilities in them so that they are capable of finding their rightful place in the society. And for Shettar (2015) it is a process of upliftment of economic, social and political status of women, traditionally the underprivileged ones in the society and guarding them against all form of violence. According to Esplen and Brody (2007) women's empowerment is more than just for financial gain; it is about enabling women to live lives of well-being and dignity based on equality, rights and justice. Thus, women's empowerment is not merely

gaining financial independence from men but also the freedom to exercise one's right as an individual and as a female. Therefore, empowerment is something to be acquired rather than have it given to them by someone.

There are certain prerequisites that need to be incorporated in order to empower women successfully. One of them is that women must participate in the labour market because it has shown that when women earn an income they can gain both financial independence and a greater sense of agency over their lives (Vildoo, 2017). Empowerment and employment are two closely related concepts as employment is found to be a vital determinant in empowering women. According to Rosa (2010) a women when employed undergoes a lot of transformation in her personality. The decision to take up a job itself confers on the women a certain degree of self-confidence and self-worth. With the decision to take up employment she lifts herself out of confinement of the four walls of the kitchen and expose herself to the wider world and experience a whole new world of change. Employment is found to empower women by providing financial independence, alternative source of social identity and exposure to power structure.

2. Situational Overview

Employment is not only critical for poverty reduction but it has emerged to be one of the most important determinants of empowering women. According to the 2011 Census the Female Labour Force Participation Rate at the national level was only 23.7 % which is substantially low as compared to men. The Labour Force Participation Rate (LFPR) shows the proportion of a country's working –age population that engages actively in the labour market, either by working or looking for work. Table 1 displays the situation of female employment and work participation for the entire country. The Work Participation Rate (WPR) shows the workers population as a ratio of total population aged 15 years and above. In spite of the high economic growth during the last two decades India has a very low overall female participation rate compared with other countries of the world. The overall WPR also shows wide disparities between males and females over the five census period. As

presented in Table 1, one can see that in all the census years the overall female WPR does not even make up to half of male WPR.

Table 1: Work Participation Rate (WPR) by sex in India during 1971-2011

Census year	All	Males	Females
1971	33.08	52.61	12.11
1981	36.7	52.62	19.67
1991	37.5	51.61	22.27
2001	39.1	51.68	25.63
2011	39.8	53.3	25.5

Source-Statistical Profile on Women Labour 2012-13, Labour Bureau, Govt. of India.

Table 2 presents the status of women empowerment in India based on key indicators of National Family Health Survey 4 (NFHS-4), 2015-16. It is observed that more than 80% of the women take part in decision making both at the rural and urban level all other indicators scores well below average. Whereas for all the other indicators the scores are equally low and the situation seems to be worse in the rural areas.

Table 3 highlights the employment status of female population in Mizoram during the last 40 years covering five censuses. While the number of main workers has remained more or less constant till 1991 it started to fall in 2001 and drop further in 2011. Similarly, the percentage of marginal workers also dropped substantially from 69.8% in 1981 to 61.7% in 2011. This downward trend witnessed in both main workers and marginal workers from 2001 onwards contribute to the drop in the overall LFPR by 10.1% at the national level as revealed in a survey conducted by NSSO. The survey shows that there are 22.6 million fewer women in 2010 in the labour force across different states of India including Mizoram as compared to 2005.

Table 2- Indicators of Women's Empowerment in India according to NFHS-4 (2015-16)

SN	Indicators	Percent		
		Urban	Rural	Total
1	Participate in HH decision making	85.8	83	84
2	Work paid in cash	23.2	25.4	24.6
3	Experienced spousal violence	23.6	31.4	28.8
4	Experienced violence during pregnancy	2.9	3.5	3.3
5	Owned house or lands alone/jointly	35.2	40.1	38.4
6	Owned Bank/Saving account for personal use	61	48.5	53
7	Owned mobile phone for personal use	61.8	36.9	45.9
8	Had full antenatal care	31.1	16.7	21
9	Women aged 15 to 49 years who have undergone examination of cervix	25.3	20.7	22.3
10	Women aged 15 to 49 years who have undergone examination of breast	11.7	8.8	9.8
11	Women who have comprehensive knowledge of HIV/AIDS	28.1	16.9	20.9
12	Women who know that consistent condom use can reduce the chances of getting HIV/AIDS	67	48.1	54.9
13	Use hygienic method of protection during menstruation	77.5	48.2	57.6
14	Household with electricity	97.5	83.2	88.2
15	Household with improved drinking water source	91.1	89.3	89.9
16	Household using sanitation facility	70.3	36.7	48.4
17	Household using clean fuel for cooking	80.6	24	43.8
18	Household with any usual member covered by a health scheme or health insurance	28.2	29	28.7
19	Women who are literate	81.4	61.5	68.4
20	Women with 10 or more years of schooling	51.5	27.3	35.7

Source : The National Family Health Survey 2015-16 (NFHS - 4)

Table 3: Percentage distribution of Main workers, Marginal workers & Main workers by sex

Sl.No	Year	Main workers		Marginal workers		Non-workers	
		Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
1	1971	58	42	NA	NA	45.9	54.1
2	1981	62.9	37.1	30.2	69.8	45.3	54.7
3	1991	61.3	38.7	32.7	67.3	47	53
4	2001	62.2	37.8	35.9	64.1	46.5	53.5
5	2011	63.4	36.6	38.3	61.7	43.3	56.7

Source-Directorate of Census operations, Mizoram

3. Highlights of Empirical Literature

Several literature reviews made on this study concluded that paid employment is empowering and liberating both for women in rural and urban areas. Employment makes a person aware and knowledgeable. It makes one confident in mastering the job situation and increases her competence (Hasan 2013). Several studies carried out in South East Asia revealed the positive impact of employment on women empowerment. Studies found that employment increased the percentage of women taking active part in household decision- making both in rural and urban areas. Sarkar (2017) discovered that Hindu women had higher participation rate in household decision making than Muslim women because Hindu women were found to be more highly employed than Muslim women. The intra-household bargaining model also showed that wage employment had a direct positive impact on women's autonomy and empowerment (Braunstein 2008) meaning that women gained more bargaining power in the household and gained more control over decision –making. It is also observed that employed women had more capacity to face sudden household shocks than unemployed women. Sultana, et al. (2013) found that the change in occupational status from unemployed to employed caused a drastic change in the Cumulative Empowerment Index (CEI) and helped women to be more empowered.

Self Help Groups (SHGs) were also found to have a positive impact on employment and empowerment in India. Lagare et al. (2016) revealed that there were increase in income, investment and savings per member after joining the SHG. It was also found that the project itself helped to generate 73% more employment opportunities for the locals. It was also observed that there were significant changes in women's economic condition after joining the SHG activity. Agriculture labour which used to provide the maximum form of employment was replaced by other income generating activities. Assets creation increased, borrowings decreased, savings and consumption jumped tremendously to a high level, so was the employment level which improved the economic condition and standard of living (Shelke, et al., 2017). Results from another study (Gogoi and Sharma, 2013) also show that SHG helped to increase the per capita income of its member to a substantial amount. Besides providing employment to all its members, 44% of its members were able to create

additional employment opportunities to their family members, becoming an agent of empowerment in return. Performances of female SHG were far better than male SHG in almost all programmes. From all this findings it can be concluded that SHG activity definitely had a positive impact on employment and empowerment.

The impact of National Rural Employment Guarantee scheme (NREGS) and the Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (MGNREGA) on employment and empowerment cannot be overlooked. A study undertaken on the four economically poor states of India (Pankaj and Tankha, 2010) to examine the empowerment effect of NREGS on women workers revealed that after joining NREGS, rural women's economic dependence on male family members for meeting expenditure related to personal needs was reduced. The paid employment under NREGS had enhanced their freedom to use their earnings on themselves. Mattos and Dasgupta (2017) revealed in Bangladesh that there were significant increases in women's earning after joining Rural Women Employment Creation Project (RWECP), enabling them to meet all their personal needs including their medical and recreational expenses and also contributed to buy households assets. Joining the RWECP have transformed women to become bolder in expressing their opinion and had become aware of their rights and share of contribution to the family. However, when it comes to possessing an asset they still need the approval of their husband and other members of the family (Pravin et al., 2004).

A study on the impact of job on social status of women also revealed that employed women enjoyed more rights and command more respect from family members and members of the public as compared to unemployed men and women. Employed women were observed to be more confident and in a position to make life choices for themselves. In a conservative Muslim society where women employment is vehemently discouraged, the positive impact of employment is evident from the level of respect given to employed women over unemployed men and women (Panhwar, et al., 2017).

While paid work itself enhances empowerment some findings concluded that the level of empowerment differs with the level of work done. Women in certain

occupations have greater likelihood for empowerment than others depending on their association with the empowerment indicator (West, 2006). Among Middle East countries women those working outside home in public sector have greater autonomy and were more empowered than women employed in the private sector outside home and women engaged in home-based work (Sadania 2016). Studies also revealed that paid work made a difference in women's lives and formal employment has the strongest and most consistent impact on women's lives. They appeared to be confident and taking control of their own life (Kabeer, et al., 2011). A study by Rosa (2010) on women in south India supported that empowerment was not related to income alone. This was confirmed by the fact that Bank employees with the highest income among the study group scored the lowest in the empowerment indices while a self-employed business woman had the highest empowerment indices.

4. Significance of the study

India is among the few developing countries where gender equality and improvement in the status of women is the central goals of development and social policy till today. Every Five Year Plan since 1950 onwards has certain policies which aimed at increasing women's welfare. The Sixth Five Year Plan (1980-85) championed the cause of women as the concept of 'women and development' was introduced for the first time in this plan. Policy for Empowerment of Women was declared by Government of India in 2001 to eliminate all types of discrimination against women and to ensure justice, besides empowering women both socially and economically (Planning Commission, 2001). The 12th Plan also had women's empowerment as the central theme envisioning empowered women living in dignity in an environment free from violence and discrimination and contributing as equal partners in the development of a country. On International Women's Day in 2010 the National Mission for Empowerment of Women (NMEW) was launched by the Government of India with the objective of bringing together different Ministries and Departments of Government of India as well as State Governments and UT

Administrations in the implementations of schemes and programmes of empowerment (Mokta, 2014).

Despite all the efforts shown by the government and its agencies, the work participation rates of women has declined rather sharply for all age groups for the past 35 years, leading to the conclusion that women are largely being excluded from employment in India (Rosa, 2010). Among the G-20 nations in terms of women empowerment and employment India is third from the bottom next only to Pakistan and Saudi Arabia. The World Economic Forum's *Global Gender Report 2015* ranked India at 139 among 145 countries on the Economic participation and opportunity sub index and in the rankings by indicator, India's rank in Female Labour Force Participation Rate is 136 among 145 countries (Labour Bureau, 2015-16). Given all these, it is clear that India still has a long way to go to achieve its vision of having empowered women and inclusive development. Therefore it is the felt need of the hour that women are empowered socially and economically to overcome their pathetic situation. Providing equal employment opportunity as men will help in empowering them more and take control of their lives. The study is significant from economic point of view as it help to transform life of traditionally underprivileged women in the society from a situation of disempowerment to empowerment.

5. Statement of the problem

In India family and kinship are organised along patriarchal lines where descent and property is transmitted through the male line leaving women effectively without property and genealogically irrelevant (Kabeer *et al.*, 2011). Men have supreme authorities in their respective families and in the society at large. All important decisions are taken by men and women obediently follow them. In many conservative society women are considered subordinate to men in every aspect and taken merely as an object of reproduction. In remote rural society girl child are still denied education and confined to the four walls of the kitchen. As a result they remain illiterate, unemployed and poor unable to fend for themselves and end up living under the mercy of their husband. The census figures show that majority of women in India are

illiterate, unemployed, low paid and occupying a very poor status in the society (Rosa, 2010).

The Mizo society, like most societies is patriarchal where a woman by nature is considered inferior to men. During the pre-Christian days Mizo women were discriminated on the basis of sex. Women were regarded as subordinate to men both physically and mentally. Many derogatory terms were used by men to express the low mental regard they have for women. For example, 'Women and crabs have no religion' and 'Let a woman and a dog bark as they like', were often quoted by men to reflect women's inferior status in the Mizo society of olden days.

However, the advent of Christianity and the expansion of education brought about tremendous improvement in the status of women. These expressions still prevail today but they tend to be used in a lighter sense and are considered to be less meaningful as was perceived in the olden days. Today women are no longer considered to be inferior to men and they have become increasingly active in the economic and political spheres. They have made remarkable contributions to the social and economic upliftment of the mizo society. Women continue to play a major role in the workforce as they did in the pre-Christian era. While the traditional jhum cultivation still continues in the villages, in the growing urban centres many educated women hold respectable jobs and working in various capacities as Officers in Government offices, doctors, nurses, lecturers, teachers, Bankers, entrepreneurs etc. The high work participation rate of women in Mizoram compared to other NE states and India, and the rising trend in the number of female employees in public sector during the last three decades greatly increases Mizo women's contribution to the economy. All this have resulted in improving their status in the society and increases their involvement in the community. Moreover the social freedom enjoyed by both sexes in Mizo society have often led outsiders (non- Mizos) to conclude that the status of Mizo women are in no way inferior to men. But social freedom does not mean economic liberation. (Hnuni, 1999) The fact remain that gender inequalities still exist when it comes to job opportunities. According to 2011 census, of the total number of workers, female make up only 40.25% while men consist of 55.76%. As given in the Statistical Handbook (2009) of the total workforce employed by the state

Government, men comprises a little over 75% whereas women consist of only 24% of the total. This reveals the need for greater empowerment of women in areas of employment in all sectors of the economy.

6. Objective of the study

This study anchors at the analysis of the relationship between women employment and empowerment so as to draw concrete information on the impact of the former on the latter. The specific objectives of the study are as follows:

1. To examine the existing status of women employment and empowerment across the different states of India and to measure the relationship between the two.
2. To examine the general conditions of employment and empowerment in Aizawl district of Mizoram
3. To assess the impact of employment on the women's empowerment on control of family assets and resources, decision making, personal freedom and development.
4. To study the relationship between women employment and the socio-economic conditions of women.
5. To examine the differences in the level of empowerment and employment of women in rural and urban areas.

7. Hypotheses

To chalk out concrete conclusion from the data on the various indicators on empowerment and employment, the following hypotheses were tested:

1. Women empowerment is significantly determined by employment
2. Employed women have significantly higher advantages in ownership of Household assets.

3. Employment has increased the level of female participation in household decision making.
4. Level of women empowerment is significantly higher in urban areas than in rural areas.

8. Methodology

8.1. Data Source

i) Primary Data.

Primary data were collected through well-structured and pre-tested questionnaire schedule from the sampled villages and urban localities in Aizawl District of Mizoram. As per the Population Census 2011, the total population of this district stood at 4,00,309, which is as much as 37% of the total population of Mizoram, while Aizawl city alone contributed more than 73% of the entire district population. In view of the main economic activities and the population, the study area is broadly divided into two as urban for all localities within Aizawl city, and rural for all villages outside Aizawl. Accordingly, this study adopted stratified random sampling design for the collection of primary data in which the two areas (rural and urban) are considered as the strata. A total of 350 samples, 150 and 200 from rural and urban areas respectively, were covered in the survey. After screening of the result and data validation, 17 samples were rejected (13 from rural and 4 from urban) due to insufficient and inconsistency of data, and thus, the final sample size becomes 333 (i.e. 137 rural and 201 urban).

It is understood that the sampling units consist of female members of the population in the study areas. Selection or identification of the sample was undertaken as follows: Villages or urban localities are selected randomly from the list of villages and localities in Aizawl district, and this was followed by selection of the households. One female member was selected for interview from each of the selected households. Working women or women in working age are purposively selected from each sample household, while more priority was given older female family members in the selection. The field survey was undertaken during July 2017 to March 2018. It was

realised after covering substantial number of sample, relatively lower number of employed women were selected through the process of random sampling exercise. In view of the study objectives and hypotheses, employed women (government employees, self-employed, business, etc.) were given more priority in the subsequent sampling exercise to suit the need of the study.

ii) *Secondary Data.*

Secondary data are collected from various sources, mostly official data of the Central and State governments. Employment data are obtained from National Sample Survey, Labour Bureau, and Primary Abstract of Population Census 2011. Data related to women empowerment are generated from National Family Health Survey 4 (NFHS 4), 2015-16. Further, other information are collected from the reports and publications of Central Statistics Office (CSO), Government of India; and Directorate of Economics and Statistics, and Planning and Programme Implementation, Government of Mizoram; and individual research paper and publications.

8.2. Methods of Analysis

Data analysis collected from primary and secondary sources are analysed using different statistical measures. The methodology of data analysis is broadly divided into three – descriptive statistics, construction of indices, and measurement of impact or relationship.

1. *Descriptive Statistics.*

To study the general trends and patterns of data collected from secondary and primary sources, descriptive statistical tools like percentage, frequency distribution, charts, mean, and standard deviation are adopted. These are the key tools that are used to describe the general conditions of employment and empowerment so as to enable factual interpretation of the present scenario, and to form basis for further impact and relationship analysis.

2. Construction of Indices Women Empowerment

Different studies identified indicators of women empowerment (Karl, 1995; Kishore and Gupta, 2004; Rustagi, 2004; Sudha, 2006) in view of the availability of the data set. Keeping in view, information collected from the study area using interview schedule, this study decided to construct indices of empowerment. Four indices are constructed. As such, four indices constructed are on the basis of the responses in the structured questionnaire schedule administered in the field. Detailed descriptions of these indices are given as follows:

- a) Empowerment over Resource and Assets (ERA).
- b) Empowerment in Decision Making (EDM)
- c) Empowerment in Personal Development and Security (EPDS).
- d) Overall Women Empowerment (WEMP) – sum of ERA, EDM & EPDS.

The scores of each respondent in each of these indices are grouped into three categories as *low*, *medium* and *high* levels of empowerment using percentiles. Percentile is a number where a certain percentage of scores fall below that number. It is the relative standing in a set of data from the lowest value to the highest value. The study adopted 30th and 70th Percentiles as cut-off for categorisation of individual scores. All the respondents are categorised into three groups as follows: 30th Percentile as *Low*; 30th – 70th Percentile as *Moderate*; and above 70th Percentile as *High*. The detailed measure for the levels of empowerment of the respondent using these percentiles is presented Table-4.

Table 4: Categorisation (Levels) of the Respondents on Empowerment Scores

ERA		EDM		EPDS		WEMP	
Minimum: 13 Maximum: 52		Minimum: 24 Maximum: 120		Minimum: 11 Maximum: 22		Minimum: 48 Maximum: 194	
30 th Percentile = 30 70 th Percentile = 36		30 th Percentile = 78 70 th Percentile = 90		30 th Percentile = 15 70 th Percentile = 16		30 th Percentile = 113 70 th Percentile = 141	
≤ 30	Low	≤ 78	Low	≤ 15	Low	≤ 124	Low
30 - 36	Moderate	78 - 90	Moderate	15- 16	Moderate	124-141	Moderate
≥ 36	High	≥ 90	High	≥ 16	High	≥ 141	High

3. *Measurement of Impact and Relationship*

Firstly, to examine the relationship or impact of employment on women empowerment, the different parameters of empowerment and socio-economic conditions of the respondents are cross-tabulated with their employment status, and the significance of the relationship between these attributes are tested using Chi-squares statistic. Secondly, to test the cause-effect relationship, the following dummy variable regression model was estimated for different indices of empowerment by OLS method:

$$E_i = \alpha + \beta Z_i + e_i$$

Where

E_i = The empowerment index.

Z_i = 0, if the respondent is unemployed.

= 1, if the respondent is employed.

Thirdly, to test the significance of difference between the scores rural and urban respondents on empowerment index, t-test for difference of means is adopted. In addition to the test of significance between rural and urban areas, the differences among the different employment categories (housewife, self-employed, government employees, others) were tested using one-way ANOVA method.

9. Scheme of Chapterisation

The study is organised in six chapters as follows:

- Chapter 1 -Introduction.
- Chapter 2 – Review of Literature.
- Chapter 3 – Scenario of Women Employment and Empowerment in Different States of India.
- Chapter 4 – General Conditions of Women Employment and Empowerment in Aizawl District, Mizoram
- Chapter 5 – An Analysis on the Empirical Relationship Between Employment and Women Empowerment.
- Chapter 6 – Summary of Findings and Conclusions

10. Brief Description of Study Area

This research attempts to examine the condition of women employment and empowerment and their relationship in the state of Mizoram taking Aizawl district as case. Mizoram has a population of 10.97 lakhs, and a population density of 52 persons per sq. km., and the sex ratio is 976, according to the 2011 Census. The state is divided into 8 administrative districts and 26 Rural Development (RD) Blocks. Recently, the state government has created 3 other districts, but the new districts are yet to be fully functional. Among the 8 districts, Aizawl district has the largest number of households (37.03% of the total number of households in Mizoram). Aizawl district is divided into 5 RD blocks, namely Aibawk, Darlawn, Phullen, Thingsulthliah and Tlangnuam, and there are 108 villages excluding Aizawl city. There are 14 legislative assembly constituencies within the district. The capital city housed all important Government offices, State Assembly House and Civil Secretariat. According to 2011 census Aizawl district has a population of 4, 00,309 which is around 37% of the total population of the state. Female members account for half of the population and interestingly the female sex ratio is higher than male in the district.

11. Major Findings

- 1) According to the data obtained from Labour Bureau the female unemployment rate in India increases from 7.7% in 2013-14 to 8.7% in 2015-16. Among the states, Tripura has the highest unemployment rate of 49.8% in 2015-16 followed by Sikkim (37.8%) and A &N Islands (32.9%). At the same time the overall indicators of women empowerment (WEMP) calculated from NFHS-4 as presented in Table 3.9 shows that the state of Kerala has the highest empowerment scores followed by Goa and Lakshadweep. It is observed that Tripura which has the highest unemployment rate was ranked very low in the overall indicators of women empowerment. Meanwhile Uttar Pradesh one of the worst performers in terms of women's empowerment is also found to have high unemployment rate. On examining the relationship between empowerment and unemployment across

the states of India one can see that there is an inverse relationship between the two. It may thus be concluded that women unemployment and empowerment are inversely related among the states of India.

- 2) Inter-state analysis presented in Table 3.4 on the performance of empowerment and Female Labour Force Participation Rate (FLPR) shows that Chhattisgarh (543) has the highest followed by Mizoram (540) and Nagaland (536). But in terms of women empowerment these states with high FLPR like Chhattisgarh and Andhra Pradesh (466) are not performing equally well. As for Female Work Participation Rate (FWPR) Himachal Pradesh has the highest score (44.8%) followed by Nagaland (44.7%) and Chhattisgarh (39.7%). Again states who scores moderately well in FWPR like Chhattisgarh, Andhra Pradesh, Nagaland are not equally good in women empowerment. Further, chi-square test is not significant between work participation and labour force participation. As such the participation of women in economic activity does not necessarily translate into their empowerment in the family and society (Zote and Thanga, 2019).
- 3) An examination of the relationship between the index of women (i.e. WEMP) with the level of economic development as indicated by the per capita NSDP during 2015-16 among the states of India revealed that the bottom states in terms of per capita NSDP (Bihar, UP, Jharkhand, Madhya Pradesh, Odisha) were the worst performer in terms of women empowerment. Further, the correlation between the two variables across the states was found to be significant and positive ($r = 0.67$). Thus, women empowerment is also directly related to the level of economic development among the states of India.
- 4) The socio-economic conditions in the study area shows that although there is no illiteracy among the working age group women, the educational attainment level is fairly low and the situation is observed to be more intense in rural areas where 78% of them have middle school and below education. Within the study area taken as a whole 63% have upto high school level education while only 21.3% have Graduate and above degree education. Low educational level among women is considered to have serious implications on their future employability in different kind of jobs.

- 5) Comparative analysis of the socio-economic conditions of the respondents in rural and urban areas also showed that the average marriage age of rural respondents are lower than urban respondents. While only 7.7% of urban respondent marry off before turning 20 years, around 22.6% marry off at the same age among rural respondents which would have serious implication on the educational attainment of rural respondents. The percentage of women having more children is relatively higher among rural women. The average number of children per women in urban area is observed to 2.4 per women, while it is 3 per women in rural area. Similarly, a sector wise monthly income distribution reveals a stark difference in the average income between rural and urban respondents. While urban respondents enjoy an average annual family income of ₹49227, it is only ₹17193 for rural respondents.
- 6) As much as 55.3% of the respondents in the study areas are reported to not engage in any specific work and considered to be housewife. The remaining 44.7% are either self-employed, government employees, casual workers or engaged in other works. A further enquiry of the job profile of those engaged in organised government job shows that almost 90% are holding clerical and lower rank jobs. This clearly confirms that majority of women working within the organised sector are located in the lower rung of the hierarchy.
- 7) The analysis of the family socio-economic conditions of women in the study area shows that 79% live in their own house of which 36% live in pucca house while about 40% live in kuchha house. The average income is ₹36047 however a significant difference is observed in the average income of rural (₹17193) and urban (₹49227) resulting in vast disparity in living standards between rural and urban dwellers. As for family type 77.8% are married and about 70% are wife of head of family. As for taking up responsibility in the family, beside performing normal household chores and childcare, 47.4% women in the study area sacrifice their leisure time in doing additional housework in and around the house.
- 8) As for the ownership of family properties and assets, women have very low access to inheritable assets like land pass, house, vehicles and business establishment. It has been found that 62% of land pass, 72% of other plot of land, 54% of dwelling houses, 67% of two wheelers, 58% of four wheelers and 52% of business

establishment are registered in husband's name. Women only have visible command and access to personal properties and gender sensitive assets like mobile phones, jewellery etc. As for acquisition or purchase of durable assets like land, vehicle, house construction etc. women have very little voice as most decision are taken by men. However, women have upper hand on decision regarding purchase of appliance, jewellery, clothing, food, allocation of fund to different activities and savings. And it is worth noting that women have higher command than men in decisions relating to family planning and child related matters.

- 9) Women enjoy considerable freedom to participate in different social organisations. About 64% join the state level women's organisation (MHIP) to socialise and for self-improvement. However 62% finds no benefit in joining the NGO as their status in the family and society did not improve even after joining the NGO. Therefore freedom to join social organisations does not necessarily translate into empowerment within the family and society as a whole.
- 10) The banking coverage of women in rural and urban areas of Mizoram is impressive as more than 76% have saving bank account and about 90% operate personal account. Around 56% operate their account regularly while more than 42% do savings on regular basis. All this show the ability of female members to handle financial transactions in financial institutions which indicate that there is empowerment of women in financial literacy in the study area. However, the insurance coverage of women is very low (14%) in the study area which is a matter of concern.
- 11) While men are found to dominate in almost all important decision making, there are certain areas where mutual decisions are taken with husband. Decision on purchase of white goods or household appliances, allocation of fund for different activities, how much to save, number of children to raise, family planning method, children's education, contribution and participation in social organisation are all decided jointly by husband and wife.
- 12) In analysing the perceptions of women relating to women empowerment majority of respondents agree with statements that favours women empowerment and 62% agree that Mizo Customary Law favours men. However, 80% agree with the

statement that major decisions must be taken by men and more than 97% disagree that women should have superior position in the family. Therefore, it can be concluded that most women support women's empowerment in the family and society but they are not ready to take up superior position in the family and society than men.

- 13) A cross tabulation of employment status and several indicators of empowerment which range from resources and assets (ERA), decision making (EDM), personal development and security (EPDS) and overall women empowerment index (i.e. WEMP) showed that employed women enjoy better positions in most of these indicators with significant chi-square statistics. Similarly, the average score of employed women who are in the category of government employees and business ownerships are found to be significantly higher in the four empowerment indices. This observations is also justified by the ANOVA which shows the highly significant F-statistic. Thus, employed women enjoyed significantly better position on different measures of empowerment.
- 14) On further regrouping of the respondents between employed (those engaged in economic activities e.g. Government employees, self-employed and other works) and unemployed (those who have no engagement in income generating activities e.g. housewife), the mean scores of employed women are significantly higher than unemployed women in all the measures. For ERA, while the mean score is 36.3 for the employed, it is 30.7 for the unemployed. For EDM the mean score is 84.3 for the employed and 80.5 for the unemployed. For EPDS the mean score is 16.4 for the employed and 15.0 for the unemployed. And for WEMP the mean score for the employed is 137 and 126.2 for the unemployed. As the t-statistics for between employed and unemployed are significant in all the measures, it can be said that employed women are more empowered than the unemployed. Further, the estimated regression coefficients of employment to each of the indices of empowerment are all positive and significant. Thus, it can be concluded that employment has positive impact on the level of women's empowerment. The result has proved the study Hypothesis No.1.
- 15) On further examination of the impact employment on sub-indices of empowerment, the regression coefficient of employment dummy (1-employed, 0-

unemployed) on ERA was found to be positive (0.53) and highly significant. Further, as given above, the average score of employed women on ERA is significantly higher than the score of unemployed women. Thus, it can be concluded that employed women have significantly higher advantages in ownership of household assets which supports Hypothesis No.2 of the study as given in Chapter 1.

- 16) In a patriarchal society where male dominates the family and society, participation of women in decision making process in the family and society will be a good indicator of empowerment as it will have substantial impact in lifting their social status. It is worth noting that the percentage of women participating in decision making is far better among employed women as compared to the unemployed. The average score of employed women (77.15) is higher than the unemployed with acceptable statistical significance, while the coefficient of employment dummy is also significant and positive. Thus, the study Hypothesis No.3 stating that employment has increased the level of female participation in household decision making is found proved.
- 17) The average scores of urban respondents in all the empowerment indices are higher than that of their rural counterparts. In fact, the number of urban respondents who are categorised as *high* score (above 70th percentile) constitutes as much as 42.3% as against 8.8% only in rural areas. Besides, the calculated t-statistics for the difference of means between rural and urban areas are significant for WEMP, ERA and EPDS. It can be said that level of women empowerment in urban areas is higher than in rural areas. This supports Hypothesis No.4.

12. Conclusions

All the analysis using different tools and indices have shown that employment has been the significant factors determining women empowerment in the study areas. The positive impact of employment as indicated by positive coefficients of employment dummies has indicated that women employment and empowerment are directly related. In other words, it can also be said that there is an inverse relationship between unemployment and empowerment. Further, women in urban areas are

enjoying better empowerment status than their rural counterparts in all the measures. *Second*, this study did not observed significant relationship between women empowerment and their labour force participation or work participation. Thus, a mere participation of women in the family labour work or labour force does not necessarily translate into empowerment, while employment in income generating activities in own-business or in organised sector (mostly government job) has clear impact on empowerment. It can be argued that women having taken active part in the family works are not necessarily empowered within the family.

Third, the critical areas where women have limited access and say in the decision are inheritable or transferable household assets. Women have very low access to inheritable assets like land pass, house, and business establishment; while they have little voice on the purchase or acquisition of these assets as most decision were taken by men. *Fourth*, women in the study areas enjoy clear freedom to participate in various women groups, NGOs and SHGs. Most of them were joining state wide women organisation (i.e. Mizoram Hmeichhe Insuihkhawm Pawl, in short MHIP). However, it was found that majority of the respondents did not find joining these groups are not implicating their empowerment in the family and society. *Sixth*, there is a contradicting perception among the respondents on gender empowerment. As much as 62% said the Mizo Customary Law favours men and 77% favours equal rights of inheritance, while 80% supports the argument that major decision in the family must be taken by men and 97% agree disagree the arguments that women should have superior position in the family. It may be argued that the women in the study areas do not have clear understanding of the parameters of empowerment in the family. *Lastly*, it is interesting to see the positive relationship between economic development (per capita NSDP) and levels of empowerment in different states of India. This is in clear support to the above observations of employed women having been more empowered than unemployed, and thus, it may be said that economic development will have unequivocal implications on gender empowerment in the country.

13. Suggestions & Recommendations

It is also desired to propose some suggestions and recommendation based on the findings and observations of this study.

- The critical area where the study observed clear gaps in terms of women empowerment is access of women to heritable and transferrable household assets like house, land pass and other valuable assets. As the limited rights of women on these assets has been embedded in the long cultural and customary practices among the people in Mizoram, it may not be possible to ensure equal rights with men in a short term. But, it is necessary to change the mindset of the people and take legislative efforts on women's right to inheritance. The Bill, *The Mizo Marriage, Divorce and Inheritance of Property Act , 2014*, passed by the Mizoram Legislative Assembly is seen as a movement in this direction. Strict enforcement of the rules under this Act by the state government will have clear impact on women's access to inheritable and transferable assets.
- Engagement of women in income (cash) generating activities (employment in organised sector and business) has empowerment implication. Meanwhile, the empowerment scores of women in rural areas, where limited opportunities are available for these income generating employment, is significantly lower than the urban scores. It is thus necessary to implement gender-specific livelihood promotion scheme especially in rural areas which may come in the form of SHGs, cooperatives societies, scheme under MGNREGA, etc.
- The study recommends that in order for women to be empowered firstly there need to be sea change in the general perception and mindset of the people. The concept of gender equality must be inculcated in young minds. 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. Further, people should also be made aware of the existing statutory provisions to protect the interest of women in the society.

- It is surprising to see that majority of women who joined the women organisation said joining the groups have not improve their empowerment status in the family and society, while the state wide NGO like MHIP has been seen as champion for improvement of the status of women in Mizo society. Thus, it is considered necessary to revisit the foundational principles and objectives of the women organisations in the state, keeping in view the changing lifestyle and needs of the day, to make them plays significant role towards gender empowerment. The continuous demand of the women bodies on leadership role in Church activities is also required to be attended appropriately.
- This study also suggested on the following areas to generate more intellectual inputs in respect to women empowerment in the study areas: (i) analysis of skill development, skill gap and employability of women in rural and urban areas of Mizoram, (ii) the role and scope for participation of women's groups (SHGs, cooperatives, etc.) in agricultural value chain, (iii) impact of *The Mizo Marriage, Divorce and Inheritance of Property Act, 2014*, (iv) gender roles in different livelihood activities in rural areas, (v) nature of women employment in the unorganised and organised sector, and (vi) nature and causes of women's unemployment in Mizoram.

14. References

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