

**WORK PARTICIPATION AND ECONOMIC STATUS OF WOMEN IN
NAGALAND**

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DECLARATION

I, Miss. Imcharenla, hereby declare that subject matter of this thesis “Work Participation and Economic Status of Women in Nagaland” is the work done by me. The contents of this thesis did not form the basis 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 in any other University/Institute.

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ABBREVIATIONS

AU	African Union
DIET	District Institute of Education and Training
DAW	Division for the Advancement of Women
DHDR	District Human Development Report
FAO	Food and Agricultural Organization
FHH	Female Headed Household
FLFP	Female Labour Force Participation
FWPR	Female Work Participation Rate
GC	Gini Coefficient
GDI	Gender Development Index
GEM	Gender Empowerment Measures
GNP	Gross National Product
GOI	Government of India
HDI	Human Development Index
KILM	Key Indicators of Labour Market
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
MHHDC	Mahbub ul Haq Human Development Centre
MHH	Male Headed Household
MHRD	Ministry of Human Resource Development
NSHDR	Nagaland State Human Development Report
NH	National Highway
NER	North Eastern Region
NREGA	National Rural Employment Guarantee Act
NSSO	National Sample Survey Organisation
OECD	Organization for Economic Corporation and Development
PCI	Per Capita Income
PIHS	Probit Integrated Household Survey
SBI	State Bank of India
SHGs	Self Help Groups
SNA	System of National Accounts
UNDP	United Nations for Development Programme
UNIFEM	United Nations Development Fund for Women
VDB	Village Development Board
VCC	Village Council Chairman
WPR	Work Participation Rate
WWPR	Women Work Participation Rate

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Chapter I

INTRODUCTION

1.1: INTRODUCTION AND CONCEPT

Work is important for income, production and status, yet, people are neither solely defined by their work, nor is it possible to ignore the effects of factors outside the workplace on a person's status at work. This makes us consider the role of productive work in life as a whole and the distribution of unpaid work as well as the myriad questions relating to employment¹. When we look at categories and statistics of work, for many years in many societies, only those works outside the home have been considered as productive work and thus, has been counted as 'real' work. As it is also linked to pay or income, official statistics often refer to this as numbers of people in 'economic activity'².

In India, according to the Payment of Wages (amendment) act, 1957, a person earning less than Rs.400 per month was considered a worker. The amendment of 1976 raised this limit to Rs.1000 per month was considered a worker. The Amendment of 1976 raised this limit to Rs 1000 per month, and in 1982, the application of the Act was further extended to cover persons earning less than Rs.1600 per month. The classification of workers according to sectors, unorganized sector worker includes a person who is working in an unorganized sector workplace or is self-employed including a home-based worker or a person who works under no clear employment contract. Worker invariably means adult worker (women & men) with a minimum age of 14 years and maximum age of 65 years³.

The labour force for a country consist of persons who are either working or looking for work, it comprises the employed plus the unemployed. The labour participation rate is the number of people in the labour force divided by the size of the adult civilian excluding institutional population (or by the population of working age that is not institutionalized). The non-labour force, includes those who are not looking for work, those who are institutionalized such as in prisons or psychiatric wards, retired personnel, stay-at home spouses, children and students. According to ILO the unemployed people are those of the working age without a paid job, who are available to work and who are actively looking for or wanting for job. The unemployment level is defined as the labour force minus the number of people currently employed. The unemployment rate is defined as the level of unemployment

1 Loutfi Martha Fetherolf (2002) "Women Gender and Work", Rawat Publications, Jaipur and New Delhi page 5.

2 Bullock Susan (1994) "Women and Work", Zed Books Ltd. London and New Jersey, page 12.

3 Dutt & Sundharam KPM (2006) "Indian Economy", S.Chand & Company Ltd. Page 736.

divided by the labour force. The employment rate is defined as the number of people currently employed divided by the adult population (or by the population of working age). In these statistics, self-employed people are counted as employed. Economically active population comprises people in employment together with unemployed person while economically inactive population comprises people who are neither in employment nor unemployment. This group includes all people under minimum aged limit together with who are looking after home, retired and also who are not seeking work.

The ILO defines the employed comprise of all persons above a specific age who during a specified brief period were in the following categories: (a) paid employment: (1) at work - persons who during the reference period performed some work for wage or salary in cash or kind and (2) with a job but not at work - persons who having already worked in their present job were temporarily not at work during the reference period and had a formal attachment to their job.

The women work participation, based on the official definition of work participation, may be broadly divided into household work and economic activities. Under household activities, time spent on household activities, such as cooking, washing, looking after children etc. and under economic activities, depending on the nature of their economic activities, on their own farms or on others farms and time spent on such activities in rural area; Whereas in urban area, time spent in household activities, employment in formal and informal sector, self-employed etc. are accounted.

Work in India is predominantly conducted outside of paid formal contracts. There is a huge formal sector in urban areas, but both rural and urban India also have large numbers of people doing farming, trading and other work in informal enterprises. Instead a range of remuneration arrangements for farmers, traders, other proprietors and their families, non-family helpers, and piece-rate workers cause low employment participation rates. Among women there was a long-term downward trend in the labour-force participation rates from 1901- 1971 (Sharma, 1985⁴; citing Mies, 1980; 6⁵). This long- term trend reflected the growth of the distinct role of the housewife over the period 1901-1971 and was unfortunately associated with a rising male sex ratio of the population as a whole.

The ministry of labor and employment has published few facts regarding growth trends in women employment. Women form an integral part of the Indian workforce.

4 Sharma, M (1985), "Caste, Class and Gender-Production and Reproduction in North India," *Journal of Peasant Studies* 12(4): 57-58.

5 Mies, M (1980), "Capitalist Development and Subsistence in Sharma, M (1985), "Caste, Class and Gender-Production and Reproduction in North India," *Journal of Peasant Studies* 12(4): 57-58.

According to the information provided by the office of Registrar General & Census Commissioner of India, As per Census 2011, the total number of female workers in India is 149.8 million and female workers in rural and urban areas are 121.8 and 28.0 million respectively. Out of total 149.8 million female workers, 35.9 million females are working as cultivators and another 61.5 million are agricultural laborers. Of the remaining female's workers, 8.5 million are in household Industry and 43.7 million are classified as other workers⁶.

Workforce participation rate of women and men is a good indicator of economic development of the country. During 2005-06, WPR of women was about 31% in rural areas and 14% in urban areas according to the usual status. For males, the WPR was about 56% both in rural areas and in urban areas. However, there was a marked improvement by about 6 percentage points for rural WPR of women as compared to 2004-05 in India.

The workforce participation rate of females during 2009-10 in rural sector was 26.1% (NSS 64th Round) while that for males was 54.7%. In urban sector, it was 13.8% for females and 54.3% for males. Among the States and Union Territories, workforce participation rate of females in the rural sector was the highest in Himachal Pradesh at 46.8% and in the urban sector it was highest in Mizoram at 28.8%.⁷

An ILO project, "Key Indicators of Labour Market" (KILM) was developed and being in use from 1980 onwards in collection of employment data annually. The KILM data include three indicators aimed at quantifying-youth unemployment, long-term unemployed and employed by educational attainment. The major educational attainment levels used are primary, secondary and tertiary education. Further, the status in employment indicators is distinguished between (a) wage and salaried workers (b) self-employed worker or employees (c) contributing family workers or unpaid family workers.

These data help for comparison between and within countries and regions concerning women's access to paid work and schooling, insights into quality of work carried out by women compared to men. The data reveals that, in determining women's economic activities; cultural and social norms, traditions and government policies play a greater role. As such, the labour force participation rate, an indicator of overall level of labour market activity between sexes shows that unlike men's labour participation rates, which are high in all countries, there

6 Census of India, 2011, Office of the Registrar General and Census Commissioner, India, Ministry of Home Affairs, Government of India.

7 Women and Men in India, Ministry of Statistics Programme Implementation, GOI, 2012 (14th Issue).

is great cross-country variation in women's rates. Countries having lowest participation rates are Latin America, Caribbean, the Middle East and North Africa. Scandinavia have the highest women participation rates reflecting high levels of education, as well as government policies and subsidies for child care which reduces discrimination⁸.

The female education, general labour market conditions, cultural attitudes, traditional practices etc. affects women labour participation rate⁹. There is evidence that women work participation and relative wages determine fertility and that highly educated women postpone fertility and have a higher market attachment. Furthermore, cultural factors related to the gender role model prevailing in a family are of central importance in determining women's labour force participation¹⁰. (Bratti, 2002). In service sector, the number of women working in offices and commerce in developing countries are increasing in recent years. There is however, a trend for these occupations especially teachers, secretaries, sales and customer service occupations are becoming more feminized. Further, community, social and health services in many countries show high concentration of women. But even in these services higher ranked posts are held by men, for instance, in health service women are usually nurses etc. Thus, female employment remained concentrated in a narrow range of occupations¹¹. Rapid industrialization, while expanding employment opportunities, has not fully benefited working women because women are concentrated in traditionally female industries such as textiles, clothing, agro based industries and low skill jobs, keep their wages low and hinders their upward mobility.

In rural areas, throughout the third world countries, women are typically farmers. In Sub-Saharan Africa, subsistence farming is essentially a women activity; they are primary labourers where they contribute two thirds or more of all hours of work. Food production, processing and marketing are essentially a female responsibility. A more complex picture emerges from Asian countries. In India, while overall female participation is falling due to surplus labour but more women are joining the agricultural wage labour due to growing landlessness. In Bangladesh, women participation in agriculture is increasingly seen and poverty drove them to other hard works like road construction. In South-East Asian Countries,

8 ILO (1999) Key Indicators of Labour Market, printed form; ISBN 92-2-110833-1

9 Jaumotte Florence (2003) "Female Labour Force Participation: Past Trends and main Determinants in OECD countries", OECD Economics Department, Series No.376, 12th December.

¹⁰ Bratti Massimiliano (2002), Labour Force Participation and Marital Fertility of Italian Women: The Role of Education, Royal Economic Society, Series no. 34, 29th August, 2002.

¹¹ Twomey, Breda (2001), Women in the Labour Market: Results from the Spring 2001 LFS, Labour Market Division, Office for National Statistics, London.

women are actively engaged in rice and other crop cultivation. In Malaysia and Sri Lanka, women constitute more than half of the labour force in tea, rubber and coconut plantations and production. But they received lower pay than the male counterparts for the same task. Besides, they face extra burden because of inadequate child care facilities and the long distance between home and work place. Urban informal sector employment, in almost all Asian and African countries, the share of women is greater than men where employment is casual and irregular with low income¹². The segregation by sex in the labour market is detrimental to women; having negative effect on how men view women and how women view themselves. The persistence of gender stereotypes also has negative effects on education and training and thus causes gender based inequalities. Occupational segregation by sex occurs everywhere, causing labour rigidity and economic inefficiency, wasting human resources, preventing change, disadvantaging women and perpetuating gender inequalities. The complexity in the relationship between women-men differential, therefore, needs to be explored¹³.

Besides, there are evidences of gender wage differential within categories of occupations. The wage differential is caused by demand discrimination within occupations, traditional attitudes etc. (Francis, 1994)¹⁴. The greater gender wage gap is evident in the self-employed sector, which may reflect liquidity constraints that are more difficult for self-employed women to overcome relative to self-employed men (Miller, 2004)¹⁵. The large gender pay gap in self-employment suggests that the aggregate gender wage differential will not be eliminated solely through wage determination for wage and salary earners. Nevertheless, the wage gap between male and female workers has narrowed in developed countries like the US and the UK over the past twenty five years. At the same time, employment rates for men and women have converged (Michal Myck and Gillian Paul, 2001)¹⁶. Increasing women's wages reduces fertility by raising the cost of children relatively more than household income and in turn, lower fertility raises the level of capital per worker, which directly influences the nutritional status of the household. Further, it narrows the gender inequalities. Thus, it is important to raise the women's wages.

¹² Mier, Gerald M and James F. Rauch (2000), *Leading Issues in Economic Development*, Oxford University Press, New York.

¹³ Richard Anker (1998), *Gender and Jobs; sex segregation of occupations in the world*, Geneva, ILO (Originally published in *International Labour Review*, vol.136(1997), No.3.)

¹⁴ Vella Francis (1994), *Gender Roles and Human Capital Investment: The Relationship between Traditional Attitudes and Female Labour Market Performance*, *Economica*, No1.61, pp 191-211.

¹⁵ Eastough Kristy Miller Paul W (2004), "The Gender Wage Gap and Self-Employment in Australia" *Journal of Australian Economic Papers*, Blackwell Publishing.

¹⁶ Myck Michal and Paul Gillian (2001) "*The Role of Employment Experience in Explaining the Gender Gap*", Institute for Fiscal Studies Working paper, Series No.WOI/ 18th August, London.

Among many socio-economic factors, female education is associated with entry by women into the formal labour market, especially into job in modern sector. Education is mainly considered in relation to employment status which further influences their working life and development of individuals (Bullock, 1994)¹⁷. Education system between its potential to promote society and economy and its role as defender of prevailing norms and values extends to the labour market; it helps in supplying the skills that the market identifies as necessary, and it shapes the market to make it more efficient and more egalitarian. Education and work are strongly (positively) correlated. This correlation has important implications for models of fiscal policy and economic growth. It also has important implications for the estimation of labour supply and the rate of return to education.

Despite the impressive gains that women have made towards gender equality through spread of education that enhance employment opportunities and emerging socio-economic developments, privileges of legal and political rights, there exist significant inequalities, which must be addressed if one is to speak of socio-economic justice. One of the neglected dimension is “access and effective control over resources and their uses- public as well as private; inequality in command over property is the single most important form of persisting economic inequality between women and men”, in the words of Bina Agarwal (2000)¹⁸.

Land is the principal asset in rural areas; thus, access to credit, extension services, technologies, even co-operative organizations and trainings are generally linked to land titles. Although women performed bulk of agricultural works, as in much of the developing countries, they seldom have full title. ILO holds the view that the process of change in rural areas especially population pressure and modern forms of land exploitation were weakening women access to the factors of production resulting in declining food security in the household level.

Women’s land rights are limited, conditional and insecure. Local custom and women’s own lack of information are barriers to change this situation. For enhancing income through employment and improving productivity and for making up seasonal shortfalls, availability of credit is essential. But in most developing countries women farmers have limited access to credit for lack of assets and holdings, required to guarantee loans. Women’s potential productivity and ability to repay loans are frequently under estimated though it shows a good record of repayment. The assistance provided by agricultural extension services, foreign aid

¹⁷ Bullock, Susan (1994) “Women and Work”, Zed Books Ltd. London and New Jersey.

¹⁸ Aggarwal, Bina (2000), Gender inequality- Some critical Neglected Dimensions, ILO, Geneva.

and NGO's may also be unavailable to them because men are often seen as the farmers and household heads. Ruth Dixon argues thus, the reluctance to 'see' women farmers comes not from the invisibility but from a reluctance to share scarce resources with them..... including women in labour force satisfies in proportion to the amount of work they actually do is an essential first step in making female farmers visible to planners and policy makers.

Scholars working on the status of women in India and elsewhere opine that many changes have occurred in the traditional conception of role and status of women through new opportunities for education and employment, emergence of new socio-economic pattern, and privileges of equal legal and political rights, yet, women in the rural areas lagged behind their counterparts in urban areas because different opportunities were not made available to them. Agro economists and rural-sociologists in India conducted a number of studies in different parts of the country on the impact of the introduction of new technology on women labour force participation and its consequences on their status gives contradicting results that one set of studies depicts the positive role while others indicates that it has reduced the status of women to utter dependency. These two perspectives became very clear if we look at the results of different studies, which have shown varying results on the status of women (Savita Thakur Joshi, 1999)¹⁹.

The position of women in the labour market merits particular attention, as higher participation rate of women will contribute in a decisive manner to the economic growth. In practical terms the States are expected to tackle "Gender Gap", take appropriate policy action to allow women and men to reconcile work and family life and facilitate integration of women in the labour market. In moving towards gender equality, new strategy on employment policy is needed, reinforcing equal opportunities within the economy. To assess equal opportunities, it needs to adopt an innovative methodology, incorporating indicators of the relative opportunities of men and women that include differences in unemployment, wages and the sharing of unpaid work and also indicators of women's absolute situations in the labour market. To assess equal opportunities at national situations may take two different approaches, first on an equal division of paid and unpaid work and secondly, on the position of women in the labour market. Equal opportunity policy should therefore, focus on the distribution of paid work and unpaid work with the ultimate objective of eliminating differences.

¹⁹ Joshi, Savita Thakur(1999), Women and Development. The Changing Scenario, Mittal Publications, New Delhi.

Women work participation rate and her being economically independent is thus very vital for determining the economic status of women. There are two schools of thoughts; one maintains that the participation of women in labour force helps raise status. The other school of thought contends that mere participation does not help. Ownership of land and other means of production provide them social security and self esteem. Similarly, access to credit in their own right as well as membership in co-operative organizations gives them equal opportunities to participate. On the other hand, if they are denied these rights and there are wage differences in the labour market, then they occupy a low status. In assessing the economic status of women, information on the following economic indicators may draw impartial lights viz; contribution of women to household works, including water, fuel collection and livestock rearing. Labour force participation by sex, wage differentials, access to credit in their own rights, land and property ownership by sex, access to extension services by sex; and membership in co-operative organization by sex.

1.2: STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

To determine the status of women on the basis of economic parameters is difficult, because of the inherent problems in delineating work as economic activity from the household activities, especially for those engaged in subsistence agriculture. Women since time immemorial have formed an organic component of working force of the country besides doing normal domestic work as a housewife. However, the role of women as an active worker-producer of goods and services has not been duly recognized by the male dominated society. Women have been relegated to a secondary position, with certain exceptions in the sense of power and privilege. Even in advanced societies where women are sole bread earners still live in a state of subjugation. Though the constitution of India provides for equal rights and privileges for men and women, it is far from reality. The persistent efforts by the planners, social welfare agencies and women's own organizations have failed to provide them their rightful place in the society. Even in the 21st century, the condition of women folk, particularly in the rural community, is deplorable. The basic reason for such neglect is dearth of specific data on women's involvement in various economic activities. There is no attempt to quantify the economic contribution by women to their families and to their community. Also majority of the national programs have focused on the problems, needs and interests of men.

Another drawback of measurement in many countries is in gathering accurate employment data by status in employment and by sex. Because of biased reporting or

misclassification, substantial number of women may have been reported as unpaid family workers though they work on an equal footing with their partners in the family enterprise or farm. Women employment tends to be under-estimated, especially when women are engaged in subsistence agriculture or manufacturing, because their activities are often considered as an extension of their domestic responsibilities. Women generally earn a far lower wage than men doing the same work. In no state do women and men earn equal wages in agriculture. This wage differential is detrimental for individual women in general and women headed households in particular. With economic development, there has been significant increase of women's participation in many forms of economic activity. But there is no final answer, because change continues all the time and not all changes are positive. The power of the status quo is great, and there are parts of the world and sectors of work where little progress can be seen in the lives of working women.

The range of activities constituting what is understood as work affects the scope of all topics in labour statistics. Employment, unemployment and income statistics are concerned only with persons carrying out or seeking to carry out "work". But to be useful in making gender distinctions, "work" needs to cover all the activities carried out to produce the goods and services in society, regardless of whether they are remunerated, declared to the tax authorities, carry out intermittently, casually, simultaneously or seasonally, etc.; and regardless of whether the goods or services produced are intended for sale, for barter or for own household consumption. At present however, the definition of "work" is limited to "economic" activities according to a country's System of National Accounts (SNA).

Most work excluded from the scope of "economic activities is done by women (UNDP, 1995)²⁰, and this is an important cause of the underestimation of women's participation in production and of their contribution to the well-being of society.

Women work participation and her being economically independent is very vital for determining the economic status of women. In Nagaland, the economic status of women has improved through the spread of education, even entering into the occupations which were earlier considered as male domains. Yet, male still dominates the higher positions in service sector and women are underrepresented in all categories except for agriculture. Occupational differences reflect the presence of barriers faced by women attempting to enter male-dominated occupations. Moreover, cultural factors related to the gender role model prevailing in a family are of central importance in determining women's labour force participation. Thus, gender disparities in work participation are evident in Nagaland, especially in informal sector,

²⁰ UNDP, (1995), Human Development Report , New York, N.Y

such as agricultural activities where women dominates. Yet no attempt has been made to quantify the gender disparities and also the economic contribution made by women to their families and community is not duly recognized. Further, no government policies have been implemented so far to safeguard the economic status of women. The complexity in the relationship between women-men differential, therefore, needs to be explored systematically.

1.3: AREA OF STUDY

Nagaland covers an area of 16597 square kilometer. According to 2011 census, the State has a population of 1980602 comprised of 51.78%% male and 48.21% female. The average density of population is 119 per square kilometer and sex ratio of the state is 931. The literacy rate of the state is 80.11% which is higher than national average. The literacy rate by sex shows 83.30% for male and 76.69% for female. The State has similar socio-economic conditions inhabited by population spread over eleven districts.

According to 2011 census, the total number of workers was 974122, and male and female work participation rates were 53.4% and 44.7% respectively. By area concern, in rural WPR for male and female was 55.7% and 52.2% respectively. Urban area WPR was 47.6% and 25.8% for male and female showing an increase in WPRs in total as well as by gender during the last decade. In total, District wise WPR was highest in Peren with 64% while the lowest was Dimapur with 40% in 2011. In rural area, highest and lowest WPR was Longleng and Dimapur with 64.6% and 42.5% respectively, and for urban Peren ranks highest with 66% and lowest was Kiphire with only 28%.

Mokokchung and Tuensang have been taken as representative districts of Nagaland in the study. Where Mokokchung district is considered as relatively more developed and Tuensang district as relatively less developed in the State. The respective urban centers Mokokchung town and Tuensang town, and three villages each from both the districts namely, Ungma village, Mokokchung village and Khensa from Mokokchung and Tuensang village, Chare village and Kuthur village from Tuensang were included in the sample survey.

1.4: PERIOD OF STUDY

Work participation have covered the period 2001- 2011, Gender disparities and literacy rate was taken for 1991, 2001 and 2011. At micro level a cross section data was taken based on sample survey conducted during 2011-12.

1.5: OBJECTIVES

The present study focuses on the assessment of economic status and contributions of women on the basis of their work participation in both household and economic activities. In addition, explore the nature and causes of complexity in the relationship between women-men differential systematically and bring out policy suggestions. The objectives of the study are summarized as follows:

1. To evaluate the extent of women's work participation in the various economic sectors and the nature of work.
2. To analyze the impact of education on employment and income of women.
3. To assess the gender differentials in income distributions, income and expenditures gender-wise, head of households and time budgeting.
4. To examine the extent of ownership of resources by women and its relation to income.
5. To examine the gender differentials in access to financial resources, trainings and economic organizations.
6. To assess the status of working women on the basis of opportunities, their perception on work and gender relations at household level.

1.6: HYPOTHESES

1. Increase in the level of education among females leads to increase their employment and income.
2. Female workers in informal sector are concentrated largely at the lower level of income distribution, while in formal sector it is in middle level of income.
3. When women earn higher income their access to resources are increased.

1.7: SCOPE OF STUDY

The quantification of the contribution of women in productive work and analysis of related issues reveals the role of women in economic growth and the extent of gender inequalities. So far no attempt has been made to have a systematic study on women's work participation in the state. The findings of this study will thus, help the policy makers while formulating developmental policy options that is inclusive of all the sections of population so as to ensure equal opportunities and an egalitarian society.

1.8: METHODOLOGY

1.8.1: Data Base:

Primary and Secondary data:

The study is based on data collected from both secondary and primary sources. The secondary data are collected from a variety of authentic government official records, statistical handbooks, census reports and other sources available in published and unpublished forms.

The primary data were collected through simple random sample survey, covering both economic and household activities in the sample rural and urban areas. The sample data are collected by using questionnaire and interview methods.

1.8.2: Sample Design:

The present study covers two districts, i.e. Mokokchung and Tuensang. The respective district headquarters are taken as two urban centers; from each, 100 households were selected at random, giving a total of 200 households. In rural area three villages from each district (6 villages in total) were covered by the survey during 2011-2012. From Mokokchung rural area 150 households and from Tuensang rural area 153 households were selected. The survey includes a total of 503 households and a population of 2261. Thus the units may fairly represent the universe. The details of the sample units are presented in chapter three.

1.8.3: Data Analysis:

The collected data are analyzed at the households and individual levels using the following statistical tools, such as,

- (i) **Regression:** Regression analysis is a mathematical measure of the average relationship between two or more variables in terms of the original units of the data. In regression there are two variables. The variable whose value is influenced or is to be predicted is called dependent variable and the variable which influences the values or is used for prediction is called independent variable. Regression equation of y on x is as

$$Y = a + by$$

Where 'a' is the intercept, y is the dependent variables, x is the independent variables and b is the regression coefficient.

$$b_{yx} = \frac{N\sum YX - (\sum Y)(\sum X)}{N\sum X^2 - (\sum X)^2}$$

- (ii) **Lorenz Curve:** Income inequalities for male and female have been examined with the help of Lorenz Curve. The Lorenz Curve shows the percentage of income received by X

percent of population, X varying from 0 to 100. The degree to which a line Lorenz Curve deviates from the line of equal distribution is a measure of inequality of distributions of income.

(iii) **Gini Coefficient (GC):** Gini Coefficient is used to attach some absolute measures to the degree of inequality. Gini Coefficient = $\frac{\text{Area between Lorenz Curve and Diagonal}}{\text{Total area under Diagonal}}$

It may be computed mathematically using Rao's definition as follows:

$$G = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} (F_i Q_{i+1} - F_{i+1} Q_i)$$

1.9: CHAPTERISATION

The contents of the chapters are as follows:

- Chapter I : Introduction
- Chapter II : Review of Literature
- Chapter III : Gender Profile of Nagaland
- Chapter IV : Work Participation and Income
- Chapter V : Status of Women and Empowerment
- Chapter VI : Findings and conclusion

Chapter II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The socio economic status of women, their work participation rate and related problems have been a major concern around the world, which has drawn the attention of a number of researchers. Literature relating to this is thus fairly extensive which serve as a base for further research. The following literatures reflect upon such earlier studies that would help to have proper perspectives of the problem under investigation.

2.1: CONCEPT:

ILO (1999) an important in the ILO vision is the articulation of its goal, the promotion of “opportunities for women and men to obtain decent and productive work, in condition of freedom, equity, security and human dignity”. The reach of this objective is indeed momentarily large, it includes all workers, wherever and whatever sector they work, not just workers in the organized sector, not only wage workers, but also unregulated wage workers, the self-employed and the home workers. ILO aims to respond to the terrible fact that “the world is full of overworked and unemployed people”.²¹

Jaumotte (2003) examines the determinants of female labour force participation in OECD countries. The econometric analysis uses a panel data set covering 17 OECD countries over the period 1985-1999, and distinguishes between part-time and full-time female participation rates. It shows a positive impact on female participation of a more neutral tax treatment, stronger tax incentive to share market work between spouses, child care subsidies, and paid maternity and paternal leaves. Unlike child care subsidies, child benefits reduce female participation due to an income effect and their lump-sum character. Female education, the general labour market conditions, and cultural attitudes positively affects women labour participation rate²².

In spite of the developmental attempts made to elevate the status of women; they continue to get lower wages than men especially in unorganized sector. *Banerjee (1985)*²³, further points out that women are consistently kept in the jobs where the wage rates and

²¹ ILO (1999), Decent Work, Report of the Director-General of the ILO to the 87th Session of the International Labour Conference, Geneva.

²² *Jaumotte* Florence (2003), “Female Labour Force Participation; Past Trends and Main Determinants in OECD countries “, OECD Economics Department, Series No.376, 12th December.

²³ *Banerjee, N.* (1985), Women Workers in the Inorganised Sector , The Calcutta Experience, Hyderabad

working conditions are poorer and employment are less secure. Singh (1988)²⁴ found that wages of women are uniformly lower than those of men even within the low paid jobs. In fact, they are outside the reach of most laws that seek to protect the security and working conditions of labour.

Francis (1994) investigated the relationship between the labour market behavior of their families and their attitudes index is constructed by employing individuals' responses to statements related to the role of women and examined to determine whether it is correlated with individual characteristics. She examined whether these attitudes influence human capital attainment and whether they are weakly exogenous to educational attainment. It also focuses on the impact of these traditional attitudes upon labour supply and the return to education. The results are dramatic. It is found that females' attitudes towards working women are developed in their youth and result in substantial reductions in their human capital investment, labour supply and rates of return to education. Furthermore, it is found that these attitudes are determined outside the educational process (Vella, 1994).²⁵

*Bardhan (1984)*²⁶; *Jain (1985)*²⁷; *Sen (1985)*²⁸; *United Nations (1987)*²⁹; also found that inequality in land distribution was an important factor underlying regional variation in women employment.

In "*Women in the labour market: results from the spring 2001 LFS*", *Twomey (2001)* describes the participation of women in the labour market using results mainly from the spring 2001, Labour Force Survey in U.K; focus was on key indicators such as employment rates, ILO unemployment rates and economic inactivity. The survey result shows that, over the past decade there has been continuous improvement in the position of women in the UK labour market, both in terms of their level of participation in paid work and in the range of occupations available to them. The employment rate for women of working age was 69.3 percent-the highest rate on record but men continue to have higher employment rates (79.3 percent) than women. The presence and age of a dependent child had a marked effect on the

²⁴ Singh, A.K. Sharma, J.S., and Singh, P.K (1988) "Participation of Rural Women in Agriculture in the Hill Districts of Uttar Pradesh". *Journal of Rural Development*, Vol.No.1-6

²⁵ Francis Vella (1994) "Gender Roles and Human Capital Investment: The Relationship between Traditional Attitudes and Female Labour Market Performance", *Economica*, Vol.61.

²⁶ Bardhan, P (1984). *Land, Labour and Rural Poverty; Essay in Development Economics*, Oxford University Press, New Delhi.

²⁷ Jain, D (1985). *Women's Economic Roles and Women's Employment . The Linkages and Policy Implications*. Paper Presented at the Second International Seminar on Women Development, Jaipur, 1985, ISST.

²⁸ Sen, G. (1985). *Women's Domestic Work and Economic Activity*, Result from National Sample Survey, *Economic and Political Weekly*, Vol. XX, No. 17.

²⁹ United Nations, (1987). *Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific, Achievements of the United Nations Decade for Women in Asia and the Pacific*.

employment rates of women and women were more likely to work part-time than men. Female employment remained concentrated in a narrow range of occupations and further, the comparative wage differentials seem to be steadily narrowing.³⁰

The earliest official discourse of women's work is to be found in the first population census of 1870-71. At the request of the Registrar-General in England, Farr (who was responsible for the British Census of 1861 and who had a general classification of occupations) was asked to modify his classification for use in the 1871 British Census. India also adopted Farr's classification in principle. Accordingly, there were six broad classes and each class had certain orders. Farr's original classification had the following classes: professional; domestic; commercial; agricultural; industrial indefinite and non-productive. The domestic class had two orders- occupation in the family, and occupation in personal service. The first order included all women who had no occupation producing wages or fees (that is, the wives and daughters of the mass of the population). This class was included by Farr from the idea that every person should be represented as having an occupation.

The statistical committee which examined the modifications of Farr's classification in the context of India found this an anomaly. So important is this fact that Dr Farr heads his last 'non-productive,' showing that other classes are supposed to be reproductive. But women and children in the family are consumers, not producers. Their comfort and support is largely the object for which men emerge in reproduction, that is, take an occupation. To enter the wives and daughters on par with the workers of the household is to confuse the object with the means employed in attaining it (Census Report of India, 1871).

These views were strongly felt that in no case was this order adopted in practice. In Bombay province it was dropped altogether. In the North-West and Central Provinces, all the children were returned under the occupation of the head of the household, grossly inflating figures in some of the occupations. In Madras Presidency (excluding Madras town), women were not included at all in the occupation tables.

The 1881 Census Report noted the following on female occupations.

The occupation of females is a difficult subject to deal with. In every country females do much hard and necessary work which is not among the trades and is not strictly productive. A yet more numerous class of females do a certain, if not continuous, share in the total productive work, but a share which is combined with productive work, and this in such varying

³⁰ Breda Twomey (2001) "Women in the labour market: results from the spring 2001 LFS", Labour Market Division Office for National Statistics. London.

degree that it would be impossible to draw any line which should say, for example, this is primarily an 'agricultural laborer' and that is primarily 'a wife'. In India all women work; some merely at household drudgery but in the most numerous and important of all classes, 'the agricultural,' female laborers are an important part. But with the custom of early marriage, the mass of females of working age are primarily wives and whether they work in the fields or not, they have certainly to work at home. Some of these have been returned as 'agricultural'. Some as 'wives, of specified occupations' and some merely a 'wives, which is regarded as an occupation' and some as unemployed' (India Census Report of 1881).

The 1891 census omitted 'wives' from occupations. Also, instead of enumerating workers, it found out the 'means of subsistence' of the entire population, that is, either as workers or as dependents. Until 1831, the census takers in Britain had recorded only family occupation. The individual occupations of adult male and female domestics were recorded along with the family occupation. From 1841, individual occupations alone were recorded for the entire population. In 1851, the census differentiated the work of the family members-wives and adult children in farming and small businesses assisting their husbands and fathers were recorded in their men folk's occupational category. In 1871 census, these women were placed in the domestic class and were distinguished from other wives and daughters. Farr's view that domestic work was important to the nation, and that such labour should be placed among the productive classes along with paid work, met with opposition from the Scottish Census officials. At the 1871 Scottish Census, they eliminated the domestic class and redistributed its members to show how many were dependent on each occupation (Deacon, 1985).³¹ All these were attempts to define women, who did not have paid jobs, as dependents.

In India, too, the statistical committee at the 1871 Census explicitly noted that women and children in the family were only 'consumers' and not 'producers'. It built into its arguments the patriarchal ideology that men take up an occupation for the comfort and support of women and children in the family.

Women work participation and their occupational pattern is important towards understanding the role of women in the growth of an economy and the socio-economic functioning of a state. The State, markets and households are the three significant institutions of any modern economy. It is a widely held view that in modern economies, the state and markets are viewed as institutions that compete for 'economic space'.

³¹ Deacon, Desley (1985), Political Arithmetic: The Nineteenth Century Australian Census and the construction of the Dependant Woman. Signs, Vol.11, No.1.

The socio economic status of women, their work participation rate and related problems have been a major concern around the world, which has drawn the attention of a number of researchers. Literature relating to this is thus fairly extensive which serve as a base for further research. The following literatures reflect upon such earlier studies that would help to have proper perspectives of the problem under investigation.³²

2.2: EDUCATION AND WORK PARTICIPATION

Literature review on labor force participation and supply of labor both at national and international level is discussed in this section. A number of studies can be observed in the literature relating to the economic theory of the household. Becker (1965)³³ and Gronau (1977)³⁴ is the beginner of the field and explained the household behavior regarding time allocation. However, a vast variety of literature based on empirical studies especially for developed nations is available. Most of them are survey based and these surveys are carried by Macurdy, Heckman (1980)³⁵ and Heckman and Killingworth (1986)³⁶.

Kozel and Alderman (1990)³⁷ have analyzed the factors affecting work participation and labor supply decision in the urban areas of Pakistan. He has used OLS regression and Tobit model to estimate the correlates. The study concludes that the women work participation rises with an increase in the expected earnings, wages and level of education.

A study in urban India showed that child mortality rate was as low as 34/1000 with educated mothers, as compared to 82/1000 for uneducated mothers (MHHDC, 2002)³⁸.

Malik et al. (1994)³⁹ has investigated the factors, which influence female labor force participation in economic activities. He has explored that women's age, education and the number of dependents do not significantly determine market time. Women labor supply is significantly and positively affected by women wage rate and predicted male wage rate.

³² Kalpagam, U (1994), *Labour and Gender*, Sage Publications, New Delhi/ Thousand Oaks/ London.

³³ Becker, G. S. (1965), "A theory of the Allocation of Time", *The Economic Journal*, 75 (299): 493-517.

³⁴ Gronaue, R. (1977), "Leisure, Home Production and Work- The Theory of the allocation of Time Revisited", *The Journal of Political Economy* Vol. 85, No. 6 (Dec), pp, 1099-1124.

³⁵ Heckman, J. J. (1980), "Sample Selection Bias as a Specification Error. In James P. Smith (ed.) *Female Labour Supply*", Princeton, N. J.: Princeton University Press. 206-248.

³⁶ Killingworth, M. R., and J. J. Heckman (1986), "Female labour Supply: A Survey Chapter-2. In Orley Ashenfelter and Richard Layard (eds.)", *Handbook of Labour Economics* Vol. 1. New York: Elsevier Science Publishers. B.V. 103-204.

³⁷ Kozel, V., and H. Alderman (1990), "Factors Determining Work Participation and Labour Supply Decisions in Pakistan's Urban Area", *The Pakistan Development Review*, 29:1, 1-18.

³⁸ Mahbub ul Haq Human Development Centre (2002), *Human Development in South Asia*, Oxford University Press, Karachi: 15.

³⁹ Malik, et al. (1994), "Determining of women time allocation in selected districts of rural Pakistan", *The Pakistan Development Review*, 33:4.

Aly and Quisi (1996)⁴⁰ has discussed socio-economic factors that affect Kuwaiti women's labor market participation decision. The study concludes that females' wage rate and education are positively related with labor force participation rate. It has been also found that marital status, the number of children and age is inversely related with labor force participation rate.

Shah et al. (1976)⁴¹ has studied the effects of some selected demographic and socio-economic variables on labor force participation in all the provinces of Pakistan. The results show that the labor force participation is negatively related with nuclear family type and child-women ratio. The study indicates that there is direct relationship between labor force participation and marital status. He also has found that dependency ratio and literacy ratio have positive influence on labor force participation.

Naqvi and Shahnaz (2002)⁴² have examined the effects of various demographic, socio-economic and human capital related factors on women participation in economic activities. They have used cross-sectional data from integrated household survey (PIHS) (1998-99) for the age group of 15-49 years. The probit and multinomial logit model has been used to estimate the parameters. The probit estimates indicate that marital status, primary education, number of children and female head of households are inversely related with women's participation in economic activities. Kingdom and Unni (2001)⁴³ in the study "Education and women's Labour in Market Outcomes in India" showed that higher the investment in elementary schooling and women's education, higher the return of economic growth.

Dhongada et al (1985) in a study of Maharashtra observed that the participation of women in the farm work in different size of land holdings and cropping patterns showed that in jowar and cotton regions the participation in the productive activities increased with an increase in the size of holdings. However, in the sugarcane region, participation of women in work on other farms, showed a declining trend with the increase in the size of holdings. The study indicated that the labour participation of women of the family in the farm activities is related to economic development of that area and of the farmers. Their participation was

⁴⁰ Aly, Y. H., and I. A. Quisi (1996), "Determinants of Women Labour Force Participation in Kuwait: A Logit Analysis", *The Middle East Business and Economic Review* 8:2.

⁴¹ Shah, N. M. (1986), "Changes in Women role in Pakistan: Are the volume and pace adequate?", *The Pakistan Development Review* 25:3

⁴² Naqvi Zareen F. and Lubna Shahnaz (2002), "How do women decide to work in Pakistan?" *The Pakistan Development Review*, 41(4), Part II: 495-513.

⁴³ Unni, J (2009), "Gender differential in Education: Exploring the Capabilities Approach", *Economic and Political Weekly*, Vol. XLIV, No.9: 111-117.

relatively low in families with large holdings and which were financially better off.⁴⁴ *Padmini 1960*⁴⁵; *Sinha 1978*⁴⁶; *Mies 1980*⁴⁷; *Sardamoni and Mencher 1982*⁴⁸; *United Nations 1987*⁴⁹; *Kaur and Punia 1988*⁵⁰; *Diwan 1995*⁵¹; *Mohanty 1995*⁵² also supported this contention that it is the low family income which forces women to participate in the labour force and with the increase in family income they tend to withdraw. *Dutta and Sharma (1985)*⁵³ in a study of Bihar found that the percentage of female labour input is significantly higher as peasant farmers, most of which belong to the small and medium size classes. They also observed that women workers generally allocated works such as transplanting of paddy, weeding, harvesting and so on.

*Gosh (1985)*⁵⁴ in his study of Bengal found that although the pattern of women employment in the rural areas was very much related to land or income and cost hierarchy, but it has undergone significant changes in the recent period. Though women of upper caste households owning smaller area of land were found to be engaged in wage paid activities and field agriculture outside their home, yet there were a majority of women from among the scheduled caste households in the village who were engaged in multiple activities.

In addition to caste cropping pattern, land holdings, income of the household, social and cultural traditions also play an important role in affecting women's work participation (*Saxena 1969*⁵⁵; *Sawant and Dewan 1979*⁵⁶; *Singh 1980*⁵⁷; *Saikia 1981*⁵⁸). In a study

⁴⁴ Dhongada, et al (1985) "Participation of Women Labour in Agriculture in Maharashtra". Indian Journal of Agricultural Economics, Vol.10.

⁴⁵ Padmini, Sen Gupta (1960). Women Workers in India, Asia Publishing House, Delhi.

⁴⁶ Sinha, S.P.(1978). Lack of Education Limits Their Harijans Women in Rural Bihar, Social Welfare, Vol. 29, No. 6,7:21

⁴⁷ Mies, M. (1980). Indian Women and Patriarchy, Concept Publishing Co., New Delhi.

⁴⁸ Sardamoni and Mencher, (1982). Muddy fact, Dirty Hands, Rice Production and Female Agricultural Labour, Economic and Political weekly, Vol. 17 No. 52.

⁴⁹ United Nations, (1987). Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific, Achievements of the United Nations Decade for Women in Asia and the Pacific.

⁵⁰ Kaur, Malkiat, (1988). Rural Women and Technological Advancement, Discovery, Publishing House, New Delhi.

⁵¹ Diwan Ritu, (1995). Gender in Neoclassical Economics, Conceptual Overview. Economic and Political Weekly, Vol. XXX, No.17, April 29.

⁵² Mohanty, Bidyut. (1995). Panchayati Raj, 73rd Constitutional Amendment and Women. Economic and Political weekly, Vol. 16, Annual Number

⁵³ Dutta, L.N and Sharma N (1985) Contribution of Female Labour in Agriculture: A case study of Ranchi District Bihar" in Indian Journal of Agricultural Economics, Vol.40.

⁵⁴ Gosh M.C (1985), "Pattern of Employment of Rural Women, A study in West Bengal", Indian Journal of Agricultural Economics. Vol, 40.

⁵⁵ Saxena R.C (1969), "Agricultural Labour, Wages and Living Condition in Meerut", Elite Publications, Delhi

⁵⁶ Sawant and Dewan (1979), "Rural Female Labour and Economic Development", Economic and Political weekly, Vol.14.

⁵⁷ Singh K.P (1980), "Economic Development and Female Labour Force Participation: A case study of Punjab", Social Action, Vol.30, No.2.

⁵⁸ Saikia P.D (1981), "Indian Rural Women", Mittal Publications, Delhi.

conducted in the hill region of UP by Singh it was observed that not only the women actively participate in various agricultural activities, but without their contribution nothing could be done. Further working in the field is treated as customary and there is no inhibition resulting into greater work participation on their part, irrespective of caste and income of the household. On the other hand, in the rest of the states, the contribution of female worker is negligible in farming due to social customs discouraging women employment.

Singh and Bhatti (1985) in their study, in “*Women in Hill Agriculture: A case study of Himachal Pradesh*” made a survey on the role of women in the agricultural economy of the state. The study revealed that among the farm workers the proportion of women was higher than men. Average working hours was 4.2 hours of work per day on marginal farms, 4.1 hours on small farms and 3.6 hours on medium size farms. In crop production activities, women’s work account for 66 percent on marginal farms, 55 percent on small farms and 57 percent on medium farms. Their study also revealed that with changes in production technologies, the work load of women in all sizes of farms has increased⁵⁹. *Guleria and Agnihotri (1985)* studied the contribution of women workers in the farm sector; this study was done to understand the female labour participation in various farms and household incomes in Himachal Pradesh. Their findings on women working force under marginal, small, medium and large farm stood at 35%, 44%, 44% and 46% respectively. Women working force was found to be higher than the men workers. However, the monetary contribution of women in the farm income was found to be smaller than that of the men because of low farm wages for female workers.⁶⁰

Boserup (1970) in her pioneering work, “*Role of Women in Economic Development*” found out that rural women in the third world have been traditionally skilled workers in agriculture and were not confined to home making functions alone, in certain parts of the African and Asian continents rural women’s roles in agriculture have been more extensive than men.⁶¹

Eckstein and Kenneth (1989) presents and estimates a dynamic model of married women’s labour-force participations and fertility in which the effect of work experience on wages is explicitly taken into account. Because current participation alters future potential

⁵⁹ Singh, D.V. and Bhatti J.P. (1985). *Women in Hill Agriculture: A case study of Himachal Pradesh*, Indian Journal of Agricultural Economics, Vol. 40.

⁶⁰ Guleria, A.S and Agnihotri (1985), “Contribution of Female Workers in the Farm Sector”. Indian Journal of Agricultural Economics, Vol.40.

⁶¹ Boserup, E (1970), “*Women’s Role in Economic Development*”, St. Martins Press, New York.

earnings, the investment return to work will be an important factor in the current work decision in any forward-looking behavior model. The model is estimated using the National Longitudinal Surveys mature women's cohort. The authors use the estimates of their model to predict changes in the lifecycle patterns of employment due to changes in schooling, fertility, husbands' income and the magnitude of the experience effect on wages. They found that, although work experience increases the disutility of further work, the effect is overwhelmed by the positive effect of experience on wages, leading to persistence in employment patterns of these women. In addition, they find that an increase in young children and in husband's income substantially reduces participation, while increased schooling has a powerful positive impact on participation.⁶²

Adsera (2004) points out that during the last two decades fertility rates have decreased and have become positively correlated with female participation rates across OECD countries. Using a panel of 23 OECD nations to study how different labour market arrangements shaped these trends, she found that high unemployment and unstable contracts, common in Southern Europe, depress fertility, particularly younger women. To increase lifetime income though early skill-acquisition minimizes unemployment risk, young women postpone child bearing. Further, both a large share of public employment, by providing employment stability and generous maternity benefits linked to previous employment, such as those in Scandinavia, boost fertility of the 25-29 and 30-34 year old women.⁶³

Bratti (2002) uses data from the 1993 Survey of Household Income and Wealth of the Bank of Italy in order to estimate a reduced form purist model of female marital fertility and labour force participation. In particular, it focuses attention on the effect of formal education on both fertility and labour force participation behavior. The estimates show a U-shaped pattern of fertility by education and that highly educated women postpone fertility and have a higher market attachment. Furthermore, cultural factors related to the gender role model prevailing in a family are of central importance in determining women's labour force participation.⁶⁴

Dupuy and Kranz (2007) in “*International Differences in the Family Gap in Pay: The Role of Labour Market Institutions*” using micro data for 35 countries over the period 1985-

⁶² Eckstein, Zvi and Kenneth Wolpin (1989), “Dynamic Labour Force Participation of Married Women and Endogenous Work Experience”, *Review of Economic Studies*, Vol.56, 3rd July.

⁶³ Adsera Alicia (2004), “Changing Fertility rates in Developed Countries: The impact of labour market institutions”, *Journal of Population Economics*, Vol.17, 1st February.

⁶⁴ Bratti Massimiliano (2002) “Labour Force Participation and Marital Fertility of Italian Women: The Role of Education”, *Royal Economic Society, Series No.34*, 29th August (Royal Economic Society Annual Conference).

1994-2002 found that labour market institutions traditionally associated to more compressed wage structures were associated to a higher family gap. Their results indicate that these policies reduce the price effect of having children but aggravate the human capital loss due to motherhood. They also found evidence that policies that help women continue in the same job after childbirth decrease the family gap. Among all countries they study, mothers in Southern Europe suffer the biggest family gap and their analysis indicates that this is due to the bad combination of labour market policies in these countries. The results are robust to specification changes and indicate the main reason mothers lag behind other women in terms of earnings is the loss of accumulated job market experience caused by career breaks around childbirth.⁶⁵

Myck and Paul (2001) argue that over the last two decades the wage gap remains between seemingly identical male and female workers. Analysis of the role of employment experience in explaining this gender wage gap have been limited by the rarity of appropriate data sources containing this information. They have presented a series of twenty cross sections of the British Family Expenditure Survey to examine the changing impact of employment experience on the wage differential across four cohorts of male and female workers. By using grouped data formed into a pseudo panel and by estimating the wage regressions in first differences rather than levels, the potential for estimation bias arising from unobserved heterogeneity and the endogeneity of experience reduced. The results show that accounting for differences in experience levels, either as a simple total of years of employment or broken down into full-time and part-time employment, explains little of the gender wage gap. Successive generations of female workers are found to have fared considerably better than previous cohorts in terms of their wage position relative to men.⁶⁶

Eastough and Miller (2004) present an analysis of the gender wage gap in the highly regulated Australian labour market. It compares wage outcomes in the wage and salary sector with those for the self-employed within the comparisons with the United States are provided. The large gender pay gap in self-employment suggests that the aggregate gender wage differential will not be eliminated solely through wage determination for wage and salary earners. The greater gender wage gap in the self-employed sector may reflect liquidity constraints that are more difficult for self-employed women to overcome relative self-

⁶⁵ Dupuy Arnaud and Kranz Daniel Fernandez (2007) "Internal Differences in the Family Gap in Pay: The Role of Labour Market Institutions", Working Paper No.2719, Institute for the study of labour, Bonn Germany.

⁶⁶ Myck Michal and Paul Gillian (2001) "The Role of Employment Experience in Explaining the Gender Gap", Institute for Fiscal Studies Working Paper, Series No.W01/18th August, London.

employed men. The comparisons with the United States suggest that women will experience deterioration in relative earnings as the Australian labour market is deregulated.⁶⁷

Azid et al. (2001)⁶⁸ have studied the factors influencing female participation in cottage industry of Pakistan. The main objective of the study is to analyze the economic behavior of the female workers involved in the business of embroidery. The study has concluded that number of the children, age of the females, education, poverty status have a positive and significant impact on female labor force participation.

Mincer (1962)⁶⁹ has discussed the relationship between working hours and female labor force participation overtime. He has explored that wife's demand for leisure is not influenced by income of the family. The probability of labor force participation and lifetime wealth measures are inversely related. The study concludes that number of children significantly influences the female labor force participation decision.

Saini, (1983) studied that women managed alone the household tasks like work in the kitchen, care of the house, care of children, religious activities etc. The women from farming families spent much more time in the kitchen than those of non-farming families, who were mainly the labour class women, who were either paid in cash or kind. In addition, the sowing and harvesting period required much more time of the home-makers than the slack period.⁷⁰

Many tasks of the housewives have alternate market prices as every housewife performs work in the economic sense of the term, irrespective of the fact of direct payment. The famous statement of Alfred Marshall about housemaid and the housewife is pertinent here. Most part of a woman's work at home is economic in nature. The real income is generated in the household by several tasks, but this could not find its way into the national income estimates due to its operational limitations.⁷¹

Youseff and Hetler, (1984) and Kumari, (1989). Studies conducted on women headed households are not only few but also lack clarity. In case a woman is a widow and she does not have an adult male son and becomes the head of the household, it is not because of the change

⁶⁷ Eastough Kristy and Miller Paul W (2004) "The Gender Wage Gap and Self-Employment in Australia", Journal of Australian Economic papers, Blackwell Publishing.

⁶⁸ Azid, T., Aslam, M. and Chaudary, M. O. (2001), "Poverty, Female Labour Force Participation, and Cottage Industry: A case study of cloth embroidery in Rural Multan", *The Pakistan Development Review*, 40:4, p 1105-1118.

⁶⁹ Mincer, J. (1962), "Labour Force Participation of Married Women: A Study of Labour Supply. In H. G. Lewis (ed.) *Aspects of Labour Economics*", Princeton, N. J.: Princeton University Press. 63-97.

⁷⁰ Saini, H (1983), Time task analysis of farming and non-farming home makers, MSc. Thesis, Punjab Agricultural University, Ludhiana.

⁷¹ Streeten, P (2005), "Shifting Fashions in Development Dialogue" in Fukuda-Parr and Shiva Kumar (eds), *Readings in Human Development*, Oxford University Press, New Delhi.

in values allowing women to become the head, but it is because of the absence of adult male members⁷².

Berger, (1985). It is women who are in the forefront of small business activity worldwide. Interviews suggest that through business they obtain a sense of self-worth and independence, which might not otherwise be available to them. When these business women have been organized by voluntary organizations in such countries as India and Philippines, they have developed leadership and other skills of great value to their families and their communities. In the search for social and economic equity, it may well be these organized business women who will be the impetus for change.⁷³

The informal sector has a high labour- absorption capacity and there is the need to increase the level of stimulation of employment opportunities. Informal sector has its challenges especially for women, such as inaccessibility of credit; the women's role in the informal finance sector is significant. Partnerships must be built with the emerging associations of women to create an enabling environment which will make credit available to women at affordable rates, with the private sector assisting government efforts to get credit to women. Better statistics are also needed and, as Omari argues⁷⁴, the informal sector should in any case be taken into account in strategies for rural development.

Women are not only entering the labour force in much greater numbers, they are also remaining in the labour force throughout their child bearing and child rearing years. They are no longer a reserve or secondary labour force. In the past and particularly in developed countries, a "double peak" pattern was prevalent – most women entered the labour force in their twenties, left after a few years to bear and raise children and re-entered the labour force towards the end of their childbearing years. Nowadays, labour force participation rates are high for women in their twenties, rise through their thirties and forties and decline only after age 50. "Recent age patterns indicate that women are finding ways to combine family responsibilities with market work" (United Nations, 2000a)⁷⁵.

⁷² Youseff and Hetler, (1984), Rural Households Headed by Women: A Priority Concern for Development, WEP Working Paper, 31, ILO, Geneva, and Kumari Ranjana, (1989), Women Headed Households in Rural India. Radiant Publishers

⁷³ Berger, Brigitte. (1985). Women in Third World Cities: Paths to a Better Future. Paper prepared for Bureau of Programme and Policy Coordination, USAID.

⁷⁴ Omari, C.K. (1989), Rural Women, Informal Sector and Household Economy in Tanzania, UNU/WIDER, Helsinki.

⁷⁵ United Nations (2000a). *The World's Women 2000 Trends and statistics*. ST/ESA/STAT/SER.K / 16.

2.3: EMPOWERMENT AND STATUS

Education and Employment are the two basic tools which can change the economic and social status of females in the near future. Further women empowerment is the utmost requirement for the inclusive growth and development of a country.

Page and Czuba, (1999)⁷⁶, suggest three components of our definition to understanding women empowerment: it is multidimensional, social and a process. It is multidimensional in the sense that it occurs within sociological, psychological, economic and other dimensions, empowerment also occurs at various levels, such as individual, group and community. Empowerment by definition is a social process, since it occurs in relation to others; it is similar to a path journey which develops as we work through it. Other aspects of empowerment may vary according to the specific context and people involved but these remain constant. Another important implication of definition of empowerment is that the individual and community are fundamentally connected.

While there is consensus on the importance of women's empowerment, the literature has yet to come up with a precise definition of the term. Likewise, there is no unique set of indicators that can be used to judge improvements or deteriorations in women's empowerment. Consequently, the concept has been incarnated as being 'fuzzy' or 'elusive' or, at best, ill-defined (Kabeer, 1999⁷⁷; Mason, 1986⁷⁸; Dixon, 1978⁷⁹).

Chaudhry and Nosheen (2009)⁸⁰ analyzed the determinants of women empowerment in Southern Punjab of Pakistan. Considering multidimensional nature of women empowerment, authors estimated the cumulative index for women using four indices i.e. personal autonomy, family decision making, domestic economic decisions and political autonomy. The results demonstrated that women empowerment is considerably influenced by education, access to media, socio-cultural norms of the community, job of women and household participation rate. The major emphasis of this study was on the women empowerment in terms of their participation in household economic activities.

At the macro level, among other indicators, women's empowerment or lack of it, is identified with gender inequality in employment, earnings, education, life expectancy, and

⁷⁶ Page and Czuba, Journal of Extension, Oct, 199, Vol.37, No.5.

⁷⁷ Kabeer, Naila (1999), "The Conditions and Consequences of Choice; Reflections on the Measurement of women's Empowerment" UNRISD Discussion Paper # 108, August 1999

⁷⁸ Mason, Karen O. (1986), "The Status of Women; Conceptual and Methodological Studies in Demographic Studies. " Sociological Forum 1(2): 284-300.

⁷⁹ Dixon, Ruth B. (1978), Rural Women at Work: Strategies for Development in South Asia. John Hopkins University Press: Baltimore.

⁸⁰ Chaudhry, Imran Sharif and Nosheen, Farhana (2009), "The Determinants of Women Empowerment in Southern Punjab (Pakistan): An Empirical Analysis" *European Journal of Social Sciences*, 10(2): 216-229.

female-male ratio in the population. These indicators, though they fail to capture the full connotation of the term, are frequently mentioned in the literature as the proxy or indirect indicators of women's empowerment (Joshi, 1999)⁸¹. At the household level, women's empowerment is equated with their involvement in decision-making such as decisions on fertility, children's education and healthcare and marriage, and women's freedom of mobility and access to and control of resources are interpreted as the direct indicators of empowerment (Jejeebhoy, 1998)⁸².

Although improvements in gender inequality in terms of employment, earnings, education and other indirect indicators do not by themselves imply a simultaneous improvement in women's empowerment at the household level, women's participation in paid jobs in particular is viewed as an important determinant of their individual choices (Joeke, 1987⁸³; Lim, 1990⁸⁴).

The unitary theories do not give a clear indication on the relationship between women's labour force participation and empowerment, some rival theories of the economics of family do indeed explicitly hypothesise a link between women's workforce participation and their involvement in household decisions and control over resources. These include the endowment and entitlements theory, Sen's (Sen, 1981)⁸⁵ entitlements theory emphasises the institutional factors in decision-making and identifies possession, use and exchange of resources as indicators of women's status.

Indeed, the upsurge of qualification level among women from 1970's onwards led to suggestions that once women had acquired levels of 'human capital' (qualification and work experience) equivalent to that of men, they might use the 'qualification lever' in order to gain higher-level positions (Crompton and Sanderson, 1990)⁸⁶.

Cole (1985) in his study "*Access to Developmental Finance*", in the Pacific came to the conclusion that women in Fiji, Western Samoa and the Solomon Islands could get only four to

⁸¹ Joshi, S.T.(1999), *Women and Development-The Changing Scenario*, Mittal Publication, New Delhi.

⁸² Jejeebhoy, S.J. (1998), *Women's Autonomy in Rural India: Its Dimensions, Determinants and the Influence of the Context.*" In *Women's Empowerment and Demographic Processes*, ed, Harriet B.Presser and Gita Sen. Oxford; Oxford University Press.

⁸³ Joeke, S.(1987), *Women in the World Economy*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

⁸⁴ Lim, L. (1990), "Women's Work in Export Factories: The Politics of a Cause." In *Persistent Inequalities: Women and World Development*, ed.I. Tinker.Oxford: Oxford University Press.

⁸⁵ Sen, Amartya K. (1981), *Poverty and Famine: An Essay on Entitlement and Deprivation*. Oxford: Clarendon Press.

⁸⁶ Crompton, R. and K.Sanderson (1990), *Gendered Jobs and Social Change*. Unwin Hyman, London.

⁸⁷ Cole, R.V. (1985) "Land policies and issues in the South Pacific Islands/Australia" Working paper, No. 86/12, National centre for development studies, Australian National University, Canberra.

ten percent of the agricultural loan. The study also indicates that women are denied access to information on how to put up loan proposals⁸⁷.

Another way to provide women empowerment is to allocate responsibilities to them that normally belong to men. When women have economic empowerment, it is a way for others to see them as equal members of the society. Through this, they achieve more self-respect and confidence by their contributions to their communities. Simply including women as a part of a community can have sweeping positive effects. In a study conducted by Agarwal, women were given a place in a forest conservation group. Not only did this drive up the efficiency of the group, but the women gained incredible self-esteem and viewed them with more respect⁸⁸. When women have the agency to do what she wants, a higher equality between men and women is established. It is argued that microcredit also offers a way to provide empowerment for women⁸⁹.

Entire Nations, businesses, communities and groups can benefit from the implementation of programs and policies that adopt the notion of empowerment⁹⁰. Empowerment is one of the main procedural concerns when addressing human rights and development. The Human Development and Capabilities Approach, The Millennium Development Goals, and other credible goals point to empowerment and participation as a necessary step if a country is to overcome the obstacles associated with poverty and development⁹¹.

2.4: GENDER DISPARITIES:

Paul, (2006): sorted out two categories of work: work for payment and work for no payment. Due to the fact that many women's works fall under the second category, it fails to recognize the work value of women for a long time.⁹² A major reason for the under valuation

⁸⁸ Agarwal, Bina.(2010), "Gender and Green Governance: The Political Economy of Women's Presence Within and Beyond Community Forestry," New York, NY. Oxford University Press.

⁸⁹ World Survey on the Role of Women in Development, Women's Control over Economic Resources and Access to Financial Resources, Including Microfinance. New York: United Nations

⁹⁰ Deneulin, Severine, with Lila Shahni.(2009), An Introduction to the Human Development and Capacity Approach: Freedom and Agency, Sterling, VA: Earthscan.

⁹¹ U.N.General Assembly, 55th Session, "United Nations Millennium Declaration," (A/55/L2).8 September, 2000

⁹² Paul, T (2006) "Gender Dimensions of Development" in S.K Pant (ed), Human Development Concepts and Issues in the Context of Globalisation, Rawat Publication, New Delhi.

of women's work is that it does not into National Accounts System, which only considers market oriented productive activities.⁹³

UNDP (1999) conducted an intensive study on gender disparity and pointed out that Austrian men spent an average of 70% of time in paid labour and 30% in unpaid labour, whereas 70% women were engaged in unpaid labour and 98% women in part-time job. In Denmark, about 65% of men in the labour force worked 30-39 hours a week, 30% worked more than the given hours and 5% work less than that. In case of women, 69% of women work 30-39 hours, whereas 11% worked more and 20% worked less than the mentioned hours. In Italy, married women with children spent 7.5 hours a day in care work at home than men. In Netherlands, women spent twice as much time in unpaid work at home than men. Also, women in Spain spent 7 times as many hours doing domestic work than men.⁹⁴

In the world, Africa has the biggest gender related issues. Seeing gender equality still remains a lofty dream in Africa but women empowerment is still fought for. At the January heads of State Summit, the AU decided to add its weight to the fighting gender inequality cause, declaring 2015 as the "Year of Women's Empowerment and Development towards Africa's Agenda 2063. Though women have made a huge progress in promoting themselves economically, they still face problems applying for jobs, owning land and inheriting property. The leaders need to know that the young women and girls are here and they are not only a statistics. The UN working with other organizations are working hard to improve gender equality and make the lives of the African daughters easier⁹⁵.

Earlier literature has shown a wide variation in female work participation rates (WPR) between census data and NSS data in India. For example, female WPR according to Census data was decline from 28% in 1961 to 14% in 1971, which increased to 20% in 1981 and 22% in 1991. The figure for males also fluctuated but within a smaller range, between 52% and 57% during the corresponding period. The NSS estimates however show little fluctuations during 1972-73 and 1993-94, which vary between 27.5% to 29%. However, the NSS data shows that the female WPR rate declined to 25.4% in 1999-00 from 28.3% in 1993-94.⁹⁶ The census data shows that the WPR of Nagaland in 2001 was 42.6% in total population, where male work

⁹³ Sterner, Gurnilla (2001), "Women and Regional Development" in Atul Goswami (ed), *Regional Disparities in India*, Akansha Publishing House, New Delhi: 13

⁹⁴ Drafted principally by Sakiko Fukuda - Paar based on background paper prepared by Nancy Folbre, Chapter-3 HDR, 1999. "The Invisible Heart-Care and the Global Economy" in Shiva Kumar et al. (2005) (eds), *Readings in Human Development*, Oxford University Press, New Delhi. 367

⁹⁵ Otas, Belinda (4 April, 2015), "Empowering African Women. Gender is the Agenda." *New African(Africa)*, Retrieved 15 May, 2016.

⁹⁶ NSS Data, page 736

participation rate was 46.7% and female 38.1%. In 2011, it was increased to 49.2% and male and female work participation rates were 53.4% and 44.7% respectively.

Dreze and Sen (1995) maintained that the low gender-ratio which created conditions for discriminations at various levels captured the extent of intra-household gender inequalities⁹⁷.

The MHHDC (2002) estimated that the daily workload of a working class village women in South Asia stretched from 12 to 16 hours women were generally paid lower wages than men and denied of owning land in Bangladesh, women were paid only 71% of what men earn, while that of Pakistan in rural area was only 59%. In India, the gender gap in work participation range between 41-18% across the states⁹⁸.

Considerable doubts have been expressed over the accuracy and completeness of the statistics regarding women's work force participation in India as well as in other developing countries. It is now generally agreed that existing techniques of data collection and surveys are not able to capture all the dimensions of women's work, particularly in rural areas and consequent invisibility of women's economic contribution has emerged as a major concern in research on women's work in India (Anker, 1987).⁹⁹

Cultures as the determinant of human behavior pleads for learning the respective male and female roles in the light of belief and value system which states that gender roles are normal, natural, right and proper, Oakley (1974)¹⁰⁰, a British sociologist and a supporter of the Women's Liberation Movement, comes down strongly on the side of culture as the determinant of gender roles. She pleads that the division of labour by sex is not universal. Human cultures are diverse and endlessly variable. She points out the biasness in Murdock's data and the way Murdock interpreted the data through western and male eyes. Lumbering is done either exclusively by women or shared by both sexes in 14 societies, land clearance in 36, and shared cooking in 38 societies out of 224 societies studied by Murdock (1949)¹⁰¹. She cites the Mbuti Pygmies of Congo rain forest and Australian Aborigines of Tasmania not having the sexual division of labour. Similarly, in present day societies women form an important part of many armed forces, particularly those of China, Russia, Cuba and Israel. In India, some 12% of labourers on building sites are women and in some Asian and Latin American countries, a quarter of the labour force in mines is female. She claims that there are no exclusive female

⁹⁷ Dreze, J and A.K.Sen (1995): India: Economic Development and Social Opportunity, Oxford University Press, New York

⁹⁸ MHHDC (2002): Human Development in South Asia, Oxford University Press, Karachi.

⁹⁹ Anker R, (1987), Female Labour Force Participation in developing countries: a critique of current definitions and data collection methods. International Labour Review. 122(6)

¹⁰⁰ Oakley, A. (1974). The Sociology of Housework, New York,

¹⁰¹ Murdock, (1949). Our Primitive Contemporaries, The Meremillan Company, New York.

roles and that biological characteristics do not bar women from particular jobs. The mothers' role is a cultural construction. Similar view was given by Bettelheim (1969)¹⁰², Friedle (1975)¹⁰³ also supports cultural explanation and pleads that higher prestige is attached to the tasks performed by man in particular societies although the same jobs are performed by women in other societies.

Ortner, (1974) pointed out that it is not biology as such but the way in which every culture defines and evaluates female biology, as in every society higher value is placed on culture than on nature and concludes that in terms of her biology, psychological processes, social roles and psychology, woman "appears something intermediate between culture and nature". Although the superiority of culture over nature may not hold good in all societies. Yet Ortner's explanation of cultural evaluation of the biological make up explains sufficiently the devaluation of women in societies at large.¹⁰⁴

While male participation is high, Female Labour_ Force Participation (FLFP) has been dropping at an alarming rate in India. According to data from National Sample Survey Organisation (NSSO), FLFP_ fell from a high point above 40 per cent in the early-to-mid 1990s to 29.4 per cent in 2004-05, 23.3 per cent in 2009-10 and 22.5 per cent in 2011-12. Using different data, a report by the International Labour Organization (ILO) found that by 2009-10, India's FLFP was ranked 11th from the bottom out of 131 countries.

This low average masks considerable variation between rural and urban areas. In 2009-10, when overall FLFP was 23.3 per cent, it was 26.5 per cent in rural areas and incredibly low in urban areas at 14.6 per cent. It appears that the economic boom unleashed by liberalization has bypassed many of India's women. Even worse: with rapid growth, it appears that women have been dropping out of the workforce in large numbers rather than joining up.

Research suggests it's driven by both the demand and supply side of the labour market. On the supply side, economists have long noted a U-shaped relationship between years of education and FLFP, not just in India but elsewhere. At very low levels of education and income, women have no choice but to work to help support the family. But as men in the family start earning more income, women tend to cut back their work in the formal economy to concentrate more on household activities. It is the women in the middle - those who are literate but have at most some schooling or have only completed high school - who are squeezed both by the pressure to stay at home and by a lack of plentiful jobs that match their intermediate

¹⁰² Bettelheim, B.(1969), *The Children of the Dream*. Thames and Hudson, London.

¹⁰³ Friedle, E. (1975), *Women and Men: an anthropological view*, Holt, Rinehart and Winston, New York.

¹⁰⁴ Ortner, S.B (1974), *Is Female to male as nature is to culture?* In *Women Culture and Society* (eds) Rosaldo, M.Z and Lamphere, L, Standard University Press, Stanford.

level of skills and education. But then, at higher levels of education and income, women re-enter the workforce through well-paying jobs that match their education and skills (Subramanya, 2013)¹⁰⁵.

An appraisal of the economic activities of men and women show that there exists an unequal distribution along the occupational and wage structures (Sethi, 1982)¹⁰⁶ and also the problem of the visibility of women's work is the problem of equality for women workers. Studies on rural development in India have time and again pointed out that there has occurred a marginalization of the women in the agrarian economy, because they have little scope for mobility and education and also because of task- segregation and relegation of women's tasks to the lower levels of the occupational hierarchy (Boserup, 1970).¹⁰⁷

The experience of the developing countries shows that apart from the economic marginalization of women the efforts at economic development have resulted in an increase in the work activities of rural women on the one hand, and the shrinking of their resource base and opportunities for well-being as persons on the other (Blumberg, 1981:¹⁰⁸ Mies, 1987).¹⁰⁹ These developmental experiences have made many social scientists sit up and raise the issue of "development-with-equity", that is an equitable distribution of social and economic resources. The notion of equity raises the issue of how women should regain control and ownership of resources and how they should be effectively involved in decision making at all levels.

Aderinto (2001), in his paper examines the constraints women face in rural Yoruba Community of Nigeria. In spite of the fact that women face similar kind of discrimination in terms of employment opportunities, access to social and productive resources, education, health status and family decisions, among others, there is one striking similarity between the Indian culture and Nigeria that is tacit preference for the education of the male-child. The paper concludes by suggesting some intervention programs including the mobilization of resources to prepare women for leadership roles, and awareness creation about the problem facing women and indeed rural women in South Western Nigeria.¹¹⁰

¹⁰⁵ Subramanya, Rupa (2013), Why female labour force participation in India is low? [http:// www.business standard.com](http://www.businessstandard.com), October 8, 2013, Mumbai

¹⁰⁶ Sethi, R.M, 1982, Female Labour in Agriculture, Department of sociology, Punjab University, Chandigarh, - 1984, "Changing Patterns of Female Labour in Agriculture: The case of Punjab" in Social Action, Vol.34, October to December.

¹⁰⁷ Boserup, (1970), Women's Role in Economic Development, George Allen & Unwin: London.

¹⁰⁸ Blumberg, R.L, (198), Kibbutz Women from the Fields of Revolution to the Laundries of Discontent", in Women in the World by L.B Iglitzin and R.Ross, Eds, C.A.ABC-Clio: Santa Barbara

¹⁰⁹ Mies, Maria, (1987), Indian Women in Subsistence and Agricultural Labour, Vistaar: New Delhi.

¹¹⁰ Adeinto, Abideen Aderinto (2001). Subordinated by Culture; Constraints of Women in Rural Yoruba Community, Nigeria, Nardic Journal of African Studies. 10(2) 176-187, 2001

Pandey (2005), studies the state of present property rights of women and also the flames within 2004 Bill. She feels that inequalities will remain unless the entire coparcenary system is abolished totally since it has folds within folds of families risk of poverty, increase her livelihood options, enhance prospects of child survival, education and health, reduce domestic violence and empower women.¹¹¹

Jose and Sharmgaratnam (1990) conducted this particular study on women's invisible work, in Trinandrum district, Kerala. The conclusions were much the same as they are even relevant today. According to them, women play a significant role in reproducing the rural household economy by their involvement in household production system. Their role seems to be under played by the conservational statistics and the ambiguity in classifying women's work.¹¹²

2.5: GENDER CONVERGENCE

Okin (1989)¹¹³ pointed out that women will have an equal opportunity to positions of political influence only after the transformation of the family from a patriarchal into a 'gender-free' institution. As long as they remain financially dependent on their husbands, women cannot simply choose to step out of an oppressive relationship, let alone speak up in public. Only when they have a real exit-option will women are able to use their voice and stand up for themselves.

The trend toward women entering the labour force is far advanced in the United States and most European countries. There is convergence in labour force participation rates between husbands and wives and an increase in women who are breadwinners of families (Gershuny, 2000)¹¹⁴.

The goal of domesticity for wives became a strong part of the union movement where men fought for a 'family wage' to allow working-class women to leave their jobs and become full-time homemakers. The organization of work during the early industrial era created what became known as the traditional family, where men specialize in employment and women in domesticity (Skolnick, 1991)¹¹⁵. While men's roles in families have not changed in any way commensurate this massive entry of wives into paid labor, there is no doubt that the roles of

¹¹¹ Pandey Shruti (2005), Property Rights of Indian Women. Downloaded from internet.

¹¹² Jose Darleys, and Sharmgaratnam (1990). The Invisible Workforce: Women in the Traditional Farming System of Kerala, Southern India. Downloaded from internet.

¹¹³ Okin, S. Moller, (1989), Justice, Gender, and the Family, New York; Basic Books.

¹¹⁴ Gershuny, Jonathan(2000), Changing Times; Work and Leisure in Postindustrial Society Oxford: Oxford University Press.

¹¹⁵ Skolnick, Arlene (1991), Embattled Paradise; American Families in an Age of Uncertainty, New York; Basic Books.

father and husband have grown to include more involvement in child care and housework than in eras past (Coltrane, 1989)¹¹⁶.

In a study of men's roles in family life, Scott Coltrane (1996)¹¹⁷ suggests that as women move into jobs that require uninterrupted career commitment and their families come to rely on their income, more participation of men in domestic work and childcare is likely. Recent cross-national research shows that as women's education and income increase, so does their husbands participation in household labor (Davis & Greenstein, 2004)¹¹⁸.

Dominant definitions of masculinity are still tied to bread winning and are uneasily stretched to include housework and childcare. These connections – between femininity and nurturance, between masculinity and work outside the home-are centuries in the making and will not be dissolved entirely anytime soon. Change is slow and sometimes painful. Couples who believe in equality but have yet to put it into practice may feel conflicted and at odds about sharing the second shift of domestic labor (Hochschild, 1989)¹¹⁹.

There have been small qualitative studies of families where husbands and wives intentionally share parenting and organize their family life without concern for traditional gender expectations (Coltrane and Collins, 2001¹²⁰; Dienhart, 1998¹²¹; Risman, 1998)¹²².

More and more families are headed by single parents, at least for a time. While more single fathers exist now than in the past, the substantial majority of single-parent families consist of women and children. Single parents, as a group, are less well-to-do than couples. Single parents have often been both mother and father to their children, and in that way they are perhaps the first and most appropriate model for gender convergence. Some single parents do very well economically, but many more struggle.

European countries have a long standing tradition of offering paid leave and financially supporting care giving as part of health and social service programs (Waldfoegel, 2001)¹²³. At the other end of the spectrum are Nordic countries such as Sweden and Norway, whose

¹¹⁶ Coltrane, Scott (1989), 'Household labor and the routine production of gender', *Social Problems*, 36(5); 473-490.

¹¹⁷ Coltrane, Scott (1996), *Family Man: Fatherhood, Housework, and Gender Equity*, Oxford University Press.

¹¹⁸ Davis, Shannon N. and Greenstein, Theodore N.(2004) 'Cross national variations in the division of household labor', *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 66(5).

¹¹⁹ Hochschild, Arlie R. (1989), *The Second Shift: Working Parents and the Revolution at Home*, New York: Viking Press.

¹²⁰ Coltrane, Scott, and Collins, Randall (2001), *Sociology of Marriage and the Family* (5th edition), Belmont, CA; Wadsworth.

¹²¹ Dienhart, Anke (1998), *Reshaping Fatherhood; The Social Construction of Shared Parenting*, Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

¹²² Risman, Barbara J. (1998), *Gender Vertigo: American Families in Transition*, New Haven, CT: Yale University Press.

¹²³ Waldfoegel, Jane (2001) 'International policies toward parental leave and child care', *Future of children*, 11(1): 99-111.

policies indicate a clear desire to encourage mothers to stay in the labor force (Jacobs and Gerson with Gornick, 2004)¹²⁴. Recently, however, Norway has implemented a ‘daddy leave’ opportunity to close even that small gap in working time. A ‘daddy leave’ reserves some parental caretaking time for fathers only (Cancian and Oliker, 2000)¹²⁵. As women have more economic clout and more education, men tend to do a higher proportion of family work (Davis and Greenstein, 2004)¹²⁶.

From a feminist point of view, these trends point to greater gender equality. As feminist scholars, we argue that both men and women should be expected to contribute to the family income, engage in housework, and provide care. Not only would this lead to more fulfilling partnerships, where deep friendship is truly possible (Schwartz, 1994)¹²⁷.

The American and the French Revolutions clearly marked the beginning of the liberal-rights tradition. Within this tradition, citizenship consists primarily of the status, rights and entitlements granted by a state to its members. Usually, three kinds of citizenship rights are distinguished: civil rights, which secure the realization of individual freedom, such as freedom of speech and the right to own property; political rights, which allow for active and passive participation in the exercise of government; and social rights; which guarantee each individual a minimum share in economic wealth and social security (Marshall, 1950)¹²⁸.

Ruth Lister (2003)¹²⁹ argues for a ‘synthetic approach’, which conceives of citizenship as both status and practice and acknowledges that civil, political and social rights are prerequisites for human agency, and that, in turn, agency is needed to acquire individual rights.

Audre Lorde and Gloria Anzaldrea subscribe to such conscious mobilizations of identity. They suggest a conception of citizenship which allows women of all backgrounds to create commonality by both claiming and transfiguring given identities (Bickford, 1997)¹³⁰.

Lowie (1940)¹³¹ held that the status of women was determined by four major factors, i.e., treatment of women in society, her legal status, opportunities available to her for

¹²⁴ Jacobs, Jerry A. and Gerson, Kathleen and Gornick, Janet C. (2004), *The Time Divide: Work, Family and Gender Inequality*, Cambridge, MA: Oxford University Press.

¹²⁵ Cancian, Francesca M. and Oliker, Stacey (2000), *Caring and Gender*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Pine Forge Press.

¹²⁶ Davis, Shannon N. and Greenstein, Theodore N. (2004) ‘Cross national variations in the division of Household labor’, *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 66(5).

¹²⁷ Schwartz, Pepper (1994), *Peer Marriages: How Love Between Equals Really Works*, New York: Free Press

¹²⁸ Marshall, T.H. (1950), *Citizenship and Social Class*, Cambridge, Cambridge University Press.

¹²⁹ Lister, R. (2003, 2nd edition), *Citizenship; Feminist perspectives*, Houndmills, Basingstoke; Palgrave Macmillan.

¹³⁰ Bickford, S. (1997), *Anti-Anti-Identity Politics; Feminism, Democracy, and the complexities of Citizenship*, *Hypatia* 12(4); 111-131.

¹³¹ Lowie, R.H. (1940) *Primitive Society*, Harper and Brothers, New York.

public activities, and the character and extent of her labour participation. Gide (1977)¹³² gave a comprehensive picture of life options which measured the status of women. They were political expression, work and mobility, family formation-duration and size, education, health and cultural expression. Thus, a great caution was required in summing up the status of female sex in a given society.

Strulik (2004) in his paper looks into changes brought upon the local bodies by the political participation of women after 73rd and 74th Amendment. It was argued that by women's political participation i.e. women's prioritization and agenda setting, women's working style or 'doing politics' gendered knowledge systems and gendered support systems, as well as gendered modes of interaction-the political space gets transformed. This paper gives special emphasis to the role of State officials support or non-cooperation, and governmental guidelines. He adds that the meaning of "politics" and "the State" eventually is reshaped. He argues that the state intervention "women quota" can indeed become a weapon in the hands of women in struggle over the meaning of politics-a process which in turn reflexively influences the broader context of the social construction of gender.¹³³

United Nations, (1991), Education and training for girls and women has long been seen as key measures to improve women's social and economic status. Encouragement should be drawn from some of the figures on school attendance. The enrolment of girls in primary and secondary education has caught up with that of boys in most developed countries and in Latin America and the Caribbean, and nearly equals it in East and Southeast Asia and in the Pacific region. It is increasing faster than that of boys in sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia but from a lower starting point; South Asia is the only area where girls' secondary enrolments are less than half those of boys.¹³⁴

World Bank, (1991), the extension of primary education has boosted literacy. Between 1970 and 1990 literacy rates improved significantly, especially among younger women: the numbers of illiterate women aged between 20 (twenty) and 24(twenty four) decreased from 80 to 50 percent in sub-Saharan Africa, for example, and from nearly 80 percent to just over 40 percent in northern Africa and western Asia. The gap between men and women has remained wide in every region, however, and population growth means that the actual number of illiterate girls and women has increased. Rates are very much higher in rural areas than in

¹³² Gide, (1977), *Women: Roles and Status in Eight Countries*, New York.

¹³³ Strulik Stefanie (2004), *Women-Panchayat-Electives at the interface of State and Village Politics*, Paper on the 18th European Conference on Modern South Asia Studies at Lund University, Sweden.

¹³⁴ United Nations, *The World's Women; Trends and Statistics, 1970-1990*, United Nations, New York, 1991

urban areas, even among young women. A World Bank study found that 80 percent of rural women workers in India were illiterate.¹³⁵ The participation of young women in further and higher education has increased, in overall numbers and in some traditionally male-dominated areas too-though the evidence is not entirely consistent. In over thirty countries more women are in higher education than men, but regional differences are great. There are fewer than 30 female per 100 male students in sub-Saharan Africa and southern Asian countries. In all regions except Africa women make up at least 30 percent of science and engineering students. For law and business the numbers are more or less equal in the developed regions and Latin America, approaching 40 percent women in Asia and the Pacific, and 26 percent in Africa (United Nations)¹³⁶. Vickers, Jeanne (1991), A study for the United Nations Division for the Advancement of Women (DAW) suggests that in countries badly affected by debt and recession, girls are being taken out of school at a faster rate than boys.¹³⁷

Formal schooling provides the background, contacts and entrance requirements to opportunities in politics and the economy. With increasing globalization, education is associated with the flexibility to adapt to changing conditions (Hill and King 1995)¹³⁸. Knowledge-intensive output is replacing more traditional types of production (World Bank 2000)¹³⁹.

Education influences the development of individuals, their educational experience, and their later working life. Political priorities and cultural values affect employment and also shape education. The availability and quality of schools and teachers depend on resources and on political choices. Boys and girls do not arrive at school on an equal footing; gender affects both their access to schooling and their experience at school. It also shapes girls expectations of what school can offer them, and of what they themselves can achieve. The process starts long before they get to school: in many societies the birth of a girl is tolerated rather than celebrated. In others it is actively regretted.

Many parents' expectations are different for their sons than for their daughters. A girl's future is more often seen in terms of marriage than a job. In many societies, when, whom and on what terms a girl marries are the most important considerations, and determine her role and status. Even where it is quite common for girls to think in terms of a 'career', most also

¹³⁵ World Bank, *Gender and Poverty in India*, World Bank, Washington, 1991.

¹³⁷ Vickers, Jeanne(1991), *Women and the World Economic Crisis*, Women and World Development Series, Zed Books, London.

¹³⁸ Hill, Anne and E. King (1995), 'Women's Education and Economic well being', *Feminist Economics*, Vol. 1, no.2, pp 21-46.

¹³⁹ World Bank (2000), *Engendering Development: Policy Research Report on Gender and Development*, Washington, DC: World Bank.

realize that some form of compromise will be necessary between this and their reproductive role: a compromise few men anticipate.

The committee on the Status of Women in India (1974) noted: An argument which is often raised in debates regarding women's employment is that their employment deprives men of jobs that they need to support their families. It is assumed that all women who work are only supplementing the family income to ensure a higher standard of living. These theorists have never tried to investigate how many women who work are the sole or main earners in the family. The majority of working women whom we met were supporting either their parents and younger brothers and sisters or their own children (Government of India, 1974¹⁴⁰).

Thus, in conclusion, there is disparity in employment and income in Nagaland which is prominent and no systematic study has been taken so far. Further, the research scholar is convinced that there is a strong linkage between women's work participation and education which will empower them. Hence the present study will help the policy makers while formulating developmental policy options that will include all the sections of population so as to ensure equal opportunities and an egalitarian society.

¹⁴⁰ Government of India, (1974), Towards Equality; Report of the Committee on the Status of Women in India, Department of Social Welfare, New Delhi.

CHAPTER III

GENDER PROFILE OF NAGALAND

INTRODUCTION:

Improving the status of women has been one of the objectives of the United Nations Millennium Development Goals¹⁴¹, yet in fact, there is only little improvement in this direction in Naga society. The traditional and cultural practices are deep rooted in the social system, women seclusion, segregation in work and home, discrimination in property rights, lower status within the family and social institutions, etc. are aspects requiring serious attentions, so as to bring needed changes enabling women to lead better lives and contribute meaningfully towards economic development.

Studies on the status of women in Nagaland are of recent origin, but many of the contemporary studies concerning the status and attitudes towards women are rooted in the past around the world, a brief historical survey of the changing status of women becomes necessary. Scholars working on the status of women opine that many changes have occurred in the traditional conception of role and status of women. This has been made possible due to increasing new opportunities for education and employment for all, emergence of new socio-economic pattern and privileges of equal legal and political rights in recent years. Women are competing with men on an equal footing and have entered into occupations which were earlier considered as the domain of men¹⁴². Urban working women all over the Country have proved that they can not only match but surpass men in various skills if equal opportunities are available to them. The participation of women in paid labour force and female enrolment in education has increased considerably over the years. Nevertheless, there is gap between men and women in various fields such as, paid work, education, health, access to resources, information on political and legal rights, effectiveness in implementing public policies etc. Furthermore, the fruitful activity performed by women in the agricultural fields, household activities etc. have not been recognized by the society at large. Sometimes women work in the fields for 15 to 16 hours a day and also do miles of walking to fetch water or gather food and

¹⁴¹ *The promotion of women empowerment as a development goal is based on a dual argument: (a) that social justice is an important aspect of human welfare and is intrinsically worth pursuing; and (b) that women empowerment is a means to other ends. A policy research report by the World Bank (2001), for example, identifies gender equality both as a development objective in itself, and as a means to promote growth, reduce poverty and promote better governance.*

¹⁴² Desai (1957). *Women in Modern India*, Vora Publishers, Bombay, and Seth (1990). *Indian Women in* 2000. Viewpoint Hamari, Gosthi No. 2 Vol. IV.

firewood (Kranti Rana, 1998)¹⁴³, and thus women have been ignored, both as the subject and object of development.

A brief review of gender profile of Nagaland presented in this section of the thesis gives an overview of the traditional background and a broad socio-economic profile of women in the study area.

3.1 WOMEN IN TRADITIONAL NAGA SOCIETY:

Many advocate that Naga women enjoy almost equal rights as men and occupy a better position in the society than their counterparts in the country. However, the ground realities in Naga society are different to the existing egalitarian social norms and ethos for gender equality and enrichment, which is also true for the entire country.

Naga society, in the past, was simple and confined mainly in the villages. The village identity occupied the most important position in respect of every Naga tribe. Naga villages were homogenous, self-sustaining and independent. As far as the administrative system was concerned, there were distinct village administration, distribution of clans, socio-cultural network, and the economic well being of the village was looked after by the village authority. But today, with the advent of modern education with developments and modernization, Naga society has become more complex.

In recent years, there are number of legislations, legal and constitutional provisions at various levels supporting to uplift women's status and empower them. However, in Naga society, in many areas the customary laws and practices prevail over the Indian legal system. Thus, the traditional customs and norms continue to determine the society's attitude towards women. The social norms are extension of family norms, that the Nagas are of a patriarchal society, wherein, the father is the head of the family. A son sets up a separate family after getting married, whereas a daughter goes to the husband's house or live in a different house. These traditional practices give more importance to male. Women are restricted in many areas such as economic, political and social concerns particularly in customary relations.

¹⁴³. Rana Kranti (1998), *Modern Working Women and the Development Debate*, p-45-46 Kanishka Publishers, Distributer, New Delhi-110002,

Women and Society:

In the past women were not entitled to fame and title. Women in Ao society are still categorized as '*aningnoza*' (the children of the sky) and '*tetsur tanur*' (women and minor)' that reflects society's perception about the inferior position or status of women; differentiating their status from that of the men folk, sometimes rating them as minor citizens irrespective of their work status, age and educational qualifications. The usage of the very term *aningnoza* or *tetsur tanur* is no doubt, a derogatory term in a way because even the highly educated and elderly women are grouped under this (minor) category. In order to defend or to defame women, they say, '*parnok tetsur tanuri kechi metet?*' (What do these women and children know about?), such usages refer not only in support of them but also to insult the gender. They are in fact, regarded as inferior to men in society and in family circles because of their feminine characteristics¹⁴⁴.

"Different treatment was meted out to the female child right from her birth. A girl child is expected to do all household chores from her tender age while a boy of her age is given more freedom. This is how the spirit of difference between the two sexes is inculcated from their childhood". Though the modern elite society knows that women and men should go side by side and hand-in-hand in every walk of life, the practice of male domination still prevails in Naga society¹⁴⁵.

Women are in many ways equal partner in the family and breadwinner. In North-East India, including Nagaland, women from the poorer groups are employed in labour intensive work. A large number of poor women also work as domestic help and as vegetables and other small items vendors. Women are collectors of secondary staple food and fuel wood from the forest to support their family. However, the pressure of traditional customs and norms continue to determine the society's attitude towards women. The social and cultural institutions and the patriarchal family system in conjunction with religious mores and dominant value systems are still surcharged with the spirit of male domination.

Women in Decision Making Process:

Women are not given privilege to express their opinions in many public gatherings like village citizen's meetings where major policy decisions are taken in Naga society. For instance, among the Ao-Naga society, by custom, women are not allowed to become member of Village Council and therefore, not allowed to attend such Village Citizen's Conference

¹⁴⁴. Talitemjen.N & Lanunungsang.A (2005), Naga Society and Culture, p 216-20

¹⁴⁵. Sharma R.C.(2001), Gender profile of Nagaland, UNESCO, House 8 Poorvi Marg, Vasant Vihar, New Delhi. p (v)

(Senso Mungdang), and excluding Women participation in decision making opportunities in society, which is prevalent till today. Women participations are still negligible in major decision making bodies, because they are not given equal privileges as men to participate fully in most of the social institutions including religious institutions. Also at home, in some cases, they are restrained to fully participate in family decision making process and often male members decide for them.

Access to Resources and Work:

Women have very limited rights to inherit and entitled to co-owned property with brothers in Naga society. The property is usually divided among the sons. Women's land rights are limited, conditional and insecure. In rural Nagaland, women performed bulk of agricultural works, like in many of the developing countries for their consumption as well as to supplement their family income, but they seldom have full title or control over the resources.

By traditional practice, an Ao-Naga woman cannot inherit ancestral property (movable and immovable). However, if a woman is gifted with property by her father (landed or otherwise), she acquires right over the property, but in certain cases, she needs to pay her father a nominal price, otherwise at the event of death of the father, the same may go back to her father's heirs (male lineage).

With the advent of education and socioeconomic progress in recent times, numerous changes are taking place in regards to women access to resources and property. Increasing number of women is working in jobs, venturing into business as entrepreneurs etc. In many households, women are bread earners for the family and in some family; both wife and husband contribute equally. Thus, work and earning empower women to acquire assets and for some, daughters are also given share of her parental property in recent years. As regards to inheritance, more often customary law hinders women to get access to property. In some extreme cases, if a woman is issueless or born only daughter/s, and if husband dies, she is not allow living in her house, but make to move out along with her daughter/s, even if the house is built from her own earnings or jointly during her husband's life time, and the property is taken over by her husband's heirs.

Naga women as compared to men, have unequal access to land, other property etc. and limited control over all these resources and opportunities, which is detrimental for her progress. In rural area, in order to grow and process food, women need a number of inputs, most basically land and labour, and for those who are seeking to increase productivity and incomes, other inputs are also required, especially credit, improved technology, training and extension

services. All of which are limited for women, constraining them to contribute significantly in production and earn higher income.

ILO (1989) has rightly pointed that lack of critical resources and opportunities are detrimental for economic development of any region, for the reason that where women's access to factor of production including land is weak, it results in declining food security at the household level¹⁴⁶.

3.2. GENDER DEMOGRAPHIC FEATURES:

Demographic attributes such as population, birth rate, death rate, infant mortality rate, life expectancy at birth, age and sex compositions, etc. indicate both the physical quality of human population and the level of socio-economic development of any region. An understanding of the demographic profile in general and women in particular in the sample area is thus an essential precondition towards addressing the issues of women and development linkage as this will influence the socio-economic conditions of women. An attempt has been made to examine the demographic characteristics in general and women vis-a-vis men in particular in Nagaland.

3.2.1. Population in Nagaland:

According to 2011 census, Nagaland has a total population of 1980602. Out of which, the male population is 1025707 and 954895 females (accounting for 51.78 % and 48.21% respectively). In Nagaland, 71.03% of the total population resides in rural area and 28.07% in urban area. Among the districts, Dimapur has the highest percentage of urban population with 51.95%, which is followed by Kohima with 45.60%, while in Mon district, only 13.85% of its total population lives in urban area. By gender concern, the rural population is comprised of 51.50% male and 48.49% female, whereas the urban population is comprised of 52.48% male and 47.52% female.

¹⁴⁶ ILO (1989), "*Women and Land*", A report of regional African workshop on women access to land held in October 1988, Zimbabwe, (Geneva, ILO, 1989); 62pp.

Table 3.1: Population of Nagaland – 1901-2011

Year	Population	% change	Males	% change	Females	% change	Sex ratio
1901	101550	-	51473		50077		973
1911	149038	46.76	74796	31.18	74242	32.55	993
1921	158801	6.55	79738	6.20	79063	6.10	992
1931	178844	12.62	89536	10.94	89308	11.47	997
1941	189641	6.04	93831	4.58	95810	6.79	1021
1951	212975	12.30	106551	11.94	106424	9.97	999
1961	369200	73.35	191027	44.22	178173	40.27	833
1971	516449	39.88	276084	30.81	240365	25.87	871
1981	774930	50.05	415910	33.62	359020	33.05	863
1991	1209546	56.08	641282	35.14	568264	36.82	886
2001	1990036	64.53	1047141	38.76	942895	39.73	909
2011	1980602	(-0.47)	1025707	-2.09	954895	1.26	931

Source: Important economic indicators of Nagaland, 2009, Provisional Population Totals-Paper 1 of 2011, Nagaland series 14, Census report, 2011

It is observed from the table no.3.1 that the decadal growth of population in Nagaland had undergone a structural break in 1951, which percentage growth trend in population had fluctuated till this period. Thereafter, in 1961 Nagaland has witnessed a dramatic increase by 73.35%, the highest recorded percentage increase during the twelve decades under consideration. In the subsequent decades, the growth in population was consistent. However, again in 2011 census, it showed a negative growth (-0.47%).

Similarly, gender population data showed inconsistency in growth trend which has fluctuated till 1951. In 1961 the State witnessed the highest percentage increase for both male (79.28%) and female (67.42%), and the growth rate of female population was consistently lower than the male from 1951 through 1981. Since then, the female has taken a higher growth rate over male and remains positive, whereas for male, it assumed negative growth during 2001-2011 with -2.05.

3.2.2. Sex Ratio:

A perusal of table no.3.1, it is observed that the female population was higher than male in 1941 with a sex ratio of 1021. Thereafter, the ratio was significantly declined with lowest of 833 in 1961 and was risen steadily in the subsequent decades. As shown in table no. 3.2(a), the sex ratio in Nagaland is 931, which is lower than the national ratio of 940. The sex ratio in rural and urban areas are 940 and 908 respectively, which are also lower than that of all India average of 947 for rural and 926 for urban areas as according to the latest 2011 census.

Table 3.2 (a): District wise sex ratio in Nagaland: 2001-2011

State/District	Sex Ratio 2001			Sex Ratio 2011		
	Total	Rural	Urban	Total	Rural	Urban
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Nagaland	900	916	829	931	940	908
Mon	879	883	815	899	902	884
Mokokchung	919	936	817	925	946	875
Zunheboto	947	970	829	976	993	912
Wokha	927	954	844	968	977	937
Dimapur	854	864	837	919	937	903
Phek	921	938	757	951	969	860
Tuensang	900	924	784	929	938	889
Longleng	889	889	-	905	904	908
Kiphire	900	900	-	956	967	920
Kohima	898	925	849	928	924	934
Peren	946	946	-	915	900	1012
Mean	907.27	920.82	816.50	933.73	941.55	912.18
Std. dev.	28.21	32.88	31.60	25.47	32.20	40.81
Std. Error	8.50	9.91	115.27	7.68	9.71	12.31
Co. var.	3.11	3.57	3.87	2.73	3.42	4.47

Source: Primary Census Abstract 2011, Nagaland series 14

Note : - means not available.

In 2011, among the 11 (eleven) districts, in total Zunheboto has the highest sex ratio with 976, whereas, Mon has the lowest with 899. In rural area, Zunheboto exhibited the highest with 993 and lowest was Peren with 900. Conversely, in urban area, Peren has the highest with 1012 and Phek was the lowest with 860. It appears that, with the exception of urban area in Peren district, the proportion of female population is generally lower than that of male in all the districts. The coefficient of variation among the districts is reasonably low and it has reduced through time (2001-2011), from 3.11% to 2.73%. In rural area, it reduced from 3.57% to 3.42%, however a marginal increased from 3.87% to 4.47% is evident in urban area.

Table 3. 2 (b): Percentage Change in Sex Ratio (from 2001 to 2011)

State/District	Total	Rural	Urban
Nagaland	3.44	2.62	8.49
Mon	2.28	2.15	7.68
Mokokchung	0.65	1.07	6.27
Zunheboto	3.06	2.37	8.50
Wokha	4.42	2.41	9.61
Dimapur	7.61	8.45	7.18
Phek	3.26	3.30	10.83
Tuensang	3.22	1.52	11.30
Longleng	1.80	1.69	-
Kiphire	6.22	7.44	-
Kohima	3.34	-0.11	9.16
Peren	3.28	-4.86	-

Source: Primary Census Abstract 2011, Nagaland series 14

Table 3.2(b) shows that the sex ratio during the last decade was increased by 3.44% in Nagaland. District wise, the percentage increase was highest in Dimapur (7.61%), followed by Kiphire (6.22%), and Wokha (4.42%) and these districts were above the State average. On the other hand, the remaining districts were below the State's average. It may also be observed that Peren district exhibited decline in sex ratio by -3.28% in total and -4.86 % in rural area, although it assumed the highest urban sex ratio in 2011. The percentage change during the decade is not shown for newly constituted urban towns like Peren, Kiphire and Longleng.

This indicates that the proportion of female to male in total population had increased during the last decade in the State and in all the individual districts, except for Peren. Similarly, in both rural and urban areas it was increased in all districts (except for rural Peren-4.86% and rural Kohima -0.11%).

3.2.3. Health Indicators:

Being healthy and able to live long brings both direct and indirect benefits to individual and to the society as a whole. It enhances personal well being and enables to realize personal goals by providing opportunity to develop the abilities and fuller utilization of innate potential in an individual. For a society, transition into a condition where people can enjoy long and healthy lives is desirable and valued social change. Thus, health indicators form one of the important ingredients for evaluating development process and in measuring Human Development (NHDR, 2001).

Table 3.3: District wise Health Indicators of Nagaland in 2001 and 2010

District	2001		2010		
	Life Expectancy	IMR (per 1000)	Birth rate (per 1000)	Death rate (per 1000)	Infant Death Rate (per 1000)
Nagaland	73.4	40.00	16.21	2.45	1.68
Mon	75.0	27.10	11.48	1.49	1.40
Mokokchung	72.3	35.05	18.50	2.95	1.08
Zunheboto	73.6	31.53	13.89	1.80	2.49
Wokha	68.6	47.42	13.46	2.57	2.86
Dimapur	73.4	37.50	20.70	3.35	2.04
Phek	74.2	29.22	15.40	3.38	2.65
Tuensang	70.8	41.30	11.83	1.88	1.58
Longleng	-	-	11.00	1.09	3.06
Kiphire	-	-	9.97	1.25	3.52
Kohima	73.2	37.90	26.92	3.50	0.44
Peren	-	-	12.35	1.43	3.30
Mean	72.64	35.88	15.05	2.24	2.22
Std. Dev.	1.97	6.09	5.24	0.94	1.00
Co.var.	2.71	16.96	34.84	41.87	45.23

Source: (1) Nagaland HDR, 2004 and (2) Statistical Handbook of 2012.

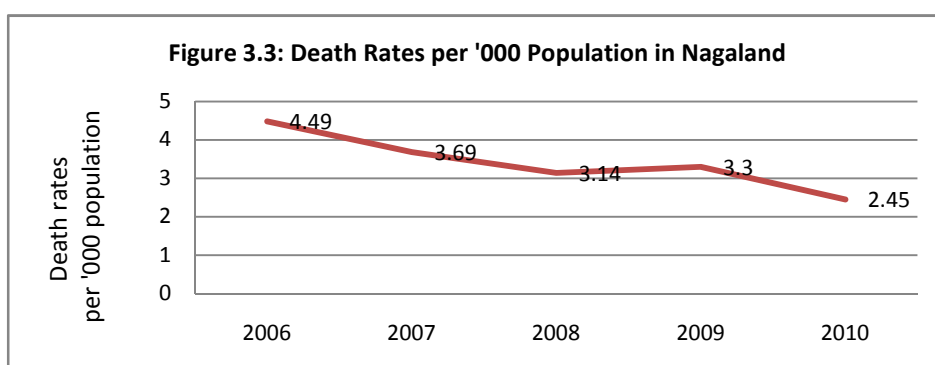
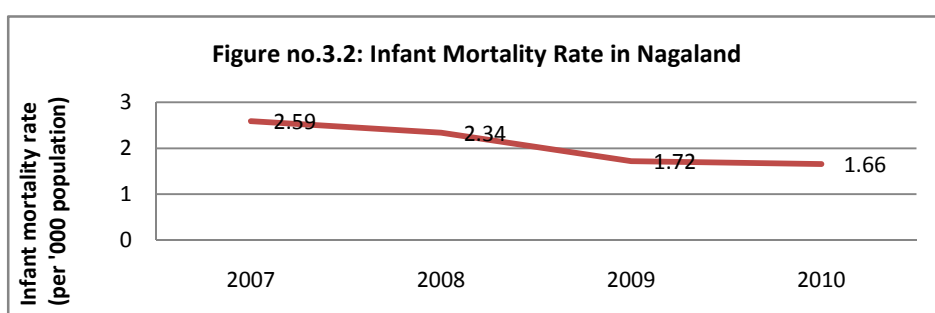
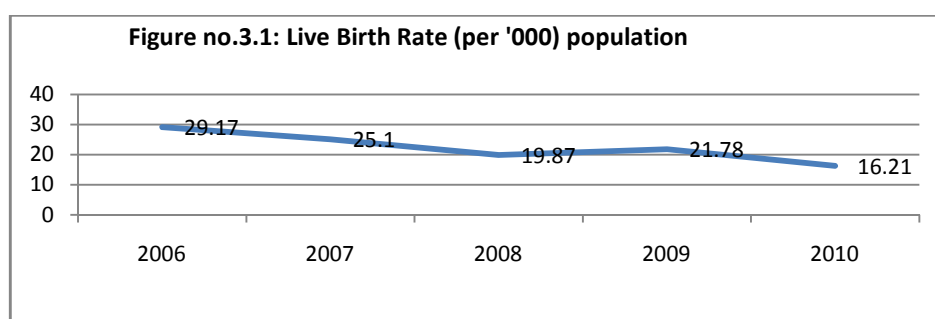
Life expectancy at birth in Nagaland was 73.4 years in 2001 which was higher than the country's average of 60.7 years during the same year. Longevity in the state was highest in Mon with 75.0 years, while Wokha had the lowest with 68.6 years (National Human Development Report, 2001). The districts wise variation in life expectancy is negligible as its coefficient of variation is 2.71% and standard deviation is 1.97 only. Gender wise differences could not be gauged due to paucity of secondary data.

The birth rate in Nagaland per thousand populations in 2010 was 16.21 and the total live birth registered was 45,269, comprising of 53% males and 47% of females. This was declined from 29 in 2006 to 22 in 2009.

The death rate was 2.45 per '000 population in 2010, with a total death registered, comprised of 55% of male and 44.97% female (table 3.3/annexure table no.3.1). A total of 6465 deaths was registered in 2009, comprised 43% of females and 57% of males. In 2008, a total of 7347 deaths were registered (3149 females -43% and 4198 males-57%). The death rates fall from 4.49 to 3.30 per '000 population during 2006 and 2009. The rapid fall in its death rate is primarily due to improvement of health services, better sanitation, education, improvement in nutrition, and living conditions in the State in general. Nagaland witnessed significant decline in both infant mortality and death rates during the last decade.

Infant Mortality Rate:

Infant mortality rate is a sensitive indicator of human development. There are various indicators of infant and child mortality, among them the most commonly used, is the life. The infant and child mortality are likely to be more sensitive to changes that has a infant mortality rate which refers to the number of deaths per thousand live births in the first year of child's bearing on the quality of life, particularly, to health and longevity of people.¹⁴⁷ High mortality and morbidity among infant and children below 5 years occurs on account of inadequate care, asphyxia during birth, premature birth, malnutrition, vaccine preventable diseases etc. In 2010, infant mortality rate was recorded at 1.68 per thousand as against 1.72 in 2009. In 2010 the highest mortality was 3.52 in Kiphire and lowest in Kohima with 0.44.



The significant decline in birth rate and the low maternal mortality could be attributed to widespread awareness among the people about the advantages of having smaller families

¹⁴⁷ National Human Development Report, 2001.

coupled with easy availability of contraceptives and medical care in recent years. DHDR sample survey 2013 indicated that 80% of the rural and 35% of urban women respondents get access to family planning services. The decline in birth rate is vital to fulfill the objective of stabilizing the growth of population in the country. Moreover, maternal mortality registered in 2010 was only 24 persons, 13 and 11 in rural and urban area. In Nagaland Maternal mortality rate was <1/1000 and India 4/1000 (NSHDR 2004)

3.3 EDUCATIONAL PROFILE

Education is the process of facilitating learning, or the acquisition of knowledge, skills, values, beliefs, and habits. Education is considered as an important variable not only for widening mental horizon of the individual but it also helps a person to make use of rational and scientific approach to solve different problems. Education influences the development of individuals, their educational experience, and their later working life. Political priorities and cultural values affect employment and also shape education. Education opens opportunities and thus empowers individuals. The availability and quality of schools and teachers depend on resources and on political choices.

Formal education was introduced in Nagaland in late nineteenth century by American Baptist Missionaries. Since then, the efforts have been made to educate women through the initiative of American missionaries in Nagaland. The important educational development indicators like literacy rate and enrolment ratio are taken into consideration to examine the gender educational profile and the extent of disparity in educational attainment.

3.3.1. Literacy rate:

Nagaland has attained remarkable progress in literacy rate, which stands at 80.11% in 2011, which is higher than National rate of 74.04%. The literacy rate was increased by 13.52% from 2001 to 2011 (from 66.59% to 80.11% respectively). Ranking of the State in literacy has gone up from 20th in 2001 to 15th in 2011 in the country. Literacy by sex shows that the rates for males has gone up from 71.16% in 2001 to 83.30% in 2011 and for females it has increased from 61.46% to 76.69% during the same period. For both males and females, the literacy rate is higher than the National rate of 82.14% and 65.46% respectively.

It is a continuous phenomenon that the literacy rate for male has been higher than that of female throughout the period under consideration in Nagaland. In 1981, the literacy rate for male was 50.06%, which was increased to 67.62%, 71.77% and 83.29% in 1991, 2001 and 2011 respectively, while the same for female in corresponding periods were 33.89%, 54.75%, 61.92% and 76.69%. However, it may be observed from table 3.4 that the extent of gender gap in literacy

rate has been declined over the time as its CV value has declined from 27.24% in 1981 to 14.87%, 10.42% and 5.84% in 1991, 2001 and 2011 respectively.

Table 3.4: Gender Disparities in Literacy Rate

	Literacy Rate (LR)		
	1991	2001	2011
Total	61.65	66.59	80.11
Male	67.62	71.77	83.29
Female	54.75	61.92	76.69
Gap (%)	12.87	9.85	6.6
CV (%)	14.87	10.42	05.84

Source: National HDR 2001, Nagaland HDR 2004. Census of India, 1981, 1991, 2001 & 2011
Note: CV- Coefficient of Variation.

However, the gender gap is still large in the state, where the female literacy rate is lower than that of male. This indicates the extent of inequality among gender, an enormous gap to bridge, which may require changes in the existing educational policies for girls. The data in table 3.4 reveals that the gap is narrowing down over the last three decades from 12.87% to 9.85% during 1991 and 2001 respectively and further declined to 6.6% in 2011, which is lower than the National level of 16.6%.

It is also observed that the female literacy rate has been increasing at a faster rate than male in Nagaland, which growth rates are estimated to be 3.01% and 1.80% per annum respectively during 1981-2011. That the disparity as measured by Coefficient of Variation has reduced by - 4.80% per annum during the same period.

Literacy Rate by District wise:

Table 3.5: Literacy rates by Districts in 2001 and 2011 and decadal growth in percentages

Districts	2001			2011			% increase from 2001 to 2011		
	Persons	Male	Female	Persons	Male	Female	Persons	Male	Female
Mon	41.83	46.56	36.35	56.6	60.38	52.39	35.31	29.68	44.13
Mokokchung	83.92	86.03	81.61	92.68	93.55	91.74	10.44	8.74	12.41
Zunheboto	69.26	73.76	64.52	86.26	88.86	83.61	24.55	20.47	29.59
Wokha	80.55	85.35	75.32	87.6	90.53	84.58	8.75	6.07	12.29
Dimapur	75.57	80.38	69.87	82.54	86.14	78.65	9.22	7.17	12.57
Phek	70.65	78.37	62.26	79.13	84.53	73.5	12.00	7.86	18.05
Tuensang	52.15	59.83	43.45	73.7	76.76	70.4	41.32	28.30	62.03
Longleng	44.82	48.05	41.15	73.1	75.6	70.35	63.10	57.34	70.96
Kiphire	50.23	55.71	44.1	71.1	76.54	65.44	41.55	37.39	48.39
Kohima	78	83.51	71.78	85.58	89.28	81.56	9.72	6.91	13.62
Peren	65.92	72.06	59.39	79	83.96	73.57	19.84	16.51	23.88
<i>std dev</i>	15.03	14.87	15.48	9.98	9.47	10.73	18.03	16.35	21.42
<i>covar.</i>	23.19	21.25	26.20	12.66	11.50	14.30	71.93	79.41	67.72

Source: Provisional Population totals, paper 2, Volume 11 of 2011, Nagaland series 14

Among the districts, Mokokchung has the highest literacy rates of 92.68% (comprising of 93.55% of male and 91.74% female) in 2011. The lowest literacy rate was in Mon with 56.6% (comprising of 60.38% male and 52.39% female) in the same year. The most significant growth during the last decade was seen in Longleng, Kiphire and Tuensang with 63.10%, 41.55% and 41.32% increase, where the growth rate of literacy for female was higher than that of male in the entire districts, with the highest in Longleng district (70.96%) and lowest 12.29% was seen in Wokha during the decade. The decadal growth rate of total female literacy is higher than that of the males although female literacy rate is lower than male in all the districts and in the State as well. It is also found that inter district variation is modest, which has reduced during the last decade, that its coefficient of variation falls from 23.19% in 2001 to 12.66% in 2011.

Enrolment:

The enrolment ratio depicts the current flow or the spread of education. Enrolment by levels of school education during the year 2007-08 and 2012-13 showed that girl's enrolment was lower than that of boys.

Table 3.6: School Enrolment in Nagaland in percentage

Sl no	Different levels of Education	2007-08			2012-13		
		Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
1	Higher secondary	56.62	47.38	15.44	52.67	47.33	5.13
2	Secondary	52.47	47.53	33.12	50.22	49.78	9.47
3	Upper primary	51.03	48.97	18.89	50.36	49.64	22.51
4	Primary	51.86	48.14	32.55	50.46	49.54	62.89
Nagaland		52.03	47.97	100	50.53	49.47	100

Source: *Statistical handbook of Nagaland, 2006, Statistical handbook of Nagaland, 2009, UDISE data 2012-13, Directorate of School Education*

In 2007-08, the total enrolment from primary to higher secondary was 479732, comprising of 52.03% boys and 47.97% girls. The same in 2012-13 was 562599, showing an increase in total enrolment by 17.27%, which comprised of 50.53% and 49.47% for boys and girls respectively. Enrolment of boys was decreased by -2.88%, whereas, for girls it increased by 3.13 during the period. It may be gauged from the above table that for girls' enrolment, although it shows gradual increase it remains lower than that of boys' enrolment.

Table 3.7: District wise School enrolment in 2012-2013 in percentage

Districts	Primary			Upper primary			Secondary			Higher secondary		
	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
Mon	49.24	50.76	10.50	49.85	50.15	8.42	51.34	48.66	8.66	56.66	43.34	4.99
Tuensang	50.11	49.89	10.50	49.36	50.64	7.90	50.50	49.50	7.48	53.62	46.38	3.25
Mokokchung	51.43	48.57	9.23	50.07	49.93	12.86	47.93	52.07	7.39	48.75	51.25	6.23
Zunheboto	50.53	49.47	7.59	50.13	49.87	6.80	48.67	51.33	7.06	48.67	51.33	3.24
Wokha	47.97	52.03	6.33	49.04	50.96	6.40	50.20	49.80	5.60	44.21	55.79	3.83
Dimapur	51.40	48.60	25.73	51.03	48.97	25.60	50.09	49.91	30.17	52.92	47.08	42.34
Kohima	49.97	50.03	9.96	50.14	49.86	11.45	50.28	49.72	16.44	54.08	45.92	27.27
Phek	51.36	48.64	6.98	50.60	49.40	7.14	50.58	49.42	7.48	49.82	50.18	3.79
Longleng	49.99	50.00	3.98	49.38	50.62	3.36	45.28	54.72	2.50	51.76	48.24	1.17
Kiphire	50.51	49.49	4.49	51.24	48.76	4.54	52.22	47.78	3.38	54.05	45.95	1.15
Peren	50.22	49.78	4.73	51.95	48.05	5.50	55.96	44.04	3.81	55.68	44.32	2.68
Nagaland	50.46	49.54	62.89	50.36	49.64	22.50	50.22	49.78	9.46	52.67	47.33	5.13

Source: UDISE data 2012-13, Directorate of School Education.

District wise enrolment in schools is divided into primary, upper primary, secondary and higher secondary levels. The numbers at different levels are shown as 353846 in primary, 126635 in upper primary, 53250 in secondary and 28868 only in higher secondary. The highest concentration of enrolment was found in the primary level with 62.89% of the total school going children, comprised of 50.46% boys and 49.54% girls. Upper primary accounted for 22.50% of the school going children in aggregate, comprised of 50.36% of boys and 49.64% girls respectively. The Secondary level with 9.46% was comprised with 50.22% of boys and 49.78% girls. Higher secondary constituted 5.13% comprised of 52.67% and 47.33% respectively for boys and girls. The data showed higher enrolment of boys than girls in all levels. The proportion of enrolment show a downward movement from primary to higher secondary level and also the proportion of girls are smaller than that of boys at all levels.

District wise break up of enrolment in primary level Dimapur with 25.73% was the highest, and Longleng with 3.98% lowest. In upper primary Dimapur enrolment was highest and Longleng lowest with 25.60% and 3.36% respectively. In secondary level also highest and lowest Dimapur and Longleng had 30.17% and 2.50% respectively. In higher secondary level 42.34% highest and 1.15% lowest for Dimapur and Kiphire respectively. Enrolment at different levels shows a decreasing trend from upper primary onwards. Girls' proportion of enrolment is found smaller than boys for most of the districts and levels of education.

Higher Education in Nagaland:

Table 3.8: Number of students in higher educational institutions in Nagaland

Sl.no	Types of institutions	2007-08			2008-09			2010-11		
		Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
1	University	237	202	439	212	260	472	-	-	-
2	College of general education	11818	10157	21975	12999	11800	24799			
3	Higher professional education	86	173	259	70	159	229	106	193	299
	(ii)Agriculture college	194	131	325	183	122	305	-	-	-
4	Theology	690	739	1429	1256	1326	2582	1248	1258	2506
5	Law college	306	143	449	233	119	352	288	128	416
	Total	13094	11545	24876	14953	13786	28739			

Source: Statistical handbook of Nagaland, 2011

Enrolment of students in higher education is drawn from university, colleges, higher professional education institutions, theological and law colleges. The number of students enrolled in these institutions show an increasing trend. The gender segregated data at the university level show an increase and in 2008-09 enrolment of girls (55.08%) were higher than boys (44.92%). Majority of students were in college of general education, where girl's enrolment was lower, but steadily shown an increase from 38.99% in 2002-07 to 47.58% in 2008-09. In higher professional colleges such as college of teacher education and in theological college number of girls were more than boys. In relatively challenging streams like agriculture and law the enrolment of girls was lower.

Table 3.9: Number of students undergoing technical courses

YEAR	Medical & Allied Courses					Engineering Courses				
	Male	%	Female	%	Total	Male	%	Female	%	total
2008-09	82	74	29	26	111	151	82	34	18	185
2009-10	69	53	60	47	129	130	80	33	20	163
2010-11	63	53	56	47	119	162	78	46	22	191
2011-12	59	46	68	53	127	149	78	42	22	191
2012-13	79	54	68	46	147	145	69	64	31	209

Source : Directorate of IT &TE, Government of Nagaland, 2012

Table 3.9 above shows the number of students selected to undergo various technical courses such as Medical and allied and Engineering courses¹⁴⁸. The students chosen to undergo Medical and Allied courses in the year 2008-09 was comprised of 74% male and only

¹⁴⁸ Medical and allied include MBBS, BDS, B.Sc. Nursing, BAMS, BHMS, B.PHARM, B.Sc.MLT, B.Sc.Horticulture, B.Sc.Fishery, B.Sc.Home Science, B.Sc.Forestry, B.V.Sc. and A.H, B.Sc.Agriculture, B.Sc.RIT, B.Sc.OOT, Bachelor in Trauma, Emergency and Disaster Management, Bachelor in Advanced Imaging Technology, Masters in Hospital Management, Bachelor in O.T.Technology, Bachelor in Critical Care.Engineering courses include Civil Engg., Electrical, Electrical and Electronics, Computer Technology Information, Chemical, Mechanical, Architecture, Computer Engg., Electronics and Communication, Information Technology, Agricultural Engineering and Technology, Bio.Technology.

26% were female. In the following years, the percentage difference was reduced although female continued to be lower except for 2011-12.

It appears that engineering course is still a male domain area of study, whose percentage is very high in all the five years as compared to that of female. In 2008-09, male accounts for 82% and female were only 18%. From 2009-10 a steady increase is shown and in 2012-13 there were 69% male and 31% female selected for technical education.

3.4. ECONOMIC PROFILE:

Women's status depends mainly on their rights and privileges and the roles assigned to them, most often on the basis of gender. Status of women is determined to a great extent in terms of socio-economic indicators such as income, property, education and skills that open up opportunities of employment. The role and status of women have undergone notable changes in the State, where the number of salaried and self-employed women have increased in recent years. Though many women have occupied respectable position, there are more women who are still looking out to do something to supplement to their family's income. Women cannot do large scale business for that matter even small scale business because their access to resources is limited, women are still far from being at an equitable position with their counterpart.

However, a woman who does the household chores and carries out other economic activities for the family, even up to 14 hours a day, is not considered as important as her salaried counterpart. Many salaried and self-employed women multi task because they are expected to look after their household and also attend to their work.

3.4.1 Employment:

Employment is an occupation by which a person earns a living. Employment is the action of employing someone/ the state of having paid job. Employment in different sectors is divided into cultivators, agricultural labourers, household workers or household industry workers and other workers. Cultivators are those engaged in cultivation of land owned or held from private persons or institutions for payment in money, kind or share. Agricultural labourer is a person who works on another person's land for wages in money or kind or share. Further Household industry worker is defined as an industry where one or more members of the household works at home or within the village in rural areas and only within the precincts of the house where the household lives in urban areas. Other workers include all government

servants, municipal employees, teachers, factory workers, plantation workers and those engaged in trade, commerce, business, transport, banking, mining, construction political or social work, priests, entertainment artists, etc. In effect, all those workers other than cultivators or agricultural labourers or household industry workers are ‘Other workers’.

The total number of workers was 9, 74,122 in Nagaland according to 2011 census which was increased from 847796 in 2001, that shows an increase by 14.90%. Out of total working population the female proportion was only 22% while male shared 78% in 2011. Out of the total workers, 55.2% were cultivators, 6.5% agricultural labourers, 1.7% household workers and 36.0% were other workers in 2011. During the decade, the shares of agricultural and household industries have declined while the same for other services has increased in the state. However there are gender variations in employment pattern as indicated in the table no 3.4.2.

3.4.2. Employment by Sector:

Table 3.10: Sectoral Employment in Nagaland in 2001 and 2011 (in %) in area and gender

Sectors	2001					2011				
	Total	Rural		Urban		Total	Rural		Urban	
		M	F	M	F		M	F	M	F
Cultivators	64.7	66.1	82.3	2.6	11.2	55.2	62.0	74.7	6.2	17.1
Agril. Labourers	3.6	3.8	4.5	0.6	2.1	6.5	7.0	7.7	2.6	5.1
H/H industry Workers	2.6	1.9	3.3	1.9	7.1	1.7	1.6	2.7	2.0	5.3
Other Workers	29.0	28.3	10.2	94.8	79.6	36.0	29.4	14.9	89.2	72.5

Source: (i) Primary Census Abstract, Data Highlights, Nagaland Series 14.
(ii) Statistical Handbook of Nagaland, 2009

In rural area, majority of the working population are engaged in agricultural sector. By gender concerns in their respective total, the proportion of agricultural worker is higher (82%) among female than that of male (69%), which comprised of 74.7% of cultivators and 7.7% of agricultural laborers. Similarly, in household industrial workers the female proportion is higher (2.7%) than that of male (1.6%). In other services the proportion is higher among male (29.4%) than the female (14.9%) in 2011 census. On the other hand in urban area, majority of workers were engaged in other services, which is true for both male (89.2%) and female (72.5%). Although the proportion of female workers are lower than the male workers in total, the proportion for female workers are higher in agriculture and household works (22.2% and 5.3% respectively) as against male proportions (8.8% and 2% respectively) during the same period. This implies that the major economic activity in rural area is agriculture while it is other

services in urban area. The gender segregation of working pattern that emerged from this analysis is agriculture and household works are predominance of female workers while other service is of male workers.

3.4.3. District Wise Employment Pattern:

(i) Cultivators:

In Nagaland, majority of the workers were cultivators (55%) in 2011. District wise, Mon with 76.9 % was the highest and lowest was Dimapur with 16.2%. The gender segregated data reveals that in rural area, out of total female workers, 74.7% was employed as cultivators, which was higher than male's proportion of 62%. The district with the highest female workers engaged as cultivators was Tuensang with 90.7% and the lowest was Dimapur with 32.7%. While for male, the same was highest in Tuensang with 79.6% and the lowest was in Dimapur with 28%. While in urban area, out of total female workers, 17.1% was employed as cultivators against male proportion of 6.2% in Nagaland. The district wise data indicates that Phek has the highest proportion of female worker engaged as cultivator with 49%, while the lowest was Dimapur with 4%. Among male, the highest was Peren with 36.8% and Dimapur with 1.3% was the lowest.

(ii) Agricultural Labours:

According to 2011 census, 6.5% constituted agricultural labourers in Nagaland. This shows that together with cultivators, agricultural sector accounted for 61.7% of total workers in the state. District wise, the highest proportion was in Zunheboto and the lowest in Kohima with 14.7% and 1.9%, respectively. The gender segregated data indicates that in rural area, female proportion was higher than the male with 7.7% and 7%, respectively. Similarly, in urban area the female proportion was higher than that of male with 5.1% and 2.6%, respectively. The female proportion in rural area ranges from 2.7% in Kohima to 17.2% in Zunheboto, whereas, the male proportion ranges from 2.3% to 14.7% in Kohima and Zunheboto, respectively. As for urban area, the proportions range from 1.5% in Kohima to 22.1% in Longleng for female. For male it ranges from 0.6% in Wokha to 10.6% in Longleng.

This explanation implies that the proportions of female as cultivator and labourers in agricultural sector are higher than that of male in both rural and urban areas in Nagaland. Moreover, for both female and male the rural proportions were higher than that of urban proportions, indicating female dominance of workers in the sector.

Table 3.11: District wise percentage of cultivators in Nagaland, 2011.

Districts	Percentage of cultivators					Percentage of agricultural labourers				
	Total	Rural		Urban		Total	Rural		Urban	
		M	F	M	F		M	F	M	F
1.Mon	76.9	78.9	86.1	13.7	31.1	7.3	7.2	7.9	3.8	8.5
2.Mokokchung	48.9	56.4	66.1	5.2	9.1	9.2	10.5	9.0	6.2	8.5
3.Zunheboto	56.3	58.5	66.6	4.9	16.6	15.0	14.7	17.2	4.8	14.5
4.Wokha	60.1	64.0	77.1	3.6	15.9	8.2	9.4	9.6	0.6	2.4
5.Dimapur	16.2	28.0	32.7	1.3	4.0	5.9	8.4	13.3	1.2	1.9
6.Phek	68.6	66.3	81.8	16.9	49.0	3.9	4.0	4.6	1.0	1.4
7.Tuensang	76.6	79.6	90.7	17.6	36.6	4.0	3.5	3.3	6.1	10.4
8.Longleng	73.6	75.7	84.0	11.5	23.1	4.3	3.2	3.1	10.6	22.1
9.Kiphire	67.1	64.9	82.4	20.5	44.4	3.9	3.4	4.0	4.3	7.0
10.Kohima	38.9	47.0	74.8	2.4	8.9	1.9	2.3	2.7	0.7	1.5
11.Peren	64.6	64.4	73.5	36.8	45.8	6.1	5.6	5.3	9.5	10.1
Nagaland	55.2	62.0	74.7	6.2	17.1	6.5	7.0	7.7	2.6	5.1

Source: Primary Census, Abstract, Data Highlights , Nagaland Series 14

(iii) Household Industry Workers:

In 2011, the 'household industry workers' constitute 2.3% of the total workers in Nagaland, which showed a decline from 2.6% in 2001. Among the districts, Peren showed the highest percentage of household industry workers with 4.2%, an increase from 3.2% in 2001. Mon and Tuensang Districts had the least percentage of household industry workers with 1.1% each in 2011.

Table 3.12: District wise Employment in household industries in Nagaland, 2011.

Districts		Percentage of H/H industry workers				
		Total	Rural		Urban	
			M	F	M	F
1.	Mon	1.1	0.8	0.9	2.3	5.1
2.	Mokokchung	3.8	2.4	5.3	2.0	8.1
3.	Zunheboto	2.5	1.9	2.6	2.7	9.0
4.	Wokha	2.5	1.8	2.6	3.3	6.1
5.	Dimapur	3.4	1.7	5.5	2.1	6.8
6.	Phek	1.6	1.2	2.0	1.1	1.6
7.	Tuensang	1.1	0.8	0.8	2.3	5.0
8.	Longleng	2.0	1.8	1.7	1.8	8.2
9.	Kiphire	2.3	2.0	2.8	1.2	3.8
10.	Kohima	1.8	1.8	2.5	1.0	1.9
11.	Peren	4.2	3.6	4.7	3.3	5.7
Nagaland		2.3	1.6	2.7	2.0	5.3

Source: Primary Census, Abstract, Data Highlights, Nagaland Series 14

Gender data reveals that except for rural Longleng, in all the districts (in both rural and urban areas) the proportions of female worker were higher than that of male in household industry sector. The highest female proportion in rural area was in Dimapur with 5.5%, and in

urban area it was Zunheboto with 9%. The lowest was Mon with 0.9% in rural area and Phek with 1.6% in urban area.

(iv) Other Workers:

Of the total workers in Nagaland, 36% accounted for '*other workers*' in 2011. Out of which, 49% are in the rural area and 51% in urban area. Among the districts, Dimapur exhibited the highest proportion with 74.5% and the lowest is Mon with 14.7%. In rural area, the highest female worker in other workers category was Dimapur with 48.5%, and in urban it was Kohima with 87.8%. In all the districts, the female proportion happened to be lower than that of male in this sector.

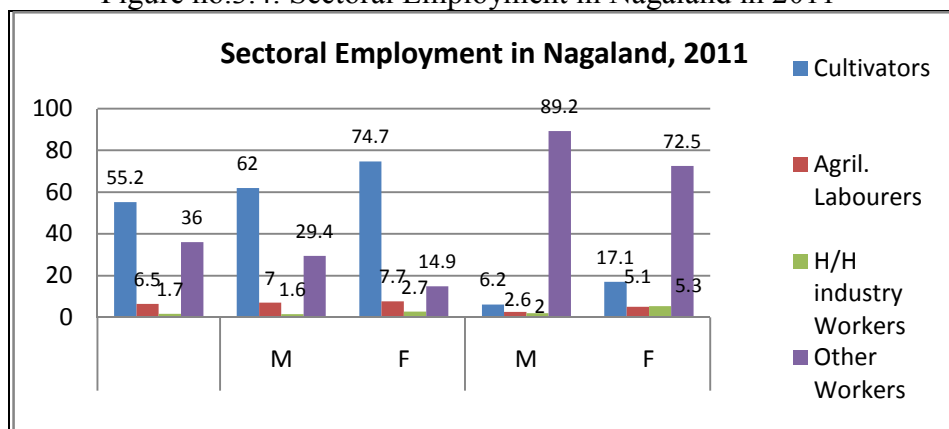
Table 3.13: District wise, % of Employment in Other Works (Services) in Nagaland, 2011

Districts		Total	Rural		Urban	
			M	F	M	F
1.	Mon	14.7	13.1	5.0	80.3	55.3
2.	Mokokchung	38.2	30.7	19.6	86.6	74.4
3.	Zunheboto	26.1	24.9	13.6	87.7	59.9
4.	Wokha	28.7	24.9	10.7	92.5	75.6
5.	Dimapur	74.5	61.8	48.5	95.4	87.4
6.	Phek	25.9	28.4	11.6	81.0	48.1
7.	Tuensang	18.3	16.2	5.2	74.0	48.0
8.	Longleng	20.2	19.3	11.2	76.0	46.5
9.	Kiphire	26.7	29.7	10.9	73.9	44.8
10.	Kohima	57.4	48.9	20.0	96.0	87.8
11.	Peren	25.1	26.4	16.4	50.4	38.5
Nagaland		36.0	29.4	14.9	89.2	72.5

Source: Primary Census, Abstract, Data Highlights, Nagaland Series 14

The total number of workers in 2011 census was 9, 74,122 in Nagaland, which was increased from 849982 in 2001, that shows an increase by 14.60%. Out of the total workers, 55.2% were cultivators, 6.5% agricultural labourers, 1.7% household workers and 36.0% were other workers in 2011. During the last decade the proportion of workers in agricultural sector was declined by 7.5%, yet Nagaland continues to be an agrarian economy as 61.7% are engaged in this sector. This is followed by service activities, which proportion was increased by 7% and the lowest proportion is household workers which showed a decline by 1.9% during 2001-2011.

Figure no.3.4: Sectoral Employment in Nagaland in 2011



Source: Primary Census, Abstract, Data Highlights, Nagaland Series 14

3.5 PROFILE OF SAMPLE AREA

3.5.1 General profile

MOKOKCHUNG DISTRICT:

It is one of the 11 (eleven) districts in Nagaland state, bounded by Assam state on the North, Tuensang and Longleng districts on the east, Zunheboto district on the south and Wokha district and Assam on the west. It lies between 25° 56' to 27° 40' north latitude and 93° 53' to 94° 53' east longitude. The district is sub divided into 8 (eight) Census Circles such as, Ongpangkong, Kubolong, Changtongya, Chuchuyimlang, Tuli, Alongkima, Longchem, and Mangkolemba. The district is comprised of 92 villages and 4 (four) towns^{149&150}. Mokokchung district occupies a total area of 1615 sq.km that accounts for 9.74% of State's geographical area. Mokokchung district has a total population of 193171, comprised of 100229 male and 92942 female.

A general description of population and infrastructure of the sample towns and villages in Mokokchung district is highlighted in this section of the chapter.

¹⁴⁹ GON (2008), Village Level Development Indicators, Directorate of Economics & Statistics, Nagaland: Kohima.

¹⁵⁰ Census of India, 2011, Primary Census Abstract Data Highlights, Nagaland Series 14.

Table 3.14(a): Town/Village Population & Institutions Profile, Mokokchung District

Sl no	Sample town/Village	Distance from H.Qs (in Kms.)	Total household	HH size	Population			Literacy (%)
					Total	Male	Female	
1.	Mokokchung town	152kms from Kohima	12328	4.5	55,725	29719	26006	93.6
2.	Ungma village	2 kms from Mokokchung	2315	4.3	9984	5176	4808	89
3.	Mokokchung village	2 Kms from Mokokchung	1315	4.1	5340	2695	2645	82
4	Khensa village	5Kms from Mokokchung	745	6.8	5082	2007	2110	84.50

Source: Provisional Population Totals, 2011, Nagaland series 14

Table 3.14(b): Institutions Profile, Mokokchung District

Sample town/Village	Institutions infrastructure		
	Banks	Health	School/college
Mokokchung Town	10	hospitals-2 SC-4	Colleges general-3, Professional colleges- 2, Nursing college-1, ITI-1, HSS-10, HS&below -26
Ungma village	-	SC-1	HSS-1, Schools-6
Mokokchung village	-	SC-1	Schools-3
Khensa village	-	SC-1	Schools-6

Source: Provisional Population Totals, 2011, Nagaland series 14

Mokokchung Town: Mokokchung Town, the headquarters of Mokokchung district is located 152 kms away from the State capital Kohima. According to 2011 census, it has a total population of 55725 comprised of 53.33% of male and 46.69% of female. The household size is 4.5 persons.

The town is linked by National Highway (NH) 61 with the state capital that passes through Wokha district. Telephone facilities and Post office are available. Other infrastructure in Mokokchung town are, 1 (one) District hospital, 1(one) TB Hospital and 4(four) Dispensaries/Sub centre that caters to the health care requirements of its citizens and also of other neighboring districts like Longleng, Zunheboto, and Tuensang. There are 8 (eight) Public sector banks, 1(one) Regional Business office of SBI and 1(one) State Co-operative Bank.

The educational institutions in the town are 1(one) Government B.Ed.College, 1(one) District Institute of Education and Training(DIET) college, 1(one) Government College, 2(two) Private Colleges, 1(one) Nursing College, 1(one) Industrial Training Institute (ITI)/Vocational Training Provider(VTP), 1(one) government and 6 (six) private Higher Secondary Schools, 20 (twenty) government schools and below, and 11 (eleven) private schools.

Profile of the three sample villages in Mokokchung district:

Ungma village: The village is 2 kms away from the district headquarters Mokokchung. As per the record of Village council Chairman (VCC) during 2011-2012, there were 2315 households with a total population of 9984, comprised of 51.84% male and 48.15% female. Average household size was 4.3 persons and sex ratio 929. The village literacy rate was 89%.

There were 4 (four) government primary schools, 1 (one) Government middle school, 1(one) higher secondary school and 1 (one) private school, with a total of 1112 students and 128 teachers. The village has 1(one) sub-health centre with 1 (one) Doctor, 1(one) compounder and 4 (four) nurses.

Mokokchung village: Mokokchung village is situated 2 kms away from Mokokchung town. As per the record of the village council chairman (VCC) during 2011-2012 there were 1315 households with a population of 5340, comprised of 50.47% male and 49.53% female, sex ratio being 981. The average household size was 4.1 persons and literacy rate of the village 82 per cent.

In respect of educational infrastructure Mokokchung village has 2 (two) government primary schools and 1(one) government high school with a total of 243 students and 41 teachers. For health care, there is 1 (one) sub-centre manned by 1(one) compounder, 1(one) nurse and other supporting staff.

Khensa village: Khensa village is 5(five) kms away from Mokokchung Town. According to the record of the village council chairman (VCC) in 2011-2012 the village has 745 households, with a population of 4117 comprising of 48.75% male and 51.25% female. The average household size of the village was 6.8 persons and sex ratio 1051. Literacy rate of the village was 84.50 per cent.

There were 4(four) government primary and 1(one) government middle school and 1(one) private school, with a total of 376 students and 46 teachers. The village had 1(one) sub-health centre with 1 (one) Doctor, 1(one) compounder and 2 (two) nurses.

All the three sample villages are well connected by pucca roads and means of transportation are local taxis and private vehicles. The villages are connected with telephone facility and the nearest Post office and Banks that the villagers can access is in Mokokchung Town. The villages get piped supply water for drinking, supplemented by village community wells and the electricity connectivity and households with proper toilet facility were 100 per cent.

Women in all the sample villages engage themselves in social and economic activities by registering themselves as members in women organizations. They participate in SHG's and church activities, besides participate in VDB. No specific programme for women being implemented by the villages

TUENSANG DISTRICT:

Tuensang is the easternmost of the eleven district of Nagaland, with a total geographical area of 4228 sq.km with a population of 196801, which comprised of 101977 male and 94824 female with a sex ratio of 930. Its density of population is 76 per sq. km. It has 16 administrative circles.

A general description of population and infrastructure of the sample towns and villages in Tuensang district is highlighted in this section of the chapter.

Table 3.15(a): Town/Village population profile, Tuensang district (2011-12)

Sample town/villages	Distance from Headquarters (in Kms)	No. of Households	Size of Households	Population Total	Male	Female	Literacy (%)
Tuensang Town	267 Kms from Kohima	6802	5.4	36774	19471	17303	73.7
Tuensang village	5 kms from Tuensang Town	1682	5.3	9029	3947	5082	36.1
Chare village	60 kms from Tuensang	453	9.1	4130	2008	2122	NA
Kuthur village	10 kms from Tuensang	590	8.5	5071	2536	2535	NA
Rural total		2725	6.6	18230	8491	9739	NA

Source: Provisional Population Totals, 2011, Nagaland series 14 and Household survey, 2011-12
NA: not available.

Table 3.15(b): Institutions profile, Tuensang district (2011-12)

Sample Town/villages	Institutions infrastructure		
	Banks	Health	School/college
Tuensang Town (urban)	2	Hospital-1, Dispensaries-3	Colleges-2, Professional college-1, Nursing college-1, HSS-1, HS&below-14, ITI-1
Tuensang village		SC-1	Schools-7
Chare village	-	SC-1	Schools-3
Kuthur village	-	SC-1	Schools-6

Source: Provisional Population Totals, 2011, Nagaland series 14 Household survey, 2011-12

Tuensang Town: Tuensang Town, the headquarters of Tuensang district is in the easternmost part of Nagaland, located 267 kms away from the state capital Kohima. It has a total population of 36774, comprised of 52.95% male and 47.05% female. The household size was 5.4 persons.

Tuensang town is connected through NH no. 61(Kma-Mkg: 152 kms) and NH no.155 (Mkg-Tsg: 115 kms). Post office and telephone facilities are available. There were only two banks viz, State Bank of India and State co-operative bank. For health care services, the district has 1(one) District Hospital, 3(three) Dispensaries, and 1(one) Nursing college.

Educational institutions in the town are 2 colleges (1-Government college and 1-Private college), 1(one) DIET college, and 1(one) ITI, 1(one) Government higher secondary school, 8(eight) Government and 6(six) private schools. The proportion of household with electricity connectivity was 94 per cent, safe drinking water supply was 82 per cent and sanitation was 85 per cent during the time of survey.

Profile of the three sample villages of the Tuensang district:

Tuensang village: Tuensang village is 5 kms away from its district headquarters Tuensang town. Tuensang village is the oldest and largest village in eastern Nagaland. As per the record of the village council chairman (VCC), the village had a total population of 9027 consisting of 43.72% male and 56.29% female. The average household size in the village was 5.9 persons and sex ratio 798. The literacy rate of the village was 36.1 per cent.

The educational institutions in the village are, 4(four) Government primary schools, 1(one) Government middle school and 2(two) private schools. The total enrolment in government schools was 680 and 18 teachers, while private schools had 390 students and 26 teachers.

Chare village: Chare village is 60 kms away from the district headquarters Tuensang. According to the record of village council chairman (VCC), the village has a total population of 4130 consisting of 48.61% male and 51.38% female, the average household size was 4.2 persons during the time of survey (2011-12) and sex ratio was 1000. The village literacy rate stood at 91 per cent.

The village had the following educational institutions 2(two) Government primary schools and 1(one) Government middle school with a total enrolment of 163 and 23 teachers.

Kuthur village: Kuthur is 10 kms from Tuensang town, the district headquarters. As per the record of the village council chairman (VCC) the village had a total population of 5071 comprised of 50% male and 49.99% female with an average household size of 5.3 persons. The sex ratio of the village was 899. Literacy rate of the village as per their record was 60 per cent.

The educational institutions in the village were, 3(three) Government primary schools, 1(one) government middle school, 1(one) government high school, and 1(one) private school, with a total of 584 students and 44 teachers.

In all the villages the road connectivity to the villages was pucca and means of public transport was taxis and also bus for Kuthur. For health care services, each village had a sub-health centre with compounder and nurses, but doctor was available only at Kuthur. Households are well connected with electricity and have access to telephone facilities but there are no post office and Bank in the villages and the nearest place for these facilities is at Tuensang town only. Safe drinking water is available in the villages by means of public water supply and community well.

The villages have not implemented women specific programs so far; however, women in the villages participate in VDB, various women organizations, church activities and SHGs.

3.5.2 DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE OF SAMPLE HOUSEHOLDS

(i) Sample Households and Population:

The sample survey conducted during 2011-12 covers a total household of 503, comprised of 200 from urban area (Mokokchung-100 and Tuensang-100) and 303 from rural area (Mokokchung -150 and Tuensang-153). The total population in sample aggregate was 2261 comprised of 46.83% in Mokokchung, 53.16% in Tuensang district.

Urban area:

In urban area, total sample population was 854, comprised of 37.77% of sample aggregate, out of which, Mokokchung and Tuensang constituted 51.17% and 48.82% respectively. Male comprised of 48.71% and female 51.28% with sex ratio of 1053.

Table 3.16: Sample households and population in urban area

District	Sample Town	No. of Households	Households Size	Population Total	Male	Female	Sex ratio
Mokokchung	Mokokchung Town	100	4.3	437 (51.17)	206	231	1121
Tuensang	Tuensang Town	100	4.1	417 (48.82)	210	207	986
Total		200	4.2	854 (37.77)	416 (48.71)	438 (51.28)	1053

Source: Sample Survey, 2011-12

Town: A total of 100 sample households were studied with a population of 417 comprised Mokokchung Town: A total of 100 sample households were taken with a population of 437 out of which 47.14% were male and 52.86% were female. The average household size in the sample town was 4.3 persons, and sex ratio 1121.

Tuensang of 50.36% male and 49.64% female. The average household size was 4.1 persons and sex ratio 986.

Rural Area

In rural area, total sample population was 1407, comprised of 62.23% of sample aggregate, out of which, Mokokchung and Tuensang constituted 44.21% and 55.79% respectively. Male comprised of 51.39% and female 48.61% with sex ratio of 946.

Table 3.17: Profile of Sample households and population in rural area

District	Sample villages	No. of households	size of households	Male	Female	Population Total	Sex ratio
Mokokchung	(i) Ungma	50	3.9	92	105	197	1141
	(ii)Mokokchung	50	4.3	113	106	219	938
	(iii) Khensa	50	4.1	102	104	206	1020
Sub-total		150	4.1	307	315	622	1026
Tuensang	(i)Tuensang	50	5.9	163	130	293	798
	(ii) Chare	54	4.2	114	114	228	1000
	(iii) Kuthur	49	5.3	139	125	264	899
Sub-total		153	5.1	416	369	785	887
Total rural		303	4.6	723	684	1407	946

Source: Sample survey 2011-12

Mokokchung District:

Total rural sample household was 150, with a population of 622 (comprised of 49.36% male and 50.64% of female), with a sex ratio of 1026. Household size is 4.1.

The **three sample villages of Mokokchung** district are Ungma , Mokokchung, and Khensa villages with 50 sample households each, covering population of 197, 219 and 206 respectively (comprised of 46.70 % male and 53.30 % female in Ungma, 51.60 % of male and 48.40 % female in Mokokchung and 49.51% of male and 50.49% female in Khensa. Average household size was 3.9, 4.3 and 4.1 persons respectively with sex ratio of 1141, 938 and 1020 respectively.

Tuensang District:

Total rural sample household was 153, with a population of 785 (comprised of 52.99% male and 47.01% of female), with a sex ratio of 887. Household size is 5.1.

The **three sample villages of Tuensang** district are Tuensang, Chare and Kuthur, from each of the village the sample households taken was 50, 54 and 49 respectively, with a population of 293, 228 and 264 respectively (comprised of 55.63 % male and 44.37 % female in Tuensang, 50% each in Chare and 52.65% of male and 47.35% of female in Kuthur) . The average household size was 5.9 persons, 4.2 and 5.3 persons respectively. The corresponding sex ratios were 798, 1000 and 899 respectively.

(ii) Age composition and sex ratio of sample population:

The sample population has been divided into five different age groups, such as 0-14-children, 15-24 as junior youth, 25-34 as senior youth, 35-59 as adults and 60 years and above as senior citizens.

The total sample population is comprised mostly of adults (35-59 years) with 34.45%. Next follows junior youth (15-24 years), which shared a proportion of 30.16%, followed by senior youth (25-34 years) with 15.48%. However, when compared these two age cohorts, the total youth population accounted for 45.64%. Children and older/senior population shares are relatively smaller in the sample. In both urban and rural areas similar proportions are shown in table no.3.18.

Table 3.18: Age composition and sex ratio of sample population:

Area	0-14		15-24		25-34		35-59		60 and above		Total	
	%	SR	%	SR	%	SR	%	SR	%	SR	%	SR
Urban	19.79	988	24.36	891	16.63	1088	35.71	1364	3.51	250	100	1053
Rural	12.79	1000	33.69	874	14.78	1059	33.69	1000	5.05	732	100	1361
Total	15.44	994	30.16	879	15.48	1071	34.45	1128	4.47	554	100	1248

Source: Field survey 2011-12

The **sex ratio** is 1248 for the sample aggregate. Among the different age groups in sample aggregate, it was highest for the age group of 35-59 years with 1128. While the lowest sex ratio was found in the age group of 60 years and above with 554. The data reveals that the ratio is higher in rural area than in urban area in total sample population. However, in individual age cohort, it was higher in urban area within the age 15-24 through 35-59 and lower for 0-14 and 60 and above as compared to rural area.

Urban: The sex ratio in the urban area was 1053 in sample data, which was higher than that of 2011 census with 905. Among the sample towns, it was higher in Mokokchung with 1121 than

986 for Tuensang. Among different age groups, it ranges from 1750 for 35-59 years to 250 for 60 years and above.

Rural: As per sample data the sex ratio in rural area was 1361 as compared to 942 of the 2011 census. It was higher in Tuensang with 1608 than in Mokokchung with 1026. In the sample villages highest and lowest was Ungma and Tuensang village with 1141 and 798 respectively.

Among the age-groups, the highest sex ratio was for the age-group of 25-34 years with 1059 and the lowest was of 60 and above years with 732. Tuensang district was higher with 1608 than Mokokchung at 1026.

3.5.3 EDUCATIONAL PROFILE OF SAMPLE POPULATION:

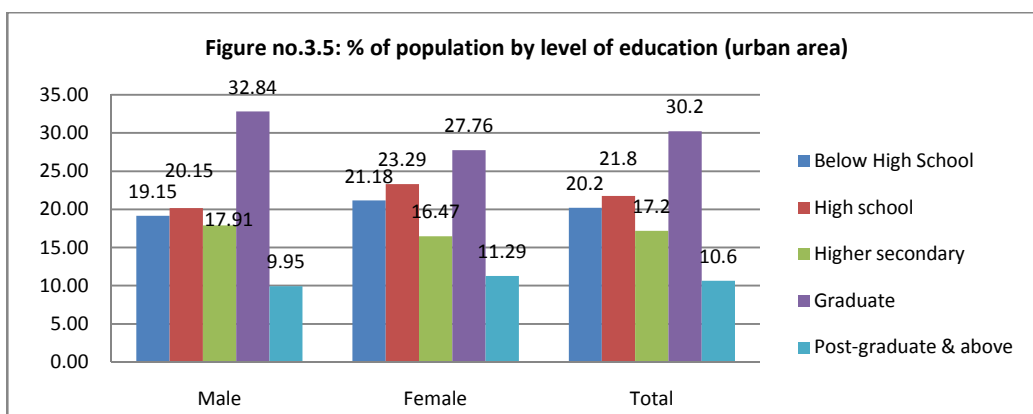
The population in the sample is classified by their levels of education into five categories such as below high school, high school, higher secondary, graduate, and post-graduate and above.

(i) Urban area

Proportions by levels of education (gender wise):

Out of total sample population (827) in urban area, 250 were graduates, which accounted the highest proportion of 30%, followed by high school with 21.8% and below high school with 20.2%, and higher secondary with 17.2%. The lowest was Post graduates & above with 10.6%. The gender segregated data also show that graduates constituted the largest proportions for both male and female sample population, however, the proportion among male 32.84% is higher than that of female (27.76%), followed by High school where the proportion among female (23.29%) is higher than that of male (20.15%) and higher secondary (male proportion is higher). The fourth is below high school where the proportion is comparatively higher with female. The lowest is post graduate for both, but female proportion continues to show larger proportion (11%) than that of male (9.95%).

Majority of the sample population were of graduates, while the lowest was of post graduate degree for both the sexes. Except for graduate and higher secondary, the female proportions are higher than that of male.



Source: Sample Survey, 2011-12

Table 3.19: Sex wise % distribution of population by level of education (urban area).

Area	Sex	Below high school	High school	Higher secondary	Graduate	Post-graduate & above	Total
Sample Total	Male	19.15	20.15	17.91	32.84	9.95	100
	Female	21.18	23.29	16.47	27.76	11.29	100
	Total	20.2	21.8	17.2	30.2	10.6	100
Mokokchung	Male	13.86	20.79	16.83	36.63	11.88	100
	Female	19.73	17.94	18.83	28.25	15.25	100
	Total	16.94	19.29	17.88	32.24	13.65	100
Tuensang	Male	24.5	19.5	19	29	8.00	100
	Female	22.77	29.21	13.86	27.23	6.93	100
	Total	23.63	24.38	16.42	28.11	7.46	100

Source: Sample Survey, 2011-12

Similarly, in both the sample districts, graduates constituted the highest proportion of population. However, it is higher in Mokokchung (32%) than in Tuensang (28%). Further, the second highest is high school in both the districts, but Tuensang shows a relatively higher proportion than Mokokchung. Interestingly, at lower levels of education (below high school and high school) Tuensang exhibited higher proportion, while at higher levels (higher secondary, graduates and post graduates & above) Mokokchung exhibited higher proportions.

The gender segregated data in both the sample districts indicated that graduates comprised of larger proportions of population among male as well as female. But the proportions are higher among male in both the sample districts. The lowest is in post graduate & above level amongst both the gender in the entire sample districts. However, the proportion among female is higher than that of male in Mokokchung; whereas, in Tuensang it is higher among male.

In Tuensang, only at high school level the female proportion is relatively higher as compared to that of male. In contrast, in Mokokchung, the female proportion is relatively

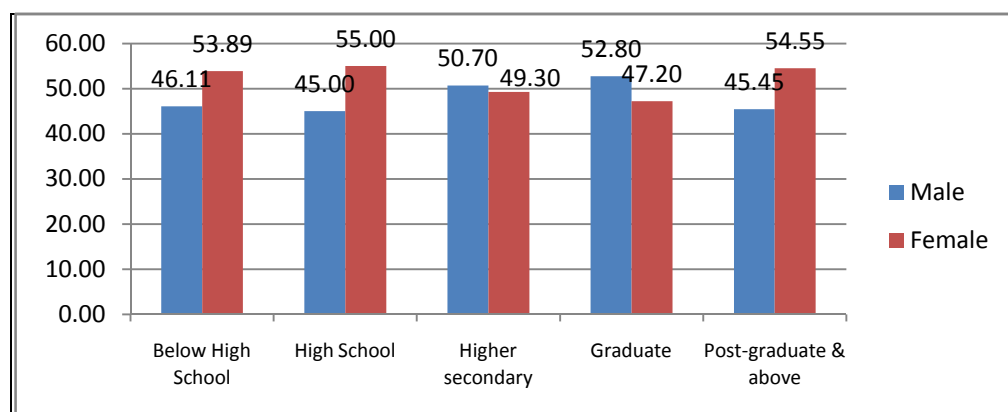
higher at below high school, higher secondary and post graduate & above as compared to that of male.

The urban data reveals that majority of the sample population were graduates, nevertheless the female proportion was lower than that of male (with 28% for female as against 32% for male). For relatively more developed district as Mokokchung has shown a similar distribution (37% male and 28% female). On the other hand, in Tuensang, which is one of the least developed districts, majority of the sample male population were graduate (29%), but for female it was high school level (29%).

Gender Composition by Levels of Education:

The urban sample population with Graduate degree was comprised of 54% of male and 46% of female. This is followed by High school with 45% of male and 55% of female, and the Post Graduate and above with 54.55% of female and 45.45% of male. The composition of gender among the levels of education shows that female is more than the male at Post Graduate and above, High School and Below High School, while at Graduate and Higher Secondary levels male is more than female.

Figure no.3.6: Composition of gender by levels of education (in %)-Urban



Source: Field Survey, 2011-12

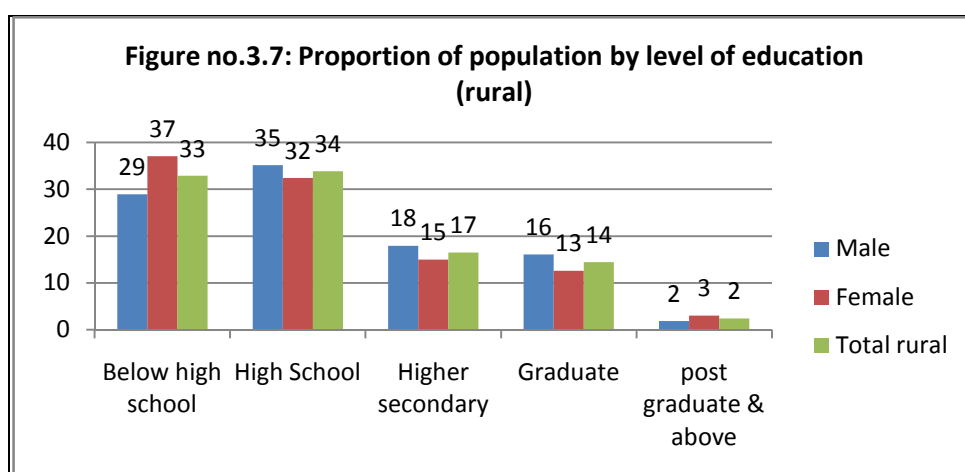
A similar scenario is revealed by Mokokchung urban sample population. In Mokokchung, the female percentage is highest in below high school (61.11%) followed by post graduate and above (58.62) and higher secondary (55.26%), which percentages are higher than that of males'. In other levels, male share higher magnitude with 54% in graduate and 51.21 percent in High school. Conversely in Tuensang, the female ratio is higher than that of male only in High school with 60.20%. In other levels of education, male share is higher as indicated in annexure 3.15.

(i) Rural area:

Gender Composition by Levels of Education:

Out of total rural population of 1375 in the sample, majority of them (465) were with high school level of education (33.82%), followed by below high school (32.87%). This implies that more than 66% of the population in the rural area were of High School and below level of education. Only 2.40% and 14.40% were with post graduate and graduate levels respectively.

By gender concerns, among rural female population, 69% were with High School and below levels of education and at the same level was 64% for male. On the other hand 3% of female population were with post graduate while for male, it was only 2%.



Source: Field Survey, 2011-12

Table 3.20: Educational profile (in percentage) of sample population-RURAL.

District/area	Sex	Below high school	High school	Higher secondary	Graduate	Post-graduate & above	Total
Mokokchung	M	18.58	30.07	22.30	24.66	4.39	100
	F	23.68	28.62	20.07	21.38	6.25	100
	T	21.17	29.33	21.17	23.00	5.33	100
Tuensang	M	36.41	38.83	14.81	9.95	0.00	100
	F	48.21	35.54	10.74	5.23	0.28	100
	T	41.94	37.29	12.90	7.74	0.13	100
Rural Total	M	28.95	35.17	17.94	16.10	1.84	100
	F	37.03	32.38	14.99	12.59	3.00	100
	T	32.87	33.82	16.51	14.40	2.40	100

Source: Field Survey, 2011-12

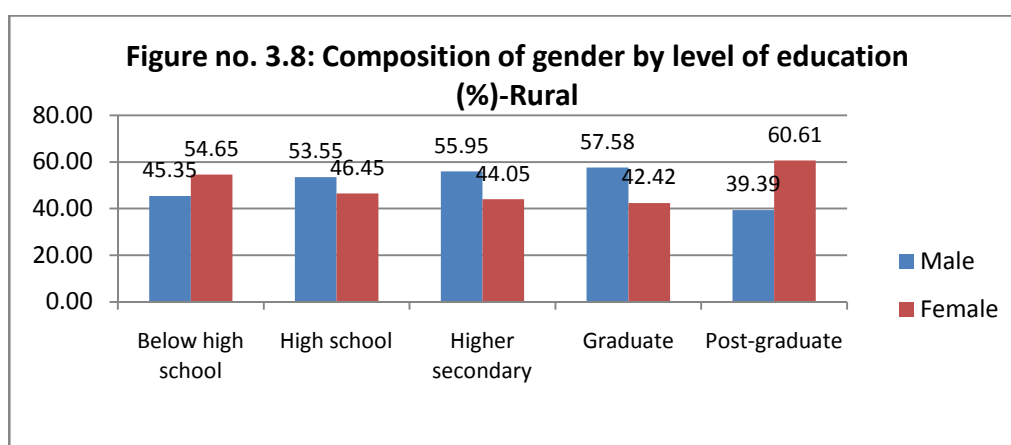
A perusal of table no. 3.20, it is revealed that among the total sample population, the proportion of post graduate and above is smaller, which is lower in Tuensang (0.13%) than

Mokokchung (5%). Moreover, the proportions for varying levels of education are more or less equally dispersed in Mokokchung, in total as well as gender concerns (both male and female). On the other hand, in Tuensang, which is one of the relatively least developed districts in the state, more than two third of the population were with only high school and below level of education. Which is same for gender segregated data (male is 75% and female is 83%).

In rural area, majority of the population were at high school level with 35% for male and 32% for female. Similarly, Mokokchung has 30 % of male and 29% of female were with high school level of education. It was same for male (39%) in Tuensang, but majority of female were with below high school level of education (48%).

Composition of Gender by Levels of Education:

Majority of rural sample populations were with high school education, which comprised of 54% of male and 46% of female. The lowest proportion was of post graduate and above, which comprised of 61% of female and 39% of male.



Source: Field Survey, 2011-12

The composition of gender in all the levels of education, the female proportion is higher only at Post Graduate and above and Below High School levels, while male proportion was higher at Graduate and Higher Secondary and high school levels.

STATUS OF EDUCATION

Educational profile of the two sample districts was also examined under three categories, such as, who are (i) Currently attending (ii) Attended (iii) Never attended.

(a) Currently attending :

Of the total sample population, 874 were currently attending schools and colleges that accounts for nearly 40% of its total, of which, the proportion of male (54%) is higher than that of female (46%). On the other hand, 1326 persons had already attended education and currently either working or seeking job that accounted for 60% (comprised of 48% male and 52% female). Further, only 0.5% has never attended school which is negligible, among those the proportion of male (44%) was found to be lower than female (56%).

In rural and urban areas, the proportion of sample population who had attended education but not currently attending was 60% each. However, the proportion of male (46%) is lower than female (54%) in urban area, but in rural area it was 50% each. The proportion of currently attending education was found to be marginally higher in urban (40%) than in rural area (39%). Under this category, in both the areas male proportion (52%- urban and 54%-rural) was higher than the female (48% urban and 46% rural). The proportion of population who had never attended education was negligible in both the areas, of which in urban area all were male, while in rural area male accounted for 29% and 71% female (Annexure no.3.16 and 3.17).

Total urban currently attending different levels of education at the time of survey was 327(40% of the total sample population), where the percentage of male (52%) was higher than that of female (48%). Mokokchung (38%) and Tuensang had (42%) of currently attending education. Also it is observed that, in Mokokchung female attendance was highest in below high school with 44.44% and lowest in high school with 6.17%. Female proportion was higher than male in levels of below high school, higher secondary and post graduate. In Tuensang highest and lowest female were in below high school and post graduate levels with 44.16% and 1.30% respectively. Female proportion higher than male was found only in below high school and graduate level.

Total rural currently attending was 547 (39% of total population) consisting of 54% male higher than that of female at 46%. In rural area, currently attending education consists of 29% and 48% in Mokokchung and Tuensang respectively. In Mokokchung female currently attending was higher than male in all levels except graduates where male percentage was higher. The proportion of female was highest in below high school level with 32.58% and lowest in post graduate level with 7.05%. Similarly, Tuensang also show highest number of female in below high school level with 42.86% which was higher than male and lowest was in the post graduate level with 0.62 and male percentage was nil at that level.

In rural area currently attending was very high in the lower levels, but the number goes on diminishing at the higher levels only few get to the top. The picture of rural area is a matter of concern.

Table 3.21: Currently attending different levels of education in 2011-12 (in %)

Districts	Sex	Level of education					Total
		1	2	3	4	5	
Mokokchung Town	M	32.5	22.5	12.5	31.25	1.25	100
	F	44.44	6.17	16.05	20.99	12.35	100
	T	38.51	14.29	14.29	26.09	6.83	100
Tuensang Town	M	42.86	19.78	10.99	20.88	5.49	100
	F	44.16	19.48	10.39	24.68	1.30	100
	T	43.45	19.64	10.71	22.62	3.57	100
Urban Total	M	38.01	21.05	11.70	25.73	3.51	100
	F	44.87	12.82	13.46	21.79	7.05	100
	T	41.28	17.13	12.54	23.85	5.20	100
Rural Mokokchung	M	32.14	16.67	15.48	29.76	5.95	100
	F	32.58	17.98	17.98	23.60	7.87	100
	T	32.37	17.34	16.76	26.59	6.94	100
Rural Tuensang	M	35.68	37.09	16.90	10.33	0.00	100
	F	42.86	33.54	19.25	3.73	0.62	100
	T	38.77	35.56	17.91	7.49	0.27	100
Rural Total	M	34.68	31.31	16.50	15.82	1.68	100
	F	39.20	28.00	18.80	10.80	3.20	100
	T	36.75	29.80	17.55	13.53	2.38	100
Nagaland (Total)	M	35.90	27.56	14.74	19.44	2.35	100
	F	41.38	22.17	16.75	15.02	4.68	100
	T	38.44	25.06	15.68	17.39	3.43	100

Source: Sample Survey, 2011-12.

Note: 1= Below high school, 2= High school, 3=Higher Secondary, 4=Graduate and 5=Post graduate and above; (figures in the parenthesis represent percentage).

(b) Attended:

The total number of Urban attended was 498, out of the total 46% were male and 54% female, which accounts for 60%. In Mokokchung the proportion of female graduates was highest with 32.39% which was lower than male and lowest was in below high school level with 5.63%. Mokokchung exhibited that majority of female attended only up to secondary level where the percentage was higher than male and from graduation level onwards the number declined and was lower than male. In Tuensang the proportion of female was highest in high school with 35.20% which was higher than male, and the lowest was 9.60% in below high school level where the percentage was seen to be higher than male. Similar picture was

seen in Tuensang at lower levels where female proportion was higher and in post graduate level the female percentage was marginally higher than male.

Table 3.22: Attended different levels of Education in 2011-12 (Urban)

District	sex	Attended %					
		1	2	3	4	5	Total
Mokokchung Town	M	1.64	19.67	19.67	40.16	18.85	100
	F	5.63	24.65	20.42	32.39	16.90	100
	T	3.79	22.35	20.08	35.98	17.80	100
Tuensang Town	M	9.17	19.27	25.69	35.78	10.09	100
	F	9.60	35.20	16.00	28.80	10.40	100
	T	9.40	27.78	20.51	32.05	10.26	100
Total Urban	M	5.19	19.48	22.51	38.10	14.72	100
	F	7.49	29.59	18.35	30.71	13.86	100
	T	6.43	24.90	20.28	34.14	14.26	100
Nagaland	M	17.76	31.31	20.25	24.14	6.54	100
	F	24.71	32.89	14.91	20.32	7.16	100
	T	21.34	32.13	17.50	22.17	6.86	100

Source: Sample Survey, 2011-12

In rural area the total number of attended in different levels of education was 838, comprised of 51.57% from Mokokchung and 48.42% from Tuensang. Mokokchung had a total sample of 427(49.65% male and 50.35% female) and Tuensang 401(49.63% male and 50.37% female). Out of the total from Mokokchung female attended was highest in high school level 30.02%, which was lower than male and lowest in the category was in post graduate level with 5.58%. As for Tuensang, highest was in below high school level which was 52.48% higher than male percentage and lowest was found in higher secondary level with 3.96% lower than that of male. The data also revealed that in Mokokchung female attended different levels of education was higher than male only in the lower strata of education and higher than male in post graduate level. Conversely in Tuensang female attended was higher than male only in below high school level and in higher levels male percentage was higher. This is an indication of female not being able to pursue education further to the top except for few privileged ones.

Table 3.23: Attended different levels of Education in 2011-12 (rural)

Villages	Sex	Attended					Total
		1	2	3	4	5	
Ungma village	M	4.76	41.27	33.33	19.05	1.59	100
	F	5.97	41.79	20.90	25.37	5.97	100
	T	5.38	41.54	26.92	22.31	3.85	100
Mokokchung village	M	14.63	31.71	18.29	29.27	6.10	100
	F	25.64	26.92	14.10	24.36	8.97	100
	T	20.00	29.38	16.25	26.88	7.50	100
Khensa village	M	19.40	34.33	25.37	17.91	2.99	100
	F	27.14	31.43	28.57	11.43	1.43	100
	T	23.36	32.85	27.01	14.60	2.19	100
Mokokchung district Total	M	13.21	35.38	25.00	22.64	3.77	100
	F	20.00	33.02	20.93	20.47	5.58	100
	T	16.63	34.19	22.95	21.55	4.68	100
Tuensang village	M	37.70	40.98	11.48	9.84	0.00	100
	F	60.66	29.51	4.92	4.92	0.00	100
	T	49.18	35.25	8.20	7.38	0.00	100
Chare village	M	34.21	35.53	13.16	17.11	0.00	100
	F	51.95	31.17	3.90	12.99	0.00	100
	T	43.14	33.33	8.50	15.03	0.00	100
Kuthur village	M	40.32	46.77	12.90	0.00	0.00	100
	F	45.31	51.56	3.13	0.00	0.00	100
	T	42.86	49.21	7.94	0.00	0.00	100
Tuensang district Total	M	37.19	40.70	12.56	9.55	0.00	100
	F	52.48	37.13	3.96	6.44	0.00	100
	T	44.89	38.90	8.23	7.98	0.00	100
Rural total	M	24.82	37.96	18.98	16.55	1.95	100
	F	35.73	35.01	12.71	13.67	2.88	100
	T	30.31	36.47	15.82	14.98	2.42	100

Source: Sample Survey, 2011-12.

Note: 1= Below high school, 2= High school, 3=Higher Secondary, 4=Graduate and 5=Post graduate and above; (figures in the parenthesis represent percentage)

(c) Never Attended:

Persons who did not have formal schooling are included in 'never attended' category. Sample study showed that 0.4% of the sample population had never attended formal schooling, which comprises of 0.3% male and 0.4% female. The figures showed that women percentage of never attended category was more which also indicate that women are placed in the disadvantaged group.

In urban area never attended formal schooling was 0.2% in sample aggregate, Tuensang town had 0.4% and Mokokchung was nil. Rural data showed 0.5% in aggregate, three of the six villages had persons who had never attended formal schooling. Ungma village had 0.5%, Mokokchung village had 0.9%, and Chare village 1.7%.

From the total sample population attended but currently not attending education were 1326 which accounted for 58.65 % of its total. Out of which, 48% were male whose percentage is lower than that of female at 52%.

3.5.4: DISTRIBUTION OF ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE POPULATION

Table 3.24: Distribution of economically active population in the sample area (in %)

District	Area	Employed person			Dependant population		
		M	F	T	M	F	T
Mokokchung	Rural	54.95	45.05	58.48	44.68	55.32	58.96
	Urban	47.12	52.88	41.52	47.16	52.84	41.04
	Total	51.70	48.30	100.00	45.70	54.30	100.00
Tuensang	Rural	50.68	49.32	66.22	54.38	45.62	64.78
	Urban	43.33	56.67	33.78	54.31	45.69	35.22
	Total	48.20	51.80	100.00	54.35	45.65	100.00
Sample total	Rural	52.81	47.19	62.12	50.49	49.51	62.31
	Urban	45.53	54.47	37.88	51.01	48.99	37.69
	Total	50.05	49.95	100.00	50.68	49.32	100.00

Source: Sample Survey, 2011-12

To arrive at a conclusion of distribution of economically active population total employed persons from the sample were taken out to show the dependent population in the sample area. Dependent population includes those attending education, minor, illiterate and unemployed persons. In total sample 945 (41.80%) are employed and 1316 (58.20%) were dependant population. In Mokokchung district a total of 501 (51.50% male and 48.50% female) were employed. The dependent population comprised of 558 (45.70% male and 54.30% female) respectively. In Tuensang district employed persons consists of 444 (48.20% male and 51.80% female) and dependent population consisted of 758 (54.35% male and 45.65% female).

By area concern, economically active population in rural area was 62.12% and in urban it was 37.88%. The percentage of rural workers by gender show more active male participation with 52.64%, and female participation was only 47.36%. Whereas, in urban area there was more female participation with 54.47% and male active population consists of only 45.53%, and in total also there were more women who are economically active with (49.95% male and 50.05% female) respectively.

ANNEXURE

Annexure 3.1: Birth rate and Death rate in Nagaland

Year	Birth Rate			Death Rate		
	T	M	F	T	M	F
2008	49133	27262	21871	7347	4198	3149
2009	42679	22667	20012	6465	3706	2759
2010	45269	24192	21077	6836	3762	3074
	Birth Rate (%)			Death Rate (%)		
	T	M	F	T	M	F
2008	19.87	(55.49)	(44.51)	1.72	(57.14)	(42.86)
2009	21.78	(53.11)	(46.89)	1.66	(57.32)	(42.68)
2010	16.21	(53.44)	(46.56)	1.68	(55.03)	(44.97)

Source: Statistical Handbook of Nagaland 2011 and 2012. and Nagaland HDR, 2004.

Annexure 3.2: School Enrolment in Nagaland

Sl no	Levels of Education	2007-08			2012-13		
		Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
1	Higher secondary	39473	35542	75015	15205	13663	28868
2	Secondary	84139	76213	160352	26742	26508	53250
3	Upper primary	45292	43460	88752	63774	62861	126635
4	Primary	80708	74905	155613	178547	175299	353846
Nagaland		24961	230120	479732	284268	278331	562599
		2					

Source: Statistical handbook of Nagaland 2006 & 2009

Annexure 3.3: District wise enrolment of Govt. and Private schools in 2012-13

Sl no	Districts	Primary			Upper primary		
		Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1	Mon	18285	18853	37138	5318	5349	10667
2	Tuensang	18603	18525	37128	4940	5068	10008
3	Mokok.	16792	15861	32653	8155	8131	16286
4	Zunh.	13564	13282	26846	4317	4294	8611
5	Wokha	10745	11655	22400	3977	4133	8110
6	Dimapur	46793	44244	91037	16547	15878	32425
7	Kohima	17615	17635	35250	7272	7230	14502
8	Phek	12685	12012	24697	4580	4471	9051
9	Longleng	7043	7044	14087	2103	2156	4259
10	Kiphire	8019	7858	15877	2947	2804	5751
11	Peren	8403	8330	16733	3618	3347	6965
Nagaland		178547	175299	353846	63774	62861	126635

Source: UDISE data 2012-13, Directorate of School Education.

Annexure 3.3: District wise enrolment of Govt. and Private schools in 2012-13 (cont.)

Sl no	Districts	Secondary			Higher secondary		
		Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
		9	10	11	12	13	14
1	Mon	2367	2243	4610	817	625	1442
2	Tuensang	2012	1972	3984	504	436	940
3	Mokok.	1885	2048	3933	878	923	1801
4	Zunh.	1831	1931	3762	456	481	937
5	Wokha	1499	1487	2986	489	617	1106
6	Dimapur	8050	8020	16070	6470	5755	12225
7	Kohima	4402	4353	8755	4258	3616	7874
8	Phek	2015	1969	3984	546	560	1096
9	Longleng	604	730	1334	176	164	340
10	Kiphire	941	861	1802	180	153	333
11	Peren	1136	894	2030	431	343	774
	Nagaland	26742	26508	53250	15205	13663	28868

Source: UDISE data 2012-13, Directorate of School Education.

Annexure 3.4: Distribution of teachers in Govt. and Pvt. Schools in the State (2012-13).

Sl.no	Districts	Male Teachers	Female Teachers	Total	Primary Teachers	Upper Primary Teachers	secondary Teachers	Higher secondary Teachers
1	Mon	1350	679	2029	1220	680	104	25
2	Tuensang	1291	715	2006	1195	644	139	28
3	Mokokchung	1436	1718	3154	1756	1081	221	96
4	Zunheboto	1270	1040	2310	1437	804	66	3
5	Wokha	917	560	1447	857	563	33	20
6	Dimapur	2343	3442	5785	3127	2195	361	102
7	Kohima	1547	2243	3790	1717	1236	489	345
8	Phek	1094	541	1635	978	603	47	7
9	Longleng	640	356	996	667	293	27	9
10	Kiphire	553	218	771	405	347	19	0
11	Peren	664	481	1145	592	383	127	43
	Nagaland	13105	11993	25098	13951	8829	1633	673

Source: UDISE data 2012-13, Directorate of School Education.

Annexure 3.5: Number of students in higher and professional education in Nagaland

Sl.no	Types of institution	2006-07			2007-08			2008-09		
		Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	total
1	University	NA	NA		237	202	439	212	260	472
2	College of general education	12037	7692	19729	11818	10157	21975	12999	11800	24799
3	Professional education (i) teacher edu.	105	151	256	86	173	259	70	159	229
	(ii) Agri. college	NA	NA	NA	194	131	325	183	122	305
4	Theology	820	761	1581	690	739	1429	1256	1326	2582
5	Law college	149	77	226	306	143	449	233	119	352
	Total	13111	8681	21792	13094	11545	24876	14953	13786	28739

Source: Statistical handbook of Nagaland, 2011

Annexure 3.6: Number of students undergoing technical courses (Nagaland)

YEAR	Medical & Allied courses			Engineering courses		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
2008-09	82	29	111	151	34	185
2009-10	69	60	129	130	33	163
2010-11	63	56	119	162	46	191
2011-12	59	68	127	149	42	191
2012-13	79	68	147	145	64	209

Source – Directorate of IT &TE, Government of Nagaland

Annexure 3.7: Sectoral Employment in Nagaland in 2001

Sectors	Rural			Urban			Nagaland		
	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F
Cultivators	537861	268540	269321	6572	3068	3504	544433	271608	272825
Agricultural Labourers	32842	17673	15169	1010	468	542	33852	18141	15711
H/H Industry Workers	14702	4923	9779	2370	1606	1764	18072	6529	11543
Other Workers	151981	107504	44477	101644	83985	17659	253625	191489	62136
Total	737386	398640	338746	111596	89127	23469	849982	487767	362215

Source: Census of India 2001-Provisional Population Totals, Paper-3 of 2001, Nagaland Series-13, 2001

Annexure 3.8: Sectoral Employment in Nagaland in 2011

Sectors	Rural			Urban			Nagaland		
	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F
Cultivators	516783	250559	266224	20919	8895	12024	537702	259454	278248
Agril. Lab.	55677	28133	27544	7285	3724	3561	62962	31857	31105
H/H Industry workers	16259	6662	9597	6579	2821	3758	22838	9483	13355
Other workers	171641	118558	53083	178979	128005	50974	350620	46563	104057
Total	760360	403912	356448	213762	143445	70317	974122	547357	426765

Source: Census Abstract, Data Highlights, Nagaland Series 14, 2011

Annexure 3.9: District wise Sectoral Employment in Nagaland in 2001

Districts	Cultivators								
	Rural			Urban			Total		
	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F
1.Mon	107372	56710	50662	640	403	437	108212	57113	51099
2.Mokokchung	65090	32438	32652	276	109	167	65366	32547	32819
3.Zunheboto	26943	14719	12224	716	261	455	27659	14980	12679
4.Wokha	36099	16216	19883	528	277	251	36627	16493	20134
5 Dimapur	28655	17451	11204	339	238	101	28994	17689	11305
6.Phek	49659	22084	27575	2435	996	1439	52094	23080	29014
7.Tuensang	151163	75643	75520	1161	684	477	152324	76327	75997
8.Longleng	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
9.Kiphire	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
10.Kohima	72880	33279	39601	277	100	177	73157	33379	39778
11.Peren	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Nagaland	637861	268540	269321	6572	3068	3504	544433	271608	272825
Districts	Agricultural Labour								
1.Mon	5840	3424	2414	67	32	35	5907	3458	2449
2.Mokokchung	6822	3061	3761	70	48	22	6892	3109	3783
3.Zunheboto	1542	583	959	182	29	153	1724	612	1112
4.Wokha	499	241	258	169	77	92	668	318	350
5 Dimapur	4481	2799	1682	199	124	75	4680	2923	1757
6.Phek	1277	707	570	84	33	51	1361	740	621
7.Tuensang	6219	3228	2991	114	71	43	6333	3299	3034
8.Longleng	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
9.Kiphire	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
10.Kohima	6162	3628	2534	125	54	71	6287	3682	2605
11.Peren	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Nagaland	32842	17673	15169	1010	468	542	33852	18141	15711
Districts	Household Industry Workers								
1.Mon	940	363	587	581	381	200	1521	734	787
2.Mokokchung	3525	1599	1926	531	186	345	4056	1785	2271
3.Zunheboto	563	171	392	213	90	123	776	261	515
4.Wokha	993	315	678	442	172	270	1435	487	948
5 Dimapur	2148	498	1650	628	415	213	2776	913	1883
6.Phek	1282	437	845	160	41	119	1442	478	964
7.Tuensang	1461	581	880	101	49	52	1582	630	932
8.Longleng	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
9.Kiphire	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
10.Kohima	3790	969	2821	714	272	442	4504	1241	3263
11.Peren	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Nagaland	14702	4923	9779	3370	1606	1764	18072	6529	11543
Districts	Other Workers								
1.Mon	10130	8237	1893	3145	2496	649	13275	10733	2542
2.Mokokchung	22390	15376	7014	10075	7795	2280	32465	23171	9294
3.Zunheboto	26605	12552	14053	5293	4193	1100	31898	16745	15153
4.Wokha	10391	8472	1919	7332	5654	1678	17723	14126	3597
5 Dimapur	24985	19342	5643	40825	36448	4377	65810	55790	10020
6.Phek	13026	10015	3011	3697	3069	628	16723	13084	3639
7.Tuensang	18335	14021	4314	6655	5803	852	24990	19824	5166
8.Longleng	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
9.Kiphire	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
10.Kohima	26119	19489	6630	24622	18527	6095	50741	38016	12725
11.Peren	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Nagaland	151981	107504	44477	101644	83985	17659	253625	191489	62136

Source: Census of India 2001-Provisional Population Totals, Paper-3 of 2001, Nagaland Series-13

Annexure 3.10: District wise Sectoral Employment in Nagaland in 2011

Districts	Cultivators								
	Rural			Urban			Total		
	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F
1.Mon	110857	56247	54610	2616	1113	1503	113473	57360	56113
2.Mokokchung	47504	23836	23668	1421	770	651	48925	24606	24319
3.Zunheboto	43892	20537	23355	831	298	533	44723	20835	21888
4.Wokha	46474	21972	24502	999	280	719	47473	22252	25221
5 Dimapur	23007	12818	10189	1510	697	813	24517	13515	11002
6.Phek	52389	28497	28892	2702	1040	1662	55091	24537	30554
7.Tuensang	71927	35314	36613	3285	1509	1776	75212	36823	38389
8.Longleng	22044	10935	11109	457	210	247	22501	11145	11356
9.Kiphire	20069	8972	11097	1363	605	758	21432	9577	11855
10.Kohima	42724	18621	24103	1960	676	1284	44684	19297	25387
11.Peren	35896	17810	18086	3775	1697	2078	39671	19507	20164
Nagaland	516783	250559	266224	20919	8895	12024	537702	259454	278248
Districts	Agricultural Labour								
1.Mon	10115	5131	4984	721	309	412	10836	5440	5396
2.Mokokchung	7643	4423	3220	1523	914	609	9166	5337	3829
3.Zunheboto	11197	5153	6044	758	290	468	11955	5443	6512
4.Wokha	6280	3220	3060	158	49	109	6438	3269	3169
5 Dimapur	7977	3837	4140	1013	623	390	8990	4460	4530
6.Phek	3052	1434	1618	107	61	46	3159	1495	1664
7.Tuensang	2890	1545	1345	1023	521	502	3913	2066	1847
8.Longleng	897	467	412	430	194	236	1309	661	648
9.Kiphire	1012	476	536	247	128	119	1259	604	655
10.Kohima	1787	910	877	411	197	214	2198	1107	1091
11.Peren	2845	1537	1308	894	438	456	3739	1975	1764
Nagaland	55677	28133	27544	7285	3724	3561	62962	31857	31105
Districts	Household Industry Workers								
1.Mon	1175	574	601	433	188	245	1608	762	846
2.Mokokchung	2917	1026	1892	881	302	579	3798	1328	2470
3.Zunheboto	1574	662	912	451	163	288	2025	825	1200
4.Wokha	1435	602	833	530	254	276	1965	856	1109
5 Dimapur	2527	799	1728	2546	1154	1392	5073	1953	3120
6.Phek	1155	431	724	120	66	54	1275	497	778
7.Tuensang	665	338	327	439	196	243	1104	534	570
8.Longleng	477	256	221	121	33	88	598	289	309
9.Kiphire	648	271	377	101	36	65	749	307	442
10.Kohima	1525	708	817	547	276	271	2072	984	1088
11.Peren	2161	995	1166	410	153	257	2571	1148	1423
Nagaland	16259	6662	9597	6579	2821	3758	22838	9483	13355
Districts	Other Workers								
1.Mon	12519	9320	3119	9218	6543	2675	21737	15863	5874
2.Mokokchung	19966	12950	7016	18212	12863	5349	38179	25813	12365
3.Zunheboto	13491	8731	4760	7272	5344	1928	20763	14075	6688
4.Wokha	11933	8538	3395	10603	7181	3422	22536	15719	6817
5 Dimapur	43347	28245	15102	69423	51472	17951	112770	79717	33053
6.Phek	14149	10054	4095	6603	4973	1630	20752	15027	5725
7.Tuensang	9265	7173	2092	8660	6335	2325	17925	13508	4417
8.Longleng	4277	2792	1485	1883	1386	497	6160	4178	1982
9.Kiphire	5573	4110	1463	2946	2182	764	8519	6292	2227
10.Kohima	25782	19351	6431	40089	27401	12688	65871	46752	19119
11.Peren	11339	7294	4045	4070	2325	1745	15409	9619	5790
Nagaland	171641	118558	53083	178979	128005	50974	350620	246563	104057

Source: Primary Census 2011, Abstract, Data Highlights, Nagaland Series 14

SAMPLE PROFILE TABLES

Annexure 3.11: Age wise composition of sample population (Total)

Area	0-14				15-24				25-34				35-59			
	M	F	T	SR	M	F	T	SR	M	F	T	SR	M	F	T	SR
Urban	85	84	169	988	110	98	208	891	68	74	142	1088	129	176	305	1364
Rural	90	90	180	1000	253	221	474	874	101	107	208	1059	237	237	474	1000
Total	175	174	349	994	363	319	682	879	169	181	350	1071	366	413	779	1128
Area	60 and above				Total											
	M	F	T	SR	M	F	T	SR								
Urban	24	6	30	250	416	438	854	1053								
Rural	41	30	71	732	723	984	1407	1361								
Total	65	36	101	554	1139	1422	2261	1248								

Source: Sample survey 2011-12

Annexure 3.12: Age wise composition of population in the Sample Rural Area and Nagaland

District	Villages	0-14				15-24				25-34				35-59			
		M	F	T	SR	M	F	T	SR	M	F	T	SR	M	F	T	SR
Mokokchung	Ungma Village	17	23	40	1353	19	22	41	1158	16	25	41	1563	32	33	65	1031
	Mokokchung Village	8	5	13	625	27	25	52	926	29	25	54	862	33	34	67	1030
	Khensa Village	16	12	28	750	21	26	47	1238	20	17	37	850	39	46	85	1179
	Sub-Total	41	40	8	976	67	73	140	1090	65	67	132	1031	104	113	217	1087
Tuensang	Tuensang Village	19	22	41	1158	83	51	134	614	11	18	29	1636	48	39	87	813
	Chare Village	21	19	41	905	26	31	57	1192	17	21	38	1235	41	37	78	902
	Kuthur Village	9	9	18	1000	77	66	143	857	8	1	9	125	44	48	92	1091
	Sub-Total	49	50	99	1020	186	148	334	796	36	40	76	1333	138	124	257	899
Total Rural		90	90	180	1000	253	221	474	874	101	107	208	1059	237	237	474	1000

District	Village	60 and above				Total			
		M	F	T	SR	M	F	T	SR
Mokokchung	Ungma	8	2	10	250	92	105	197	1141
	Mokokchung	16	17	33	1063	113	106	219	938
	Khensa	6	3		500	102	104	206	1020
	Sub Total	30	22	52	733	307	315	622	1026
Tuensang	Tuensang	2	-	2	-	163	130	293	798
	Chare	8	7	15	875	114	114	228	1000
	Kuthur	1	1	2	1000	139	125	264	899
	Sub-Total	11	8	19	727	416	669	785	1608
Total Rural		41	30	71	732	723	984	1407	1361

Source: Sample survey 2011-12

Annexure 3.13: Age wise composition of population in the Sample Urban Area and Nagaland.

Town	0-14				15-24				25-34				35-59			
	M	F	T	SR	M	F	T	SR	M	F	T	SR	M	F	T	SR
Mokokchung	35	43	78	1229	56	51	107	911	30	40	70	1333	71	92	163	1296
Tuensang	50	41	91	820	54	47	101	870	38	34	72	895	58	84	142	1448
Total urban	85	84	169	988	110	98	208	891	68	74	142	1088	129	176	305	1364
Town	60 and above				Total											
	M	F	T	SR	M	F	T	SR								
Mokokchung	14	5	19	357	206	231	427	1121								
Tuensang	10	1	11	100	210	207	417	986								
Total Urban	24	6	30	250	416	438	854	1053								

Source: Sample survey, 2011-12

Note: Figures in the parentheses indicate % in respective area total population

SR: Sex Ratio

Annexure 3.14: Distribution of sample population by levels of education in Urban area

Districts	Sex	Below high school	High school	Higher secondary	Graduate	Post-graduate & above	Total
Mokokchung	Male	28	42	34	74	24	202
	Female	44	40	42	63	34	223
	Total	72	82	76	137	58	425
Tuensang	Male	49	39	38	58	16	200
	Female	46	59	28	55	14	202
	Total	95	98	66	113	30	402
Sample Total	Male	77	81	72	132	40	402
	Female	90	99	70	118	48	425
	Total	167	180	142	250	88	827

Source: Sample Survey, 2011-12

Annexure 3.15: Educational profile (in %) by composition of gender (Urban)

Districts	Sex	Below High School	High school	Higher secondary	Graduate	Post-graduate & above
Mokokchung	Male	38.88	51.21	44.73	54.01	41.37
	Female	61.11	48.78	55.26	45.98	58.62
	Total	16.94	19.29	17.88	32.23	13.64
Tuensang	Male	51.57	39.79	57.57	51.32	53.33
	female	48.42	60.20	42.42	48.67	46.66
	Total	23.63	24.37	16.41	28.10	7.46

Source: Field Survey, 2011-12

Annexure 3.16: Educational Profile of Sample urban area during 2011-12

Districts	Sex	Currently attending						Attended						Never Attd.	Total
		1	2	3	4	5	Total	1	2	3	4	5	Total		
Mokokchung Town	M	26	18	10	25	1	80	2	24	24	49	23	122	-	202
	F	36	5	13	17	10	81	8	35	29	46	24	142	-	223
	T	62 (39)	23 (14)	23 (14)	42 (26)	11 (7)	161 (38)	10 (3.3)	59 (22)	53 (20)	95 (36)	47 (18)	264 (62)	-	425 (100)
Tuensang Town	M	39	18	10	19	5	91	10	21	28	39	11	109	2	202
	F	34	15	8	19	1	77	12	44	20	36	13	125	-	202
	T	73 (43)	33 (20)	18 (11)	38 (23)	6 (4)	168 (42)	22 (9)	65 (28)	48 (21)	75 (32)	24 (10)	234 (58)	2 (0.4)	404 (100)
Urban	M	65	36	20	44	6	171 (52)	12	45	52	88	34	231 (46)	2	404 (49)
	F	70	20	21	34	11	156 (48)	20	79	49	82	37	267 (54)		423 (51)
	T	135 (41)	56 (17)	41 (13)	78 (24)	17 (5)	327 (40)	32 (6)	124 (25)	101 (20)	170 (34)	71 (14)	498 (60)	2 (0.2)	827 (100)
Nagaland	M	168	129	69	91	11	468 (54)	114	201	130	155	42	642 (48)	4 (44)	1117 (50)
	F	168	90	68	61	19	406 (46)	169	225	102	139	49	684 (52)	5 (56)	1095 (50)
	T	336 (39)	219 (25)	137 (16)	152 (17)	30 (3)	874 (40)	283 (22)	426 (32)	232 (17)	294 (13)	91 (4)	1326 (60)	9 (0.4)	2212 (100)

Source: Sample Survey, 2011-12

Annexure 3.17: Educational Profile of sample population (Rural)

Villages (Mkg.dist)	Sex	Below metric	High school	Higher secondary	Graduate	Post-graduate & above	Total
Ungma	M	15	29	24	19	1	88
	F	20	34	18	21	6	99
	T	35	63	42	40	7	187
Mokokchung Village	M	16	33	20	32	9	110
	F	25	25	16	27	11	104
	T	41	58	36	59	20	214
Khensa	M	24	27	22	22	3	98
	F	27	28	27	17	2	101
	T	51	55	49	39	5	199
Mokokchung Total	M	55	89	66	73	13	296
	F	72	87	61	65	19	304
	T	127	176	127	138	32	600
Tuensang village	M	56	60	24	23	-	163
	F	71	43	9	7	-	130
	T	127	103	33	30	-	293
Chare	M	47	31	15	18	-	111
	F	56	31	9	11	1	108
	T	103	62	24	29	1	219
Kuthur	M	47	69	22	-	-	138
	F	48	55	21	1	-	125
	T	95	124	43	1	-	263
Tuensang Total	M	150	160	61	41	-	412
	F	175	129	39	19	1	363
	T	325	289	100	60	1	775
Rural Total	M	205	249	127	114	13	708
	F	247	216	100	84	20	667
	T	452	465	227	198	33	1375

Source: Sample Survey 2011-12

Annexure 3.18: Educational profile (in percentage) of sample population-RURAL.

villages	sex	Below high school	High school	Higher secondary	Graduate	Post-graduate & above	Total
Ungma	M	42.85	46.03	57.14	47.5	14.28	47.05
	F	57.14	53.96	42.85	52.5	85.71	52.94
	T	18.71	33.68	22.45	21.39	3.74	100
Mkg.	M	39.02	56.89	55.55	54.23	45.00	51.40
	F	60.97	43.10	44.44	45.76	55.00	48.59
	T	19.15	27.10	16.82	27.57	9.34	100
Khensa	M	47.05	49.09	44.89	56.41	60.00	49.24
	F	52.94	50.90	55.10	43.58	40.00	50.75
	T	25.62	27.63	24.62	19.59	2.51	100
Tuensang	M	44.09	58.25	72.72	76.66	-	55.63
	F	55.90	41.74	27.27	23.33	-	44.36
	T	43.34	35.15	11.26	10.23	-	
Chare	M	45.63	50.00	62.5	62.06	-	50.68
	F	54.36	50.00	37.5	37.93	100	49.31
	T	47.03	28.31	10.95	13.24	0.4	
Kuthur	M	49.47	55.64	51.16	-	-	52.47
	F	50.52	44.35	48.83	100	-	47.52
	T	36.12	47.14	16.34	0.3	-	
Rural Total	M	28.95	35.17	17.94	16.10	1.84	100
	F	37.03	32.38	14.99	12.59	3.00	100.00
	T	32.87	33.82	16.51	14.4	2.4	100.00

Source: Field Survey, 2011-12

M=male, F=female, T=total

Annexure 3.19: Educational Profile of Sample rural area during 2011-2012

villages	sex	Currently Attending						Attended						Never attended	Total
		1	2	3	4	5	Total	1	2	3	4	5	Total		
Ungma village	M	12	3	3	7	-	25	3	26	21	12	1	63	-	88
	F	16	6	4	4	2	32	4	28	14	17	4	67	1	100
	T	28	9	7	11	2	57	7	54	35	29	5	130	1	188
Mokokchung village	M	4	7	5	8	4	28	12	26	15	24	5	82	-	110
	F	5	4	5	8	4	26	20	21	11	19	7	78	2	106
	T	9	11	10	16	8	54	32	47	26	43	12	160	2	216
Khensa village	M	11	4	5	10	1	31	13	23	17	12	2	67	-	98
	F	8	6	7	9	1	31	19	22	20	8	1	70	-	101
	T	19	10	12	19	2	62	32	45	37	20	3	137	-	199
Total	M	27	14	13	25	5	84	28	75	53	48	8	212	-	296
	F	29	16	16	21	7	89	43	71	45	44	12	215	3	304
	T	56	30	29	46	12	173	71	146	98	92	20	427	3	600
Tuensang village	M	33	35	17	17	-	102	23	25	7	6	-	61	-	163
	F	34	25	6	4	-	69	37	18	3	3	-	61	-	130
	T	67	60	23	21	-	171	60	43	10	9	-	122	-	293
Chare village	M	21	4	5	5	-	35	26	27	10	13	-	76	2	113
	F	16	7	6	1	1	31	40	24	3	10	-	77	2	110
	T	37	11	11	6	1	66	66	51	13	23	-	153	4	223
Kuthur village	M	22	40	14	-	-	76	25	29	8	-	-	62	-	138
	F	19	22	19	1	-	61	29	33	2	-	-	64	-	125
	T	41	62	33	1	-	137	54	62	10	-	-	126	-	263
Total	M	76	79	36	22	-	213	74	81	25	19	-	199	2	412
	F	69	54	31	6	1	161	106	75	8	13	-	202	2	363
	T	145	133	67	28	1	374	180	156	33	32	-	401	4	775
Rural Total	M	103	93	49	47	5	297	102	156	78	68	8	411	2	713
	F	98	70	47	27	8	250	149	146	53	57	12	417	5	672
	T	201	163	96	74	13	547	251	302	131	124	20	828	7	1385

Source: Sample Survey, 2011-12. Note: 1. Below high school, 2. High school, 3. Higher Secondary, 4. Graduate and 5. Post graduate and above

Annexure 3.20: % of currently attending education (Rural)

villages	Sex	Level of education					Total
		1	2	3	4	5	
Ungma village	M	48	12	12	28	0	100
	F	50	18.75	12.5	12.5	6.25	100
	T	49.12	15.79	12.28	19.30	3.51	100
Mokokchung village	M	14.29	25.00	17.86	28.57	14.29	100
	F	19.23	15.38	19.23	30.77	15.38	100
	T	16.67	20.37	18.52	29.63	14.81	100
Khensa village	M	35.48	12.90	16.13	32.26	3.23	100
	F	25.81	19.35	22.58	29.03	3.23	100
	T	30.65	16.13	19.35	30.65	3.23	100
Total	M	32.14	16.67	15.48	29.76	5.95	100
	F	32.58	17.98	17.98	23.60	7.87	100
	T	32.37	17.34	16.76	26.59	6.94	100
Tuensang village	M	32.35	34.31	16.67	16.67	0.00	100
	F	49.28	36.23	8.70	5.80	0.00	100
	T	39.18	35.09	13.45	12.28	0.00	100
Chare village	M	60.00	11.43	14.29	14.29	0.00	100
	F	51.61	22.58	19.35	3.23	3.23	100
	T	56.06	16.67	16.67	9.09	1.52	100
Kuthur village	M	28.95	52.63	18.42	0.00	0.00	100
	F	31.15	36.07	31.15	1.64	0.00	100
	T	29.93	45.26	24.09	0.73	0.00	100
Total	M	35.68	37.09	16.90	10.33	0.00	100
	F	42.86	33.54	19.25	3.73	0.62	100
	T	38.77	35.56	17.91	7.49	0.27	100
Rural Total	M	34.68	31.31	16.50	15.82	1.68	100
	F	39.20	28.00	18.80	10.80	3.20	100
	T	36.75	29.80	17.55	13.53	2.38	100

Source: Sample Survey, 2011-12

Annexure 3.21: Educational Profile of Sample urban area during 2011-12

Districts	Sex	Currently attending						Attended						NA	Total
		1	2	3	4	5	Total	1	2	3	4	5	Total		
Mokokchung Town	M	26	18	10	25	1	80	2	24	24	49	23	122	-	202
	F	36	5	13	17	10	81	8	35	29	46	24	142	-	223
	T	62	23	23	42	11	161	10	59	53	95	47	264	-	425
Tuensang Town	M	39	18	10	19	5	91	10	21	28	39	11	109	2	202
	F	34	15	8	19	1	77	12	44	20	36	13	125	-	202
	T	73	33	18	38	6	168	22	65	48	75	24	234	2	404
Urban	M	65	36	20	44	6	171	12	45	52	88	34	231	2	404
	F	70	20	21	34	11	156	20	79	49	82	37	267	-	423
	T	135	56	41	78	17	327	32	124	101	170	71	498	2	827
Nagaland	M	168	129	69	91	11	468	114	201	130	155	42	642	4	1117
	F	168	90	68	61	19	406	169	225	102	139	49	684	5	1095
	T	336	219	137	152	30	874	283	426	232	294	91	1326	9	2212

Source: Sample Survey, 2011-12

Annexure 3.22: Distribution of economically active population in the sample area

District	Area	Employed persons			Dependant population		
		M	F	T	M	F	T
Mokokchung	Rural	161	132	293	147	182	329
	Urban	98	110	208	108	121	229
	Total	259	242	501	255	303	558
Tuensang	Rural	149	145	294	267	224	491
	Urban	65	85	150	145	122	267
	Total	214	230	444	412	346	758
Sample total	Rural	310	277	587	414	406	820
	Urban	163	195	358	253	243	496
	Total	473	472	945	667	649	1316

Source: Sample survey, 2011-12

Chapter IV

WORK PARTICIPATION AND INCOME

In Nagaland as well as in other parts of the world women play a major role in the home in managing domestic affairs and work outside the home. Nagas are a patriarchal society where traditional practices give more importance to male in social, political and economic spheres although women are in many ways, equal partner in the family and as bread winner. Many Naga women contribute to household income significantly, and many women are employed in labour intensive work, doing the tedious job and earning a meager income to manage their family. Work opportunities for urban dwellers are limited, whereas women in rural areas apart from working in agricultural sector they take up marginal occupations to supplement family income by collection of fuel wood, fodder, fishes and engage themselves in small animal husbandry, dairying, piggery etc. Women are also engaged in marketing of many rural and forest produce along with their domestic tasks.

4.1 WORK PARTICIPATION RATE

The WPR of Nagaland in 2001 was 42.6% in total population, where male work participation rate was 46.7% and female 38.1%. In 2011, it was increased to 49.2% and male and female work participation rates were 53.4% and 44.7% respectively.

Table 4.1: Number of Workers and Work Participation Rate by Sex in Nagaland

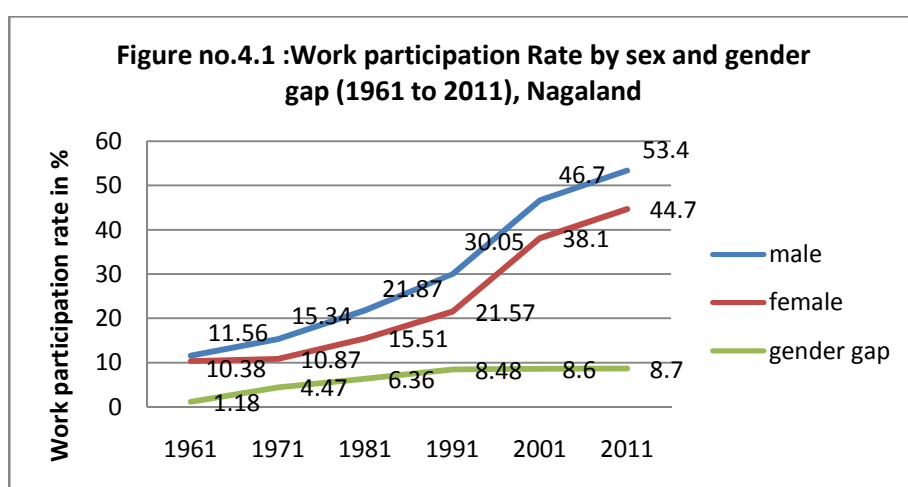
Year	Area	No. of workers			Work participation rate		
		Persons	Male	Female	Persons	Male	female
2001	Total	849982	487767	362215	42.6	46.7	38.1
	Rural	737386	398640	338746	45.0	47.1	42.9
	Urban	112596	89127	23469	31.9	45.7	14.9
2011	Total	974122	547357	426765	49.2	53.4	44.7
	Rural	760360	403912	356448	54.0	55.7	52.2
	Urban	213762	143445	70317	37.3	47.6	25.8

Source: Census of India 2001, Provisional Population Totals, paper -3, Census of India 2011, Primary Census Abstract, Nagaland Series 14, Statistical Handbook of Nagaland, 2012.

In 2011, the WPR in rural area was 54.0% in total population, for male and female were 55.7% and 52.2%, respectively. In 2001 the corresponding figures for rural total was 45.0% and the male and female WPRs were 47.1% male and 42.9% female. Thus figures show significant increase in total as well as gender wise WPRs during the last decade.

In urban area, the WPR in 2011 was 37.3%, and the male and female WPR was 47.6% and 25.8% respectively. In 2001 the corresponding figures for its total population was 31.9%, where male and female WPRs were 45.7% and 14.9% respectively.

The figures indicate that there has been increase in WPRs in total as well as gender concerns during the last decades. Over the last decade the percentage increase in WPR of women has been higher than that of male, which implies that a higher proportion of women has joined work force than that of male. However, it may be noted that female work participation rate has been consistently lower than that of male in both rural and urban areas, and so is total population. Moreover, the WPR is higher in rural area for both female and male than that of urban area.



Source: Census of India 2011, primary Abstract, Data highlights, Nagaland Series 14

Figure no.4.1 and table no 4.2 shows the WPR for female and male during the last five decades. The growth rates have been estimated with the exponential method. Table no.4.2 reveals that the gender gap is rising over the decades at the rate of 3.5% and the female WPR increases at a much faster rate (33%) than the Male WPR growth rate of 3.2%.

Table 4.2: Decadal Growth rate of WPR in Nagaland by sex and gender gap (1961 to 2011)

	Male	Female	Gender Gap
Constant	-60.92	-61.65	-67.79
Regression Coefficient	.032 (19.311)*	.33 (9.619)*	.035 (3.120)
R	.99	.97	.842
R ²	.98	.95	.709
Std.Err.	.002	.003	.011
F	372	92	9.737
N	5	5	5

Note: Decadal growth rate estimated with Exponential method and figures in the parenthesis represent 't' value. *Significance level at 1%

4.1.1 District wise work participation rate in 2001 and 2011:

Table 4.3(a): Work Participation rate in 2001 (in %), Nagaland.

District	Work participation rate								
	Rural			Urban			Total		
	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F
1.Mon	51.4	53.6	48.8	33.2	42.2	15.6	50.2	52.9	47.2
2.Mokokchung	48.9	50.9	46.7	35.3	47.5	22.2	47.1	50.5	43.4
3.Zunheboto	38.2	39.6	36.7	29.8	38.2	20.4	36.9	39.4	34.3
4.Wokha	38.6	40	37.2	22.6	30.4	19.6	34.9	37.6	31.9
5.Dimapur	35	45.5	22.9	30.6	48.3	13.3	33.4	46.5	18
6.Phek	48.1	47.6	48.6	49.3	56.2	9.6	48.2	48.4	47.9
7.Tuensang	44.1	45	43.1	26.5	39.2	40.1	41.3	44	38.2
8.Longleng	52.6	53.1	52	NA	NA	NA	52.6	53.1	52
9.Kiphire	41.2	41.5	40.8	NA	NA	NA	41.2	41.5	40.8
10.Kohima	48	49.3	46.6	32.6	43.9	19.3	42.6	47.4	37.3
11.Peren	45.8	46.3	45.3	NA	NA	NA	45.8	46.3	45.3
Nagaland	45	47.3	42.5	31	43.8	15.6	42.6	46.7	38.1

Source: Census of India 2011, primary Abstract, Data highlights, Nagaland Series 14
 NA: Not available, during the period there were no urban towns in the area/districts.

The work participation rate in 2001 was 42.6 in Nagaland, where male rate was higher than that of female rate (46.7% and 38.1%, respectively). In rural area, WPR shows a similar picture (45% -total, 47.3% male and 42.5% female), but in urban area the rate was much lower with 31%, its female rate was only 15.6%, and male was 43.8%.

A perusal of district wise data of WPR, Longleng and Mon districts show the highest (52.6% and 50%, respectively) and the lowest was Dimapur (33.4%), followed by Wokha and Zunheboto (34% and 36% respectively). In the entire districts, the urban WPR rate was lower than that of rural rate, and male rate is higher than female rate in both rural and urban areas, except for Tuensang where female rate was marginally higher.

Table 4.3(b): District wise work participation rate in 2011, Nagaland.

District	Work participation rate								
	Rural			Urban			Total		
	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F
1.Mon	62.4	62.8	61.9	37.7	44.6	29.9	59.0	60.3	57.6
2.Mokokchung	56.2	59.2	53.0	39.5	50.0	27.6	51.4	56.5	46.0
3.Zunheboto	62.0	61.8	62.2	33.7	42.2	24.4	56.5	57.8	55.1
4.Wokha	50.3	51.7	49.0	35.1	43.0	26.7	47.1	49.8	44.4
5.Dimapur	42.5	48.9	35.6	37.6	51.9	21.9	40.0	50.5	28.5
6.Phek	51.0	50.2	51.7	38.8	46.5	29.9	49.1	49.6	48.6
7.Tuensang	53.0	53.8	52.2	36.5	44.0	28.0	49.9	51.9	47.8
8.Longleng	64.6	64.2	65.0	38.0	45.7	29.5	60.5	61.4	59.6
9.Kiphire	47.5	47.3	47.7	28.2	34.4	21.6	43.2	44.4	42.0
10.Kohima	48.9	51.8	45.7	35.5	45.6	24.7	42.8	49.0	36.2
11.Peren	64.2	64.5	63.8	66.3	67.3	65.4	64.5	64.5	64.0
Nagaland	54.0	55.7	52.3	37.4	47.9	25.9	49.2	53.4	44.7

Source: Source: Census of India 2011, Primary Abstract, Data Highlights, Nagaland Series-14

In total, District wise data of 2011 shows that, total work participation rate was 49.2%, consisting of 53.4% male and 44.7% female. Highest WPR among districts was Peren with 64.5% and lowest was found to be Dimapur with 40.0%.

Further District wise data shows that in rural area the WPR was 54% in aggregate with 55.7% of male and 52.3% female. Highest WPR among districts was Longleng with 64.6% and lowest in Dimapur with 42.5% in 2011. Gender wise data in aggregate showed 55.7% and 52.3% for male and female respectively.

For urban area the total WPR was 37.4% comprising of 47.9 and 25.9% male and female respectively. The district with the highest WPR in urban area was Peren with 66.3% and lowest was Kiphire with 28.2%. In urban area male work participation ranges from 34.4% to 67.3%, whereas for female work participation rate starts from a mere 21.6% to 29.9% excluding Peren whose work participation rate is remarkably high at 65.4% no match for the other districts.

Increase in WPR:

There is significant increase in WPR in State's total and all the districts during the last decade (2001-2011) under all categories, viz in aggregate, rural and urban area as well as by gender. The percentage increase in WPR during 2001 to 2011 is indicated in the table here below:

Table 4.3(c): % Increase in WPR during the last decade (2001 to 2011) in Nagaland

State/Districts	Rural			Urban			Total		
	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F
Nagaland	20	17.76	23.06	20.65	9.36	66.03	15.49	14.35	17.32
Mon	21.40	17.16	26.84	13.55	5.69	91.67	17.53	13.99	22.03
Mokokchung	14.93	16.31	13.49	11.90	5.26	24.32	9.13	11.88	5.99
Zunheboto	62.30	56.06	69.48	13.09	10.47	19.61	53.12	46.70	60.64
Wokha	30.31	29.25	31.72	55.31	41.45	36.22	34.96	32.45	39.18
Dimapur	21.43	7.47	55.46	22.88	7.45	64.66	19.76	8.60	58.33
Phek	6.03	5.46	6.38	-21.30	-17.26	211.46	1.87	2.48	1.46
Tuensang	20.18	19.56	21.11	37.74	12.24	-30.17	20.82	17.95	25.13
Longleng	22.81	20.90	25.00	NA	NA	189.22	15.02	15.63	14.62
Kiphire	15.29	13.98	16.91	NA	NA	NA	4.85	6.99	2.94
Kohima	1.88	5.07	-1.93	8.90	3.87	27.98	0.47	3.38	-2.95
Peren	40.17	39.31	40.84	NA	NA	NA	40.83	39.31	41.28

Source: Based on Census of India 2011, primary Abstract, Data highlights, Nagaland Series 14

The female WPR has been consistently lower than that The percentage increase in total WPR was 15.49%, female WPR was increased faster than male rate (17.32% and 14.35%, respectively) during the last decade. Among the districts, Zunheboto and Wokha have experienced the highest increase in total and male WPR; moreover it was higher among female than that of male. Among female, the highest growth were in Zunheboto (60.64%) and Dimapur (58.33%). Districts such as Kohima (female) and Phek (total and male) have witnessed decline in WPR.

Gender gap:

It is observed that the gender gap in WPR is higher in urban than rural area. In the table no.4.3 (d) it may be observed that the process of convergence is on but rather very insignificant in both rural and urban areas. In rural area, it was declined from 4.8 to 3.4 percentage points and urban by a relatively higher margin from 28.2 to 22 percentage points.

Table 4.3(d): Gender gap in WPR (2001 and 2011) in Nagaland

District	2011			2001		
	Rural	Urban	Total	Rural	Urban	Total
1.Mon	0.9	14.7	2.7	4.8	26.6	5.7
2.Mokokchung	6.2	22.4	10.5	4.2	25.3	7.1
3.Zunheboto	-0.4	17.8	2.7	2.9	17.8	5.1
4.Wokha	2.7	16.3	5.4	2.8	10.8	5.7
5.Dimapur	13.3	30	22	22.6	35	28.5
6.Phek	-1.5	16.6	1	-1	46.6	0.5
7.Tuensang	1.6	16	4.1	1.9	-0.9	5.8
8.Longleng	-0.8	16.2	1.8	1.1	NA	1.1
9.Kiphire	-0.4	12.8	2.4	0.7	NA	0.7
10.Kohima	6.1	20.9	12.8	2.7	24.6	10.1
11.Peren	0.7	1.9	0.5	1	NA	1
Nagaland	3.4	22	8.7	4.8	28.2	8.6

Source: Based on Census of India 2011, primary Abstract, Data highlights, Nagaland Series 14

In 2001, the Female WPR (FWPR) was higher than male by 0.9% only in Tuensang urban area and by 1% in Phek rural area. In 2011, rural FWPR was higher than male more districts viz. Zunheboto, Phek and Longleng.

Employment in Sample Data:

In the sample population, 947 were workers, which comprised of 469 (49.52%) male and 478 (50.47%) female. Out of total male workers, (307) 65.46% were in rural area and (162) 34.54% in urban area. For female, (276) 57.74% were in rural area and (202) 42.26% in urban area. This implies that the WPR was 41.88% in sample total population.

In Mokokchung, out of the sample population, 289 were workers in rural area, which comprised of 55% male and 45% female. This shows that the WPR was 47.11% in its sample population. The male WPR was higher with 55% than that of female with 45%. This implies that among male, more than half of the population were workers, while among female, it was lower. The sample working population of rural Tuensang was 294, comprised of 52.7% male and 47.3% female. The WPR for male was lower than female in both rural and urban area in Tuensang.

4.2 EMPLOYMENT IN FORMAL AND INFORMAL SECTORS (Sample rural and urban areas)

Formal sector encompasses all jobs with normal hours and regular wages, and are recognized as income. Sources on which income taxes must be paid; it is the opposite of informal sector. The difference between formal and informal sector is a thing of regulation. The formal includes reported payroll items, income taxes, employee taxes and any other official economic factors. The informal sector refers to that part of the economy that are not taxed, regulated, monitored or included in the GNP. Often times called “under the table”, jobs in the informal sector are not reported to the government due to the fact that these jobs go unreported, and they are unable to have taxes taken out: such jobs are paid in cash and are often times less secure or stable due to the fact that they are not protected by govt. regulation.

Informal sector also refers to the large volume of self-employed in a developing country who are engaged in small-scale labour-intensive work such as tailoring, food preparation, trading, shoe-repairing, etc. These people are often regarded as unemployed or underemployed as they cannot be included in national employment statistics, but they are often highly productive and make a significant contribution to national income. The informal sector here includes both the rural and the urban sector, and would encompass the categories of self-employed, wage workers, workers in household production, as well as those engaged in petty occupations and all other forms of casual labour¹⁵¹.

The secondary data pertaining to formal and informal employment is not available and hence the study is based on primary data collected during 2011-12.

In the present analysis, the male and female workers in the sample (2011-2012) were classified into formal and informal sectors. The result is presented in the following section of the chapter as follows:

Table 4.4(a): Employment in formal and informal sector in sample areas of Nagaland , 2011-12

Area	Total workers			Formal sector			Informal sector		
	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T
Rural total	52.66	47.34	61.56	63.16	36.84	46.83	43.85	56.15	83.64
Urban total	44.51	55.49	38.44	43.71	56.29	53.17	48.39	51.61	16.36
Nagaland	49.52	50.48	100	52.82	47.18	100.00	44.13	55.87	100.00

Source: Sample survey, 2011-12 (Annexure no.7 and 8)

In aggregate **formal sector** the total worker was 568; out of this 53.17% were in urban and 46.83 in rural areas. The total worker in the sector was comprised of 52.82% male and 47.18% female. In rural area 266 workers were in formal sector, where the proportion of male

¹⁵¹ . www.reference.com/motif/business.2013.dictionary.com, LLC. accessed on 24.9.13

workers was found to be higher than that of female workers (63.16% male and 36.84% for female). Whereas in urban area with a total of 302 workers, the proportion of male workers was lower than that of female (43.71% male and 56.29% female).

Employment in informal sector in aggregate was 379 workers, 83% were in rural and 16.36% in urban areas; comprised of 44.13% male and 55.87% female. In both rural and urban areas, the proportion of female was higher than that of male (43.85% male and 56.15% female in rural area and 48.39% and 51.61% in urban area)

District Wise Sample Data:

Table 4.4(b): % of Employment in formal and informal sector in sample Districts, 2011-12

Area	Total workers			Formal sector			Informal sector		
	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T
Mokokchung Rural	50.02	44.98	49.57	62.86	37.14	65.79	41.53	58.47	35.96
Tuensang rural	50.34	49.66	50.43	63.74	36.26	34.21	44.33	55.67	64.04
Rural Total	52.66	47.34	100.00	63.16	36.84	100.00	43.85	56.15	100.00
Mokokchung urban	45.45	54.55	57.42	45.00	55.00	52.98	46.94	53.06	79.03
Tuensang urban	42.23	56.77	42.58	42.25	57.75	47.02	53.85	46.15	20.97
Urban Total	44.51	55.49	100.00	43.71	56.29	100.00	48.39	51.61	100.00

Source: Sample Survey, 2011-12 (Annexure no. 7 and 8)

The male and female workers in the sample were disaggregated into formal and informal sectors in the sample rural and urban areas of Mokokchung and Tuensang. The rural total workers was comprised more of male (52.66%) than female (47.34), while its urban workers was comprised of 55.49% female and 44.51% of male. Similar condition is observed in both the sample districts.

District wise, rural aggregate data show that formal workers comprised of 65.79% in Mokokchung and 34.21% in Tuensang. In both the sample districts male proportion is higher than that of female (62.86% and 63.74% for Mokokchung and Tuensang respectively for male and for female 37.14% and 36.26% for Mokokchung and Tuensang respectively).

The sample urban aggregate workers in formal sector comprised of 52.98% in Mokokchung and 47.02% in Tuensang. On the contrary to its counterpart, in urban area the proportion of female workers are higher than that of male in both the sample districts (comprised of 45.00% and 42.25% of male for Mokokchung and Tuensang; and for female 55% and 57.75% for Mokokchung and Tuensang, respectively).

The sample rural aggregate informal workers are comprised of 35.96% in Mokokchung and 64.04% in Tuensang. In both the sample districts, male proportion is lower

than that of female in rural area (41.53% and 44.33% in Mokokchung and Tuensang respectively for male and 58.47% and 55.67% in Mokokchung and Tuensang respectively for female).

The sample urban aggregate workers in informal sector are comprised of 79.03% in Mokokchung and 20.97% in Tuensang. In urban area, the proportion of female workers is higher than that of male in Mokokchung district (comprised of 53.06% and 46.94%, respectively), while in Tuensang male proportion is higher than that of female (53.85% for male and for female 46.15%) .

Despite small variations among sample districts, in general, it may be inferred that the proportion of female workers is higher than that of male. Employment in formal sector encompasses more of male than female workers and in informal sector, female proportion is higher than that of male workers. However, in urban area female participation was found to be more than the male in both the sectors.

4.3 NATURE OF EMPLOYMENT:

Participation in work alone is not enough, quality of women's work is also equally critical. A key challenge is to overcome a situation where women may gain employment with relative ease, but where their employment is either concentrated in poorly paid or unskilled job characterized by the absence of upward mobility and opportunity. For example: women are most often concentrated in “feminized” professions, such as nursing and teaching, office work, care of the elderly and disabled— termed “horizontal occupational segregation”—where they tend to remain in lower job categories than men. Typically, because these functions are carried out by women, they are the lowest paid, in addition to offering limited or no opportunity for advancement. The term “feminization of poverty” is often used to illustrate the fact that a substantial percentage of poor are women and that the gap between women and men in poverty has not lessened, but may well have widened in the past decade.

The nature of work in informal sector is assumed to be less stable and secure. The present study therefore attempted to analyze the differences in the nature of works in the sample by disaggregating into regular and seasonal workers in formal and informal sectors. The result in terms of rural and urban areas is presented as follows:

(A) Regular and Seasonal Workers:

(i) Rural Area:

Table 4.5(a): Nature of employment by sector (% in respective total in rural area)

Sl no	District	Regular Employment				Seasonal Employment		
		Activity	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
1	Mokokchung	Formal	79.14	72.22	76.42	-	-	-
		Informal	20.86	27.78	23.58	100	100	100
		Total	100	100	100	100	100	100
2	Tuensang	Formal	81.69	67.35	75.83	-	-	-
		Informal	18.31	32.65	24.17	100	100	100
		Total	100	100	100	100	100	100
3	Total Rural	Formal	80	70.50	76.22	-	-	-
		Informal	20	29.50	23.78	100	100	100
		Total	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: Sample survey, 2011-12 (Annexure no.9)

Out of total 583 workers in rural area, 60% were regular workers and 40 % seasonal workers. Among the total regular workers of 349, 76% were in formal sector and 24% in informal sector. A total 234 seasonal workers were confined in informal sector. The same condition is found in both the sample districts.

Regular workers in rural area, as gender segregated data show that among female workers, 70.50% works in formal sector and 29.50% in informal sector. The same among male is 80% and 20%, respectively. In both the sample districts, the proportions of formal workers are higher than that of informal workers for both female and male. Nevertheless in formal sector, the proportion of female is lower than the male; however in informal sector, it is higher among female than that of male.

(ii) Urban area:

Table 4.5(b): Nature of employment by sector (% in respective total in urban area)

Sl no	District	Activity	Regular Employment			Seasonal Employment		
			Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
1	Mokokchung	Formal	82.76	80.00	81.22	-	-	-
		Informal	17.24	20.00	18.78	100	100	100
		Total	100.00	100.00	100.00	100	100	100
2	Tuensang	Formal	93.75	94.25	94.04	-	-	-
		Informal	6.25	5.75	5.96	100	100	100
		Total	100.00	100.00	100.00	100	100	100
3	Total Urban	Formal	87.42	86.29	86.78	-	-	-
		Informal	12.58	13.71	13.22	100	100	100
		Total	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: Sample Survey, 2011 -2012

Out of total 364 workers in urban area, 95.60% were regular workers and only 4.40 % were seasonal workers. Among the total regular workers of 348, 86.78% were in formal sector and 13.22% in informal sector. A total 16 seasonal workers were confined in informal sector. Almost the same condition is found in both the sample districts.

As gender segregated data show that among regular female workers, 86.29% works in formal sector and 13.71% in informal sector. The same among male is 87.42% and 12.58%, respectively. In both the sample districts, the proportions of regular formal workers are higher than that of informal workers for both female and male, but in formal sector, the female proportion is lower than that of male; however in informal sector it is higher among female than that of male.

The proportion of regular worker is higher in urban than rural area. Among the regular workers, very few of them are found in informal sector, which is comparatively higher in rural area. All the seasonal workers are confined in informal sector. The gender segregated data also reveals the same but male proportion in formal sector is higher while in informal sector female proportion is higher in vice versa.

(B) Gender composition of Regular and Seasonal Workers:

(i) Rural Area:

Table 4.6(a) Gender composition by nature of employment in formal and informal sectors in rural area:

Rural Area	% of persons employed			Nature of work (%)					
				Regular			Seasonal		
	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T
Mokokchung									
Formal sector	62.9	37.1	60.6	62.9	37.1	76.4	-	-	-
Informal sector	43.0	57.0	39.4	53.7	46.3	23.6	33.3	66.7	100
Sub-Total	55.0	45.0	100	60.7	39.3	100	33.3	66.7	100
Tuensang									
Formal sector	63.7	36.3	31.0	63.7	36.3	75.8	-	-	-
Informal sector	44.3	55.7	69.0	44.8	55.2	24.2	44.3	55.7	100
Sub-Total	50.3	49.7	100	59.2	40.8	100	44.3	55.7	100
Rural Total	52.7	47.3	100	60.2	39.8	100	41.5	58.5	100

Source: Sample Survey, 2011-12 (Annexure no. 9)

In rural total, regular workers are constituted by 60.2% of male and 39.8% female, while the seasonal workers are comprised of 41.5% male and 58.5% female. The nature of employment by gender composition in rural area, the male work participation is higher than

female as regular worker, whereas for seasonal workers female work participation is higher than that of male. As more women than male are concentrated in low end of the spectrum, in low paying and insecure seasonal jobs, which would have negative implications on their level of income and economic status.

District wise data also show that, in both the sample districts female proportion is higher than that of male in seasonal nature of work like agriculture. While in regular formal sector, male constituted a higher proportion of worker than female in both the districts. The regular informal sector of Mokokchung district is constituted by more of male workers (61% against 39% of male and female, respectively), whereas, at Tuensang the regular informal sector is consisted of more of female workers (55% of female and 45% of male).

(ii) Urban Area:

Table 4.6(b): Nature of employment in formal and informal sectors

Urban Area	Number of persons employed			Nature of work					
				Regular			Seasonal		
	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T
Mokokchung									
Formal sector	45.0	55.0	76.6	45.0	55.0	81.2	-	-	-
Informal sector	46.9	53.1	23.4	40.5	59.5	18.8	66.7	33.3	100
Sub-Total	45.5	54.5	100	44.2	55.8	100	66.7	33.3	100
Tuensang									
Formal sector	42.3	57.7	91.6	42.3	57.7	94.0	-	-	-
Informal sector	53.8	46.2	8.4	44.4	55.6	6.0	75.0	25.0	100
Sub-Total	43.2	56.8	100	42.4	57.6	100	75.0	25.0	100
Urban Total	44.5	55.5	100	43.4	56.6	100	68.8	31.2	100

Source: Sample Survey, 2011-12

Employment in urban area was also disaggregated into formal and informal sectors, which were further divided into regular and seasonal workers. In sample aggregate data, regular workers constitute 43.4% male and 56.6% female and seasonal workers were 68.8% male and 31.2% female in urban area.

The urban data reveal that employment as regular worker in both formal and informal sector was higher for female than male in both the districts. Mokokchung comprised of 45% male and 55% female regular workers in formal sector, and in informal sector it was 40.5% male and 59.5% female as regular workers in informal sector. Similarly, Tuensang district consist of 42.3% male and 57.7% female as regular worker in formal sector and it was 44.4% male and 55.6% female as regular workers in informal sector.

All the Seasonal workers are found to be confined in informal sector in both the districts, which comprised of 66.7% male and 33.3% female in Mokokchung and in Tuensang it is 75% male and 25% female.

4.4 ACTIVITIES IN FORMAL AND INFORMAL SECTOR

The workers in informal sector were employed in the activities such as cultivators, vegetable vendors, casual labour, carpentry, transport, petty business/trade, household industry, home based food processing, tailoring/handloom/weaving etc. The respondents had been classified into different categories according to the economic activity they take up and segregated according to gender. The gender segregated data on sample total is given as follows:

A. Rural Area:

Table 4.7(a): Gender Segregated % of formal and informal workers (sample total Rural)

SL NO.	ACTIVITIES	Male	Female	Total
1	FORMAL:	53.07	35.61	44.80
	Other service			
2	INFORMAL:	21.36	40.65	30.49
	Cultivators			
3	Vegetable vendor	0.00	3.96	1.87
4	Casual labour	11.00	1.08	6.30
5	Carpentry	1.62	0.00	0.85
6	Food processing	12.62	16.55	14.48
7	Tailoring/weaving	0.00	2.16	1.02
9	social/pol. workers	0.32	0.00	0.17
	TOTAL RURAL:	100.00	100.00	100.00

Source: Sample Survey, 2011-12

As rural sample aggregate data show that nearly 45% of the workers in rural area are engaged in formal activities, while 55% are in informal activities. Among the informal workers, majority of them are engaged in cultivation (30%), followed by food processing (14.48%) and casual labour (6.30%). Others informal activities are vegetable vendors (1.87%), tailoring and weaving, carpentry etc.

Gender segregated data show that, among female workers in rural area, most of them are into cultivation (40.65%), which for male is only 21.36%. This is followed by services in formal sector with 35.61% among female, and 53.07% is for male. For both female and male the next activity is food processing (16.55% and 12.62%, respectively). Other activities among female are vegetable vendors, tailoring and weaving, and only 1% is into casual labour work.

There are no carpenter and social workers. Among male other activities are casual labour (11%), carpentry (1.62%) and social workers. There are no tailors, weavers and vegetable vendors.

The fact leads to the inference that in Nagaland majority of the female workers in rural area are engaged in informal activities, mostly of agriculture. Whereas, male are commonly engaged in formal activities/services where income are higher and regular, and also jobs are more secured.

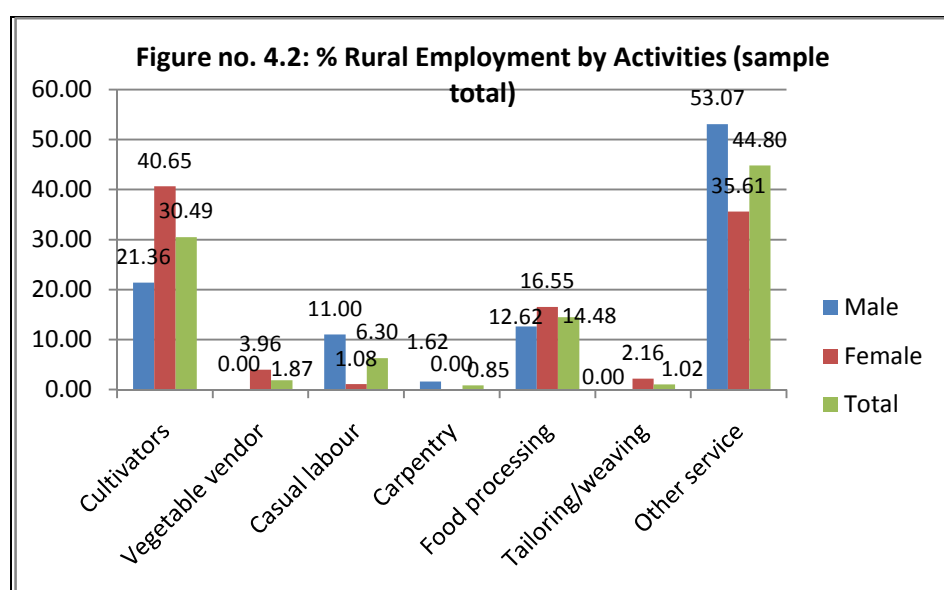


Table 4.7(b): % of formal and informal workers in rural sample districts.

SL.NO	ACTIVITIES	Mokokchung			Tuensang		
		Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
1	FORMAL:	66.88	49.62	59.04	38.26	22.76	30.61
	Other service						
2	INFORMAL:	12.50	27.07	19.11	30.87	53.10	41.84
	Cultivators						
3	Vegetable vendor	0.00	3.01	1.37	0.00	4.83	2.38
4	Casual labour	5.00	0.00	2.73	17.45	2.07	9.86
5	Carpentry	1.25	0.00	0.68	2.01	0.00	1.02
6	Food processing	13.75	18.05	15.70	11.41	15.17	13.27
7	Tailoring/weaving	0.00	2.26	1.02	0.00	2.07	1.02
8	Social/pol. Workers	0.63	0.00	0.34	0.00	0.00	0.00
TOTAL (Rural)		100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

Source: Sample Survey, 2011-12

Among the sample districts, Mokokchung being relatively developed, it has a higher proportion of rural workers in formal services than that in Tuensang (59% and 31%, respectively). For Tuensang, almost 70% are engaged in informal activities, among them majority are into cultivation (41.84%). Comparatively, cultivators comprised of only 19% in Mokokchung.

The gender segregated data show that in both the districts, cultivation, vegetable vendors, tailoring and weaving are predominantly of female's works, whereas food processing is relatively equally shared.

Furthermore, in Mokokchung majority of male (66.88%) as well as female (49.62%) rural workers are engaged in formal services, while in Tuensang its proportions are only 38.26% of male and 22.76% of female.

Among the rural female workers, nearly 50 % in Mokokchung and 78% in Tuensang are engaged in informal activities (for male it is 34% in Mokokchung and 63% in Tuensang). Among those female informal workers in Tuensang, 53% are into cultivation, while the same is only 27% in Mokokchung. Next is food processing with 18% in Mokokchung and 15% in Tuensang.

Gender composition by activities:

The total sample cultivator in the rural area was 180, comprised of 35.56% male and 64.44% female. Total number of cultivators in rural Mokokchung was 55 comprised of 32.73% male and 67.27% female, and the other activities taken up in rural areas were petty business (of 50.98% of female and 49.02% of male), and weaving where 100% are women. In rural Tuensang 125 (comprised of 36.80% and 63.20% female) were cultivators; other activities were casual labour (25% of female and 75% of male), business mostly petty (51.90% of female and 48.10% of male), and weaving where 100% is women. In Services the workers includes 62.36% of male and 37.64% of female.

Table 4.8: Gender composition in Employment by economic activities (Rural)

Activity (rural)	Mokokchung			Tuensang			Total		
	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T
Cultivators	32.73	67.27	18.77	36.80	63.20	42.52	35.56	64.44	30.66
Vegetable vendors	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Casual labour	100	-	2.73	70.83	29.17	16.33	75.00	25.00	9.54
Carpentry	100	-	0.68	-	-	-	100	-	0.34
Transport	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Business/trade	49.02	50.98	17.41	44.83	55.17	9.86	48.10	51.90	13.63
Household industry (i)Food processing	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
(ii) Tailoring/handloom/ weaving	-	100	1.02	-	100	0.68	-	100	0.85
Other workers/ services	61.85	38.15	59.04	63.33	36.67	30.61	62.36	37.64	44.80
Political & social workers	100	-	0.34	-	-	-	100	-	0.17
Total (Rural)	54.95	45.05	100	51.02	48.98	100	52.81	47.19	100

Source: Sample survey 2011-12

Village Wise Analysis:

(i) Mokokchung District

Table 4.9(a): Village wise employment by economic activities

Activity	Mokokchung											
	Ungma village			Mokokchung village			Khensa village			Total		
	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T
Cultivators	64.29	35.71	14.29	47.37	52.63	19.00	8.70	91.30	24.21	35.71	64.29	19.11
Vegetable vendor	-	100	1.02	-	100	3.00	-	-	-	-	100	1.37
Casual labour	100	-	3.06	100	-	4.00	100	-	1.05	100	-	2.73
Carpentry	-	-	-	100	-	1.00	100	-	1.05	100	-	0.68
Household industries (i)food processing	37.50	62.50	24.49	63.64	36.36	11.00	54.55	45.45	11.58	47.83	52.17	15.70
(ii)Tailoring/ weaving/ Handloom	-	100	2.04	-	-	-	-	100	1.05	-	100	1.02
Other workers/Services	56.36	43.64	56.12	59.68	40.32	62.00	68.42	31.58	60.00	61.85	38.15	59.04
Political and social workers	-	-	-	-	-	-	100	-	1.05	100	-	0.34
Total (rural MKG.)	53.06	46.94	100	58.00	42.00	100	52.63	47.37	100	54.61	45.39	100

Source: Sample survey 2011-12

Employment by economic activities in the three villages of Mokokchung district shows that the highest number of workers was in services sector with 59.04%, followed by cultivators 19.11% and thirdly the household industries with 15.70%. The other economic activities like vegetable vendor show 1.37% only, but almost all agricultural household sell agricultural products though not in large quantity. Casual labours were 2.73% of total workers consisting of male only in Mokokchung, also carpentry 0.68% consisting of male only. Political and social workers were 0.34%.

It is further revealed that in Mokokchung district highest number of cultivators is in Khensa village with 24(8.70% male and 91.30% female) and lowest in Ungma village comprised of 14(64.29% male and 35.71% female). The other activity comprise household industries and Ungma village had the highest number employed in this activity, from out of the total population 24(37.50% male and 62.50% female). Lowest was found in Mokokchung village with 11(63.64% male and 36.36% female). The third activity where highest concentration is found was the services sector. In services sector Mokokchung village had the highest number with 62(59.68% male and 40.32% female). The lowest was Ungma with 56(56.36% male and 43.64% female) in the service sector.

(ii) Tuensang District:

Table 4.9(b): Village wise employment by economic activities

Activity	Tuensang											
	Tuensang village			Chare village			Kuthur village			Total		
	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T
Cultivators	50.00	50.00	14.43	39.62	60.38	52.48	32.14	67.86	58.33	37.40	62.60	41.84
Vegetable vendor	-	100	2.06	-	-	-	-	100	5.21	-	100	2.38
Casual labour	75.00	25.00	4.12	66.67	33.33	5.94	100	-	19.79	89.66	10.34	9.86
Carpentry	-	-	-	-	-	-	100	-	3.13	100	-	1.02
Household industries :	42.31	57.69	26.80	40.00	60.00	4.95	50.00	50.00	8.33	43.59	56.41	13.27
(i) Food processing												
(ii) Tailoring/weaving /handloom	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	100	3.13	-	100	1.02
Other workers/services	58.82	41.18	52.58	70.27	29.73	36.63	50.00	50.00	2.08	63.33	36.67	30.61
Political and social workers	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total (Rural Tuensang)	52.58	47.42	100	52.48	47.52	100	46.88	53.13	100	50.68	49.32	100

Source: Sample survey 2011-12

In rural Tuensang, 41.84% were cultivators followed by services sector with 30.61% and thirdly the household industries with 13.27%. There were 2.38% vegetable vendors composed of female workers only and casual labour constitutes 9.86% which include both male and female. Activity like Carpentry was male domain with 1.02% and in weaving only female with 1.02% workers.

In Tuensang district similar activities were found like that of Mokokchung, except for casual labour activity where female participation was 10.34% in aggregate. In aggregate highest participation was found in cultivation with 41.84%. The highest number of cultivators was found in Kuthur village consisting of 56(32.14% male and 67.86% female), and lowest was Tuensang village with only 14 persons consisting of (50%) male and female respectively. Services sector takes the second consisting of 30.61% in aggregate. In this sector the highest participation was found in Tuensang village composed of 51 workers (58.82% male and 41.18% female), and the lowest was in Kuthur village with only 2 persons (50%) for male and female respectively. Household industries had the lowest number in aggregate with Tuensang village having the highest number comprised of 26 persons (42.31%male and 57.69%female), the lowest was Chare village with 5 persons (40% and 60%) for male and female respectively. The other household activity was weaving where it is only female participation 3 in Kuthur village.

In rural area, informal activities like casual labour and carpentry are exclusively taken up by male in Mokokchung and Tuensang, except for casual labour activity in Tuensang where female consists of 29.17%, and activity such as vegetable vendor, weaving are taken up by female in both the districts. In business and trade which are usually petty business were taken up by both male and female in both the districts composed of 49.02% male and 50.98% female in Mokokchung and 44.83% male and 55.17% female in Tuensang.

B. URBAN AREA:

Table 4.10: Gender Segregated % in formal and informal sectors (Urban)

Sl no.	Activity	Mokokchung			Tuensang			Total		
		M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T
1	FORMAL	79.59	77.27	78.37	92.19	94.19	93.33	84.57	84.69	84.64
	Other workers/ services									
2	INFORMAL	1.02	0.91	0.96	1.56	0	0.67	1.23	0.51	0.84
	Cultivators									
3	Vegetable Vendors		1.82	0.96	0.00	0	0	0	1.02	0.56
4	Casual Labour	3.06		1.44	0.00	0	0	1.85		0.84
5	Business/Trade	14.29	19.09	16.83	6.25	4.65	5.33	11.11	12.76	12.01
6	Household Industry:	0	0.91	0.48	0	0	0	0	0.51	0.28
	(i)Food Processing									
	(ii)Tailoring/handloom/ weaving	0	0	0	0	1.16	0.67	0	0.51	0.28
7	Political & Social workers	2.04		0.96	0	0		1.23		0.56
	Total (Urban)	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: Based on SaSample Survey, 2011-12(Annexure no.11)

As urban sample aggregate data show that nearly 87% of the workers in urban area are engaged in formal services, while only 13% are in informal activities. Among the informal workers, majority of them are engaged in business (12%), followed by casual labour and cultivators (0.84% each). Others informal activities are vegetable vendors, tailoring and weaving, carpentry etc.

Gender segregated data show that, among both female and male workers in urban area, majority of them are into services in formal sector for male is 84. % and female is 84.69%). This is followed by business in informal sector with 11% among male and 12.76% among for female. Vegetable vendors, food processing and tailoring/weaving etc are all females, although they constituted only small proportions.

Gender Composition:

Table 4.11: Employment by Economic Activities (urban)

Activity	Mokokchung			Tuensang			Total		
	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T
Cultivators	50.00	50.00	0.96	100	-	0.67	66.67	33.33	0.84
Vegetable vendors	-	100	0.96	-	-	-	-	100	0.56
Casual labour	100	-	1.44	-	-	-	100	-	0.84
Business/trade	40.00	60.00	16.83	50.00	50.00	5.33	41.86	58.14	12.00
Household industry (i)Food processing	-	100	0.48	-	-	-	-	100	0.28
(ii)Tailoring/handloom/weaving	-	-	-	-	100	0.67	-	100	0.28
Other workers/ services	47.85	52.15	78.37	42.14	57.86	93.33	45.21	54.79	84.64
Political & social workers	100	-	0.96	-	-	-	100	-	0.56
Sub-total	47.12	52.88	100	42.67	57.33	100	45.25	54.75	100

Source: Sample survey 2011-12 (Annexure no.12)

In urban area only 0.84% of the sample population were cultivators, in which male percentage was higher at 66.67% and 33.33% only for female. Other economic activities like casual labour accounts for 0.84%, where 100% of the workers are male, in trade 12% (comprised of 41.86% of male and 58.14% of female), vegetable vendors 0.56% in aggregate, where all workers were female. The area with highest employment was other workers/services with 84.64%, male and female worker in this sector was 45.21% and 54.79%. In other activity such as in political and social work it was 0.56%, all male where women's participation was nil. It is observed on the basis of economic activities that women actively participate in almost all the activities alongside men except in areas where socially accepted norms seem to have followed. In our society the domains are demarcated and therefore in some category of work

only female work such as vegetable vendors, weaving and tailoring, food processing etc. and in some other only males do the work such as political/social workers, casual labour etc.

It is observed that in total urban work participation, female accounted for higher proportion than that of male. Among the economic activities in urban area, Services is the principal work and next is business, where in both, female participation rate is higher than that of male. Works such as vegetable vendors, weaving and tailoring, food processing etc. are domains of female. On the other, political/social workers and casual labour are of male.

4.5 EMPLOYMENT AND EDUCATION

(i) Employment by age and Education:

The general perception is that raising educational levels increase women labour participation rate. Hence, employment by educational levels such as below high school, high school, higher secondary, graduates and post-graduates and above was determined for women vis-à-vis male according to their age groups.

Table 4.12: Employment by age and educational level in sample rural areas of Mokokchung and Tuensang

Age Group	Educational Levels								
	Below High school			High School			Higher Secondary		
Mokokchung	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T
16-24	-	100	1.72	40.00	60.00	5.10	42.86	57.14	10.77
25-34	75.00	25.00	7.47	43.75	56.25	16.33	55.56	44.44	27.69
35-59	45.95	54.05	68.52	52.24	47.76	68.37	63.89	36.11	55.38
60 & above	33.33	66.67	22.22	80.00	20.00	10.20	100	-	6.15
Sub-Total	44.44	55.56	100	53.06	46.94	100	61.54	38.46	100
Tuensang									
16-24	50.00	50.00	1.15	100	-	1.30	-	-	-
25-34	15.38	84.62	7.47	11.11	88.89	11.69	42.86	57.14	28.00
35-59	44.90	55.10	84.48	68.75	31.25	83.12	77.78	22.22	72.00
60 & above	50.00	50.00	6.90	66.67	33.33	3.90	-	-	-
Sub-Total	43.10	56.90	100	62.34	37.66	100	68.00	32.00	100
Rural Total	43.42	56.58	100	56.82	43.18	100	62.50	37.50	100

Source: Sample survey 2011-12

Table 4.12: continued:

Age Group	Educational Levels					
	Graduate			Post-graduate & above		
Mokokchung	M	F	T	M	F	T
16-24	-	100	4.76	-	-	-
25-34	57.69	42.31	41.27	57.14	42.86	77.78
35-59	62.50	37.50	50.79	100	-	22.22
60 & above	100	-	3.17	-	-	-
Sub-Total	58.73	41.27	100	66.67	33.33	100
Tuensang						
16-24	-	-	-	-	-	-
25-34	40.00	60.00	27.78	-	-	-
35-59	61.54	38.46	72.22	-	-	-
60 & above	-	-	-	-	-	-
Sub-Total	55.56	44.44	100	-	-	-
Rural Total	58.54	41.46	100	-	-	-

Source: Sample Survey, 2011-12

Rural Mokokchung:

In rural sample area of Mokokchung there were 289 workers. The employed persons were disaggregated according to their age and educational level. The total working population in sample is comprised of 50.02% male and 44.98% female in rural Mokokchung. Out of total sample population the highest proportion of workers had high school level qualification consisting of 98(53.06% male and 46.94% female), followed by higher secondary 65(61.54% male and 38.46% female), and the third was graduates 63(58.73% male and 41.27% female), followed by below high school consisting of 54 (44.44% male and 55.56% female). On the other hand the least was post-graduates with 9(66.67% male and 33.33% female).

The sample working population was further divided into four age groups 16-24 years, 25-34 years, 35-59 years and 60 years and above. In sample aggregate, the highest proportion of workers were in the age group 35-59 years, having high school qualification consisting of (53.06% male and 46.94% female), and the lowest proportion of workers were found among post-graduates and most of them were in the age group of 25-34 years consisting of (57.14% male and 42.86% female) in Mokokchung district.

Rural Tuensang:

In rural Tuensang there were 294 workers, consisting of 51.02% male and 48.98% female. Out of the total sample population, the highest number of workers was found to have below high school qualification consisting of 174(43.10% male and 56.90% female), attended

high school level consists of 77(62.34% male and 37.66% female), followed by higher secondary 25(68% male and 32% female), and the least was graduates with 18(55.56% male and 44.44% female). There were no workers with post-graduate degree in the rural sample area.

The highest number of workers in rural Tuensang, were in the age group of 35-59 years with 82.31% of the total workers. The lowest was found in the age group of 16-24 years. The percentage of working population as well as attainment of education was lower among female than male in rural Tuensang.

Table 4.13: Employment by age and educational level in sample urban areas of Mokokchung and Tuensang

Age group	Educational level								
	Below high school			High School			Higher Secondary		
Mokokchung	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T
16-24 yrs	100	-	10.00	-	-	-	50.00	50.00	5.00
25-34	-	-	-	50.00	50.00	5.71	20.00	80.00	25.00
35-59	44.44	55.56	90.00	36.67	63.33	85.71	44.44	55.56	67.50
60 & above	-	-	-	100	-	8.57	-	100	2.50
Sub-total	50.00	50.00	100	42.86	57.14	100	37.50	62.50	100
Tuensang									
16-24 yrs	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
25-34	-	-	-	-	100	2.33	50.00	50.00	11.11
35-59	50.00	50.00	100	26.83	73.17	95.35	45.16	54.84	86.11
60 & above	-	-	-	100	-	2.33	100	-	2.78
Sub-total	50.00	50.00	100	27.91	72.09	100	47.22	52.78	100
Urban total	50.00	50.00	100	34.62	65.38	100	42.11	57.89	100

Age group	Educational level					
	Graduate			Post-graduate		
Mokokchung	M	F	T	M	F	T
16-24 yrs	-	-	-	-	100	2.38
25-34	38.10	61.90	26.60	66.67	33.33	14.29
35-59	52.63	47.37	69.51	45.71	54.29	83.33
60 & above	75.00	25.00	4.88	-	-	-
Sub-total	50.00	50.00	100	47.62	52.38	100
Tuensang						
16-24 yrs	-	-	-	-	-	-
25-34	52.38	47.62	43.75	50.00	50.00	12.50
35-59	55.56	44.44	56.25	23.08	10	81.25
60 & above	-	-	-	100	-	6.25
Sub-total	54.17	45.83	100	31.25	68.75	100
Urban total	51.54	48.46	100	43.10	56.90	100

Source: Sample survey 2011-12

Urban Mokokchung:

Mokokchung consist of 209(45.45% male and 54.07% female) workers and Tuensang 155(42.58% male and 57.42% female) in urban area. The workers in the area were classified into four age groups. It is seen in table 4.12 that among urban workers the highest was in the age group of 35-59 years in both the districts similar to that of rural area, and the least workers were found in the age group of 16-24 years in Mokokchung, whereas it was nil in Tuensang in this age group. For Tuensang the least number of workers were in the age group of 60 years and above.

On the other hand, employment by education reveal that, the highest number of workforce were graduates consisting of 51.54% male and 48.46% female. The least number of workers are found to have below high school level of education consisting of 50% each for male and female in aggregate.

By gender concern, in Mokokchung among female the highest number of workers were graduates sharing the same percentage with male 50% in their respective total. The least number of workers belong to below high school where male and female share 50% respectively. In Tuensang, highest number of female workers had high school qualification composed of 73.17% in the respective total and the least number of workers is found to have below high school level education.

Table 4.14: Employment by age and education in sample total of Nagaland during 2011-12

Age group	Educational level								
	Below high school			High School			Higher Secondary		
Mokokchung	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T
16-24 yrs	50.50	50.50	3.13	40.00	60.00	3.73	37.50	62.50	7.77
25-34	75.00	25.00	6.25	44.44	55.56	13.43	40.74	59.26	26.21
35-59	45.65	54.35	71.88	47.42	52.58	72.39	55.56	44.44	61.17
60 & above	37.50	62.05	18.75	78.57	21.43	10.45	80.00	20.00	4.85
Sub-total	45.31	54.69	100	49.62	50.38	100	51.46	48.54	100
Tuensang									
16-24 yrs	50.00	50.00	1.08	100	-	0.83	-	-	-
25-34	15.38	84.62	6.99	10.00	90.00	8.33	45.45	54.54	18.03
35-59	45.28	54.72	85.48	52.38	47.62	87.05	57.14	42.86	80.33
60 & above	50.00	50.00	6.45	75.00	25.00	3.33	100	-	1.64
Sub-total	43.55	56.45	100	50.00	50.00	100	55.74	44.26	100
Nagaland	44.00	56.00	100	49.61	50.39	100	53.05	46.95	100

Source: Sample survey 2011-12

Table 4.14: continued:

Age group	Educational level					
	Graduate			Post-graduate		
Mokokchung	M	F	T	M	F	T
16-24 yrs	-	100	2.05	-	100	1.96
25-34	48.94	51.06	32.19	61.54	38.46	25.49
35-59	56.67	43.33	61.64	48.65	51.35	72.55
60 & above	83.33	16.67	4.11	-	-	-
Sub-total	54.11	45.89	100	50.98	49.02	100
Tuensang						
16-24 yrs	-	-	-	-	-	-
25-34	50.00	50.00	39.39	50.00	50.00	12.50
35-59	57.50	42.50	60.61	23.08	76.92	81.25
60 & above	-	-	-	100	-	6.25
Sub-total	54.54	45.45	100	31.25	68.75	100
Nagaland	54.25	45.75	100	46.27	53.73	100

Source: Sample survey 2011-12

As per the survey conducted during 2011-12 in Nagaland, employment in the sample area by age is shown which indicates the variation in employment in different age groups. Distribution of workers by age in sample areas show that the highest number of workers was in the age group of 35-59 years and the lowest was in the age group of 16-24 years. Employment by education show that highest number of workers fall in the category of below high school 250(44% male and 56% female) and high school level consists of 254(49.61% male and 50.39% female). This was followed by graduates with 212 workers, where the percentage of male and female was 54.25% and 45.75% respectively. The lowest number of workers was found in the post graduate level with 67 (46.27% male and 53.73% female). This indicates that female workers have lower levels of education than male except in post graduate level where female percentage is higher.

Table 4.15: Employment by educational level in sample rural areas of Mokokchung & Tuensang

Area	Educational levels														
	Below High School			High School			Higher Secondary			Graduate			Post-graduate & above		
	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T
MKG	44.44	55.56	100	53.06	46.94	100	61.54	38.46	100	58.73	41.27	100	66.67	33.33	100
TSG	43.10	56.90	100	62.34	37.66	100	68.00	32.00	100	55.56	44.44	100	-	-	-
Sub-total	43.42	56.58	100	56.82	43.18	100	62.50	37.50	100	58.54	41.46	100	-	-	-

Source: Sample survey 2011-12

MKG=Mokokchung and TSG=Tuensang

The total number of workers in rural sample areas was 583 consisting of 289 (49.57%) from Mokokchung and 294(50.43%) from Tuensang. Employment by educational level shows

that highest number of workers had only below high school level education with (43.42% for male and 56.58% for female). This was followed by high school level with 176(56.82% male and 43.18% female). In higher secondary level it was 88(62.50% male and 37.50% female), Graduates composed of 82(58.54% male and 41.46% female). The lowest was found to be in the post-graduate level with 9 (66.67% male and 33.33% female) in rural Mokokchung, it was nil in rural Tuensang.

The data indicate that female employment is lower than male at all levels of education in the rural sample areas. Lower levels of education among female comes in the way of employment and employability.

Table 4.16: Employment by educational level in sample urban areas

Area	Educational levels														
	Below High School			High School			Higher Secondary			Graduate			Post-graduate & above		
	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T
MKG	50.00	50.00	100	42.86	57.14	100	37.50	62.50	100	50.00	50.00	100	47.62	52.38	100
TSG	50.00	50.00	100	27.91	72.09	100	47.22	52.78	100	54.17	45.83	100	31.25	68.75	100
Sub-total	50.00	50.00	100	34.62	65.38	100	42.11	57.89	100	51.54	48.46	100	43.10	56.90	100

Source: Sample survey 2011-12

MKG=Mokokchung and TSG=Tuensang

In urban area of the two sample districts the working population is classified according to their educational levels. The total employed in urban sample population was 364 consists of (44.51% male and 55.49% female). Of the total workers Mokokchung consisted of 209 (57.42%) and Tuensang 155(42.58%). Out of the total sample the highest proportion of workers was graduates in both the districts consisting of 130(51.54% male and 48.46% female). This was followed by high school level with 78 (34.62% male and 65.38% female), and higher secondary 76(42.11% male and 57.89% female). There were 58 post graduates comprised of (43.10% male and 56.90% female). The lowest was found to be having below high school level qualification in both the districts with 22 workers, consist of 50% each of male and female in Mokokchung and Tuensang.

The above analysis reveal that except in the level of below high school and graduates, in all the other levels of education female employment was higher than male in the urban area.

Table 4.17: Employment by educational level in sample areas of Nagaland during 2011-12

Area	Educational levels														
	Below High School			High School			Higher Secondary			Graduate			Post-graduate & above		
	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T
Mkg	45.31	54.69	100	49.62	50.38	100	51.46	48.54	100	54.11	45.89	100	50.98	49.02	100
Tsg	43.55	56.45	100	50.00	50.00	100	55.74	44.26	100	54.54	45.45	100	31.25	68.75	100
Nagal and	44.00	56.00	100	49.61	50.39	100	53.05	46.95	100	54.25	45.75	100	46.27	53.73	100

Source: Sample survey 2011-12

The estimates of Employment by education in Nagaland in the two sample districts during 2011-12 show that, the highest number of workers in Nagaland was below high school level education with 28.52% in Mokokchung and 71.48% in Tuensang. The lowest was workers having post-graduate level of education consisting of 76.12% in Mokokchung and 23.88% in Tuensang. By gender concern the highest number of female workers was below high school, followed by high school level, graduates, higher secondary and the least were the post-graduates. As compared to male employment at each level of education, female accounted a higher proportion at high school and below and post graduate levels, where as male workers were more than the female workers with higher secondary and graduates levels of education.

(ii) Relationship between Education and Employment:

Education is vital for women work participation and to earn a decent income, which improve their status and also enable to improve family welfare. The impact of education on employment among female population was analyzed with the help of simple regression method, taking the levels of education as independent variable and employment status of women as dependent variable. The employed are those women workforce who are engaged in economically productive activities from which they earn an income, on the other hand, the unemployed are those potential labour force who are willing to work and looking for job¹⁵². For the employment, the employed are assigned '1' and unemployed persons are assigned value '0'. For the education, the respondents' attained levels of education are assigned values, viz., illiterate=0, primary and below=1, upper primary to high school=2, higher secondary=3, graduate=4 and post graduate and above=5.

The result is indicated in the table as follows.

¹⁵² In Usual Status (PS+SS) i.e. usual status of an individual determined on the basis of his usual principal status and usual subsidiary status taken together(NSSO, 2013)

Table 4.18: Simple Regression Analysis

	Urban			Rural		
	Mokokchung	Tuensang	Total	Mokokchung	Tuensang	Total
constant	0.485	.576	.531	.795	.853	.892
Coefficient (β)	0.121 (5.04)*	0.089 (3.018)**	0.106 (5.642)*	-0.031 (0.951)	0.044 (1.557)	-0.039 (1.854)
R	.45	.29	.37	.08	.13	.10
Adjusted R ²	.206	.085	.138	.006	.016	.011
Std. Error	.024	.030	.019	.033	.028	.021
F	25.48	9.109	31.831	.904	2.425	3.437
N	100	100	200	149	153	302

Note: *Significance at 1% and ** at 5% levels. Figures in the parentheses represent 't' values

Source: Source: Sample Survey 2011-12

The results show that in urban area, the effect of education on employment among women is significant, while the same for rural area is insignificant. Therefore, the hypothesis stating that increase in the levels of education increases women's employment may be accepted for urban female workers, while the same is rejected for rural female workers.

In urban area the result indicates that, the regression coefficient is 0.106, which is significant at 1% as the 't' value is [5.64]. This implies that an additional level of education leads to an increase in employment (chances of being employed) by 10%. Its R² value is 0.138, which means that about 14% of the variation in female employment is explained by attainment of educational levels in urban area. For urban sample districts, similar situation is observed where the coefficient for Mokokchung is relatively more significant than Tuensang (at 1% and 5%, respectively). In Mokokchung district urban area, an addition in the educational level increases the women employment by 12% and in Tuensang district, it increases by 8%.

This finding indicates the importance of education for women to be employed and having a positive impact on their economic status.

4.6 EMPLOYMENT AND INCOME (SAMPLE DATA):

(i) Gender Disparity in Income Distribution

For economic empowerment of women, their work participation is an important constituent towards measuring the gender equality and inequality. The per capita income continues to be an indicator of the economic well-being of the people. Hence, income of sample households and also by gender was taken in order to find out the economic well being of the people.

Table 4.19: Employment and income of sample areas of Mokokchung and Tuensang district

Area	Number of working population & gender composition			Monthly Per Capita Income (in rupees)		
	Male (in %)	Female (in %)	Total	Male	Female	Total
Mokokchung Rural	50.02	44.98	289	15413	9787	12882
Tuensang Rural	50.34	49.66	294	9730	4821	7292
Sub- total	52.66	47.34	583	12673	7160	10063
Mokokchung Urban	45.93	54.07	209	28070	24596	26191
Tuensang Urban	42.58	57.42	155	22104	20796	21353
Sub- total	44.51	55.49	364	25639	22921	24131
Total	49.52	50.48	947	17152	13821	15470

Source: Sample Survey, 2011-12

The per capita income of the working population in the sample total was estimated at Rs. 15,470 per month. The per capita monthly income was found to be higher among male (Rs.17152) than that of female (Rs.13821). Also by area, it was higher among male in both rural and urban areas than that of female.

The sample data reveals that in total women population, the proportion of workers in urban area (50.48%) was higher than that of rural area (47.34%). Similarly, the average per capita income in urban area was higher (Rs.22, 921) than that in rural area (Rs.7160). In rural area the number of female worker as well as per capita income is lower than male. In urban area, although the total female working population is more, their per capita income is lower than male; which implies that more female workers are engaged in lower paid jobs as compared to male workers.

Despite the differences, many respondents strongly feel that her contribution to family income help raise the standard of living of their family. A significant proportion of her earning is spent for children's education and provides better food for the family.

(ii) Per capita Income by Sector:

Rural area:

Table 4.20: Employment and income in formal and informal sectors in the sample rural area during 2011-12.

Area	INCOME PER WORKER(monthly in Rs) in Formal sector			INCOME PER WORKER (monthly in Rs) in informal sector		
	M	F	T	M	F	T
Mokokchung	17441	15331	16657	10859	4244	7087
Tuensang	17984	14894	16864	4410	4290	3001
Rural total	17629	15184	16728	6683	2743	4471

Source: Sample Survey, 2011-12

In rural area 583 were total workers consisting of 307(52.66% male) and 276 (47.34% female) respectively. Formal sector worker consist of 266(63.16% male and 36.84% female), and in informal sector it was 317 (43.85% male and 56.15% female) in aggregate.

The average monthly per capita income of rural workers in the formal sector was Rs.16728; where male income was Rs.17629 and female Rs.15184 per month. In informal sector average income was Rs.4471 and male and female income was Rs.6683 and Rs.2743 respectively. By area concern, Mokokchung average per capita monthly income of male and female was Rs.17441 and Rs.15331 respectively. In Tuensang male and female average per capita monthly income was Rs. 17984 and Rs.14894 respectively.

The average per capita income of informal workers in the districts was Rs.4471 and income of male and female is Rs.6683 and Rs.2743 respectively. By district in Mokokchung male income was Rs. 10859 and Rs.4244 for female, and in Tuensang it was Rs.4410 and Rs.4290 for male and female respectively.

Income earning in informal sector was found to be lower than that of formal sector, it was also found out that female income per worker is lower than male in both the districts in this sector.

Urban Area:

Table 4.21: Employment and income in formal and informal sectors in the sample Urban area during 2011-12.

Area	INCOME PER WORKER (monthly in Rs) in formal sector			INCOME PER WORKER (monthly in Rs) in informal sector		
	M	F	T	M	F	T
Mokokchung	30676	28657	29566	21130	9904	15173
Tuensang	21114	21358	21255	27429	16583	22423
Urban total	26330	25136	25658	22600	11156	16694

Source: Sample Survey, 2011-12

Employment and income in the urban area was studied for formal and informal sector to know the proportion of employment and income from the two sectors per month. In urban area out of the total 364 workers 302(43.71% male and 56.29% female), were employed in formal and 62(48.39% male and 51.61% female) were found to be employed in informal sector.

Income earning in informal sector was found to be lower than that of formal sector, it was also found out that female income per worker is lower than male in both the districts in this sector.

The average per capita income of urban workers in the formal sector was Rs.25658 where male income was Rs.26330 and female Rs.25136 per month. In Mokokchung average per capita income of male and female was Rs.30676 and Rs.28657 respectively. In Tuensang male and female average per capita income was Rs.21114 and Rs.21358 respectively.

Workers in informal sector were less in number in both the districts. The average per capita income of informal workers in the districts was Rs.16694 and income of male and female is Rs.22600 and Rs.11156 respectively. By district in Mokokchung male income was Rs. 21130 and Rs. 9904 for female, and in Tuensang it was Rs.27429 and Rs.16583 for male and female.

Sample Total:

Table 4.22: Employment and income in formal and informal sectors in Nagaland during 2011-12

Area	INCOME PER WORKER(monthly in Rs) in Formal sector			INCOME PER WORKER(monthly in Rs) in informal sector		
	M	F	T	M	F	T
Rural	17629	15184	16728	6683	2743	4471
Urban	26330	25136	25658	22600	11156	16694
Nagaland	21457	21497	21476	9509	4025	6470

Source: Sample Survey, 2011-12

Income per worker in formal and informal sectors in Nagaland during 2011-12 in rural area was (Rs.17629 male and 15184 female) respectively in formal sector. Informal sector also show higher income for male at (Rs. 6683 for male and Rs. 2743 for female) respectively. In urban area income per worker in formal sector was (Rs. 26330 for male and Rs. 25136 for female), and in informal sector it was (Rs.22600 for male and Rs.11156 for female) respectively. In aggregate, the average per capita income of male and female was almost same in formal sector (Rs.21457 for male and Rs.21497 for female), and informal sector show that male income was higher than female (Rs.9509 and Rs.4025) for male and female respectively.

In the present analysis employment in formal sector in aggregate is 62.36% male and 37.64% female, consisting of 61.85% male and 38.15% female respectively in Mokokchung, Tuensang had 63.33% male and 36.67% female. In informal sector aggregate employment were 43.54% male and 53.75% female, consisting of 44.17% male and 58.83% female in Mokokchung and 45.10% and 59.90% for male and female respectively in Tuensang.

Average per capita income in the sample rural area for male was Rs. 18011 and Rs.14558 for female in formal sector and for both the districts female income is lower than that of male. In informal sector average per capita income was Rs. 6214 and Rs.3058 for male and female respectively and in informal sector also income earning by female was much lower than that of male.

(iii) Education and Income :

Income is the money that is earned from doing work or received from investments. It is assumed that there is positive relationship between education and monthly income for women. Education is the most important factor that enables women to get access to paid work and earn income, which in turn, help to improve her status at home and the society as well.

A simple regression model is use to examine the impact of education on monthly income among the working women.

For education (independent variable), the levels of education attained are assigned values, viz., primary and below=1, upper primary to high school=2, higher secondary=3, graduate=4 and post graduate and above=5 are assigned values). The absolute average monthly income (dependent variable) of the female workers was taken as dependant variable in the analysis.

The result of the analysis that shows the impact of education on average monthly income of women is as follows:

Table 4.23: Simple Regression Analysis

	Mokokchung District		Tuensang District		Sample Total	
	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural
constant	3774.19	6768	7900.74	2288.48	1589.976	3243.140
Coefficient (β)	9210.23	2352.11	4680.157	2802.11	7228.57	3152.08
t	5.701*	3.394*	4.153*	4.171*	7.203*	6.859*
R	.52	.33	.42	.38	.49	.44
R ²	.274	.111	.177	.141	.236	.190
Std. Error	1615.48	692.96	1126.99	671.79	1003.57	459.58
F	32.504	11.521	17.24	17.398	51.88	47.03
N	88	94	82	108	170	202

*Significance at 1%

Source: Sample Survey, 2011-12

The results show that there is positive relation between education and average monthly income of the women. The regression coefficients are significant at 1%. The urban area result suggests that, for every increase in the level of education, the average monthly income of women worker is increased by Rs.7228.57, whereas, the same for rural area leads to an increase in average monthly income of Rs. 3152.08. The R² value suggests that about 23% of the variation in average monthly income is explained by education for urban total, and the same for rural area is 19%. As compare the impact of education on average monthly income by area, it is higher in urban than that in rural area. The 't' values are [7.203] and [6.859] for urban and rural respectively, showing significance at 1% level. Thus, the findings support the hypothesis that higher education enables women to earn higher income, which is found higher in urban area.

Comparatively, the results between the two sample districts, in urban area, the impact of education on monthly income is positive in both the districts, moreover it is relatively higher for Mokokchung with Rs. 9210.23 per month as compared to Rs.4680.15 per month for Tuensang. The difference could be due to fact that Mokokchung being more developed than Tuensang (Tuensang is one of the least developed districts in Nagaland, which needs further investigation. Nevertheless, both districts show high level of significance of coefficient, at 1%. Further, about 27% and 17%, respectively, of variation in average monthly income is explained by the levels of education.

In rural area, the resultant increase in income was relatively higher in Tuensang than Mokokchung with Rs.2802 and Rs.2352 respectively, which were significant at 1%. Moreover, only 11% and 14 % respectively, of variation in income is explained by education.

4.7 INCOME DISTRIBUTION

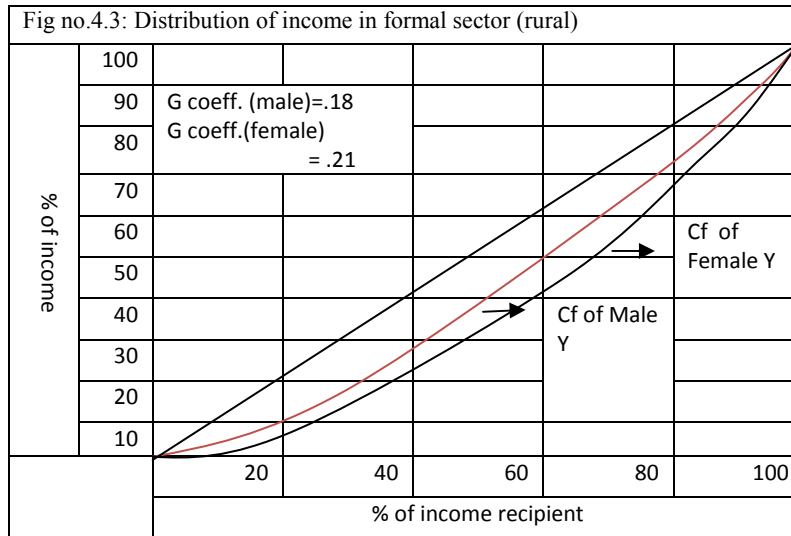
Another important variable which has its bearing on the economic status especially for female is her income. The standard of living of a family is based on the economic returns of that family. It is, therefore, imperative to have a perusal at the economic returns of both male and female under study in the sample areas. It is estimated from the sample survey conducted during 2011-12 that there is difference in income earned by male and female in formal sector that ultimately influence the status of women and also income is unevenly distributed within the gender. Income distribution was studied under formal and informal sector and Gini Coefficient (GC) worked out to assess the extent of inequality.

(i) Rural Formal Sector:

Table 4.24: Income distribution in Formal sector in rural area (sample total)

Income	Male					Female				
	Mean Income (RS)	% of male workers	Cf of male (%)	% of Income	Cf of Income (%)	% of female workers	Cf of female (%)	Mean Income (RS)	% of Income	Cf of Income (%)
Up to 5000	-	-	--	--	--	7.14	7.14	4857	2.28	2.28
5001-10000	8885	16.07	16.07	8.10	8.10	13.27	20.41	8500	7.43	9.71
10001-15000	13503	23.81	39.88	18.24	26.34	42.86	63.27	13486	38.06	47.77
15001-20000	18484	36.31	76.19	38.07	64.41	22.45	85.72	18136	26.81	74.58
20001-25000	22816	14.88	91.07	19.26	83.67	7.14	92.86	23443	11.03	85.62
25001-30000	27529	4.17	95.24	6.51	90.18	6.12	98.98	29000	11.69	97.31
30001-35000	34250	2.38	97.62	4.63	94.81	-	-	-	-	-
35001-40000	38500	2.38	100	5.20	100.01	1.02	100	40000	2.69	100
40001 & above	-	-		-		-	-	-	-	-

Source: Sample Survey, 2011-12
GC male=.18 and GC female=.21



The average income of male workers was higher than female workers in rural formal sector which were Rs.17629 and Rs.15184. From rural sample data it is found that as low as 2.28% of the total income (with Rs. 4857 in average per month) was received by 7.14% of female workers, whereas none of the male population was in the lowest level of income in the sample. The highest income earner among male was 2.38% who received 5.20% of the total income (an average of Rs. 38500 per month), as for female, highest income earned was by 1.02% of workers who received only 2.69% of their respective total. Among female workers in the sector, cumulative frequency data show that at the bottom of the income spectrum 63% of the workers receive an average monthly income of Rs. 4857 to Rs.13486, comprised of 38% of the female total income. On the other hand, the second top 6% of the female worker receive an average monthly income of Rs.29000 while the top 1% receives Rs 40,000 per month

The income is more equitably distributed among male workers (as its Gini Coefficient is 0.18) than that of female (with Gini Coefficient of 0.21). Moreover, the income of the female workers is lower and concentrated more at the lower range of income distribution.

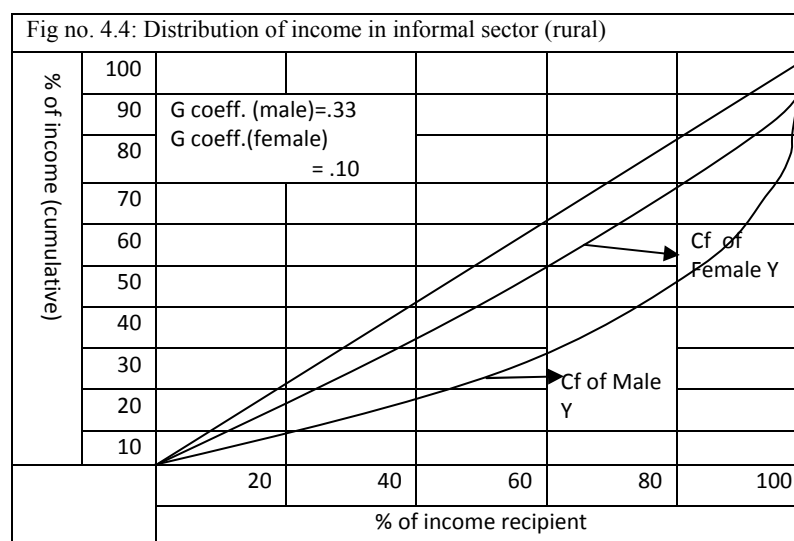
(ii) **Rural Informal Sector:**

Table 4.25: Income distribution in **informal sector in the sample rural area of Mokokchung and Tuensang during 2011-12**

Income	Mean Income	% of male	CF of male %	% of income	CF of male income %	Mean income of female	% of female	Cf of female workers	% of income	CF of female income %
Upto 5000	2991	56.12	-	25.11	-	2328	51.69	-	43.86	-
5001-10000	6676	29.5	85.62	29.46	54.57	2611	46.06	97.75	43.85	87.71
10001-15000	13091	7.91	93.53	15.5	70.07	13333	1.69	99.44	8.19	95.9
15001-20000	18200	3.6	97.13	9.8	79.87	20000	0.56	100	4.1	100
20001-25000	25000	1.44	98.57	5.38	85.25		-		-	
25001-30000	-	-		-			-		-	
30001-35000	-	-		-			-		-	
35001-40000	40000	0.72	99.29	4.31	89.56		-		-	
40001 & above	97000	0.71	100	10.44	100		-		-	
total	6683	100		100		2743	100		100	

Source: Sample Survey, 2011-12

GC Male=0.33, GC Female=0.10



The average monthly income per worker was higher for male Rs.6683 than female with Rs.2743. The distribution of income among male workers in rural informal sector, out of total income the lowest income earned was 25.11% by 56.12% workers (with an average monthly income of Rs.2991), and 51.69% female received 43.86% of the respective total income (average monthly income per worker is Rs.2328). The highest income earner consists of 0.72% male, received 25.11% of income (average of Rs.97, 000 per month). For female the highest income level was only at the range of Rs.15001-20000 which was received by only 0.56% and

4.10% of the respective total (average of Rs.20000 per worker). The estimates show that female income was significantly lower than that of male throughout the income distribution ranges. The distribution of income among female is uniformly low and equitable as its GC is only 0.10, while among male it is 0.33, showing relatively unequal distribution.

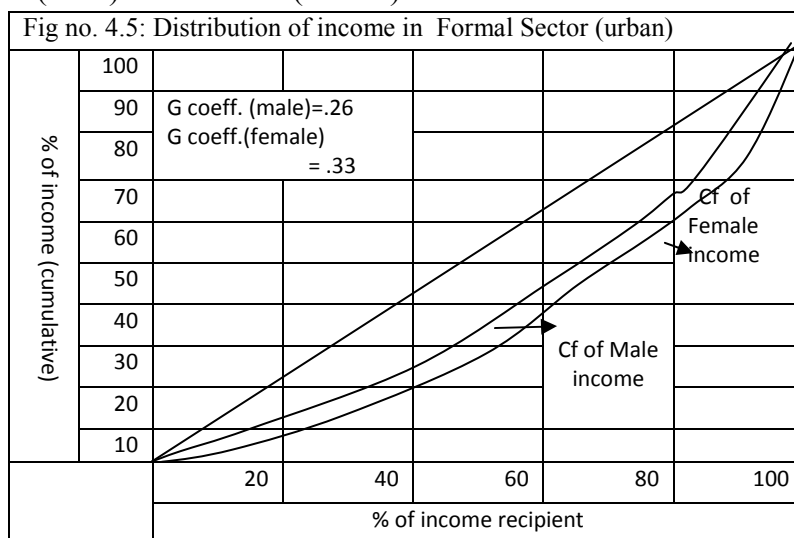
(iii) Urban formal sector:

Table 4.26: Income distribution in formal sector in the sample urban areas during 2011-12

Income	Mean income of Male	% of male	Cf of male %	% of income	Cf of male income %	Mean income of female	% of female	Cf of female %	% of income	cf of female income %
Upto 5000	2475	1.52		0.14		4060	2.94		0.48	
5001-10000	8760	3.79	5.31	1.26	1.4	9428	10.59	13.53	3.97	4.45
10001-5000	13589	14.39	19.7	7.43	8.83	13466	17.06	30.59	9.14	13.59
15001-0000	19133	22.73	42.43	16.52	25.35	18559	20	50.59	14.77	28.36
20001-5000	24134	21.97	64.4	20.14	45.49	23561	17.65	68.24	16.54	44.9
25001-0000	28612	12.88	77.28	13.99	59.48	28541	10	78.24	11.35	56.25
30001-5000	33720	3.79	81.07	4.85	64.33	33444	5.29	83.53	7.04	63.29
35001-0000	39400	3.79	84.86	5.67	70	39708	7.06	90.59	11.15	74.44
40001 & above	52135	15.14	100	30	100	68256	9.41	100	25.56	100
Sub-total	26330	100		100		25136	100		100	

Source: Sample Survey, 2011-12

GC (male)=.26 and GC (female)=.33



In urban formal sector, the average income of female was Rs.25, 136, which is somewhat lower than male average of Rs.26,330. The data show that more of urban formal workers were within the middle income group for both male and female.

In urban area 1.52% male received the lowest income of 0.14% of total income (average of Rs. 2475 per month), whereas the highest income earner consists of 15.15%

received 30% of total income (average of Rs.52,135 per month). Among female, the lowest were 2.94% whose income was 0.48% of total income (average of Rs.4060 per month), the highest income earner consists of 9.41% who received 25.56% of their respective total income (average of Rs. 68256 per month). The income distribution is relatively equitable among male (as its GC is .26) than that of female (with GC of .33) in urban formal sector.

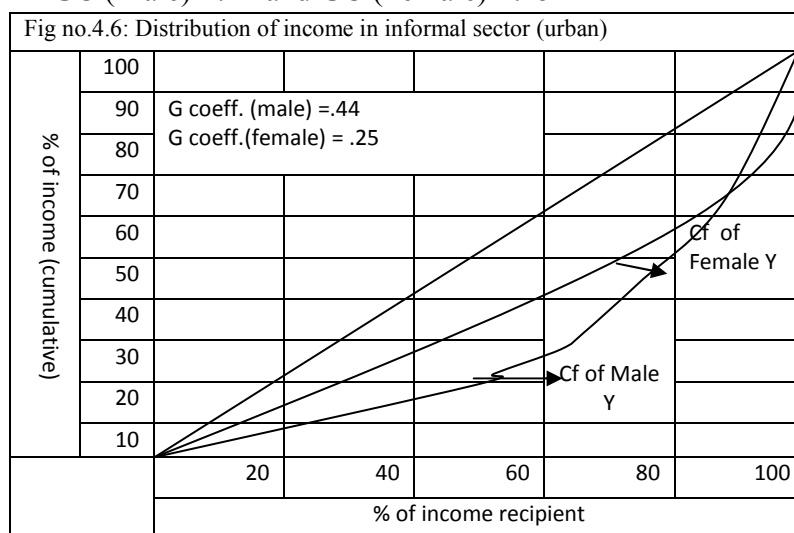
(iv) Urban Informal Sector:

Table 4.27: Income distribution in informal sector in the sample urban areas during 2011-12

Income	Mean Income in Rs. (male)	% of male	CF of male %	% of income	CF of income	Mean income in Rs. (female)	% of female	CF of female workers %	% of income	Cf of income (female) %
Upto 5000	5000	3.33		0.74		3333	18.75		5.6	
5001-10000	8333	50	53.33	18.44	19.18	9405	65.63	84.38	55.32	60.92
10001-15000	13000	3.33	56.66	1.92	21.1	15000	6.25	90.63	8.4	69.32
15001-20000	20000	6.67	63.33	5.9	27	19500	3.13	93.76	5.46	74.78
20001-25000	25000	3.33	66.66	3.69	30.69	-	-		-	-
25001-30000	30000	10	76.66	13.27	43.96	-	-		-	-
30001-35000	-	-	-	-	-	-	-		-	-
35001-40000	40000	10	86.66	17.7	61.66	40000	3.12	96.88	11.2	85.98
40001 & above	65000	13.34	100	38.34	100	50000	3.12	100	14.02	100
Sub-total	22600	100		100		11156	100		100	

Source: Sample Survey, 2011-12

GC (Male) =.44 and GC (Female) =.25



The average monthly income of male workers was higher than female in urban informal sector in sample data (Rs.22600 and Rs.11156, respectively). In this sector, 3.33% of male were in the lowest spectrum of income distribution who receive 0.74% of total income (average of Rs.5000 per month), and for female it was 18.75% who receive 5.60% of total

income (average monthly income of Rs.3333). As for the highest income, male consist of 13.33% of workers who receive 38.35% of income (with an average of Rs.65,000 per month) and for female workers 3.13% receive 14.01% of their respective total income (average of Rs.50000 per month). 90% of the female workers are confined within the income range of Rs.5000 to Rs.15000, receiving about 69% of the income, while 6% at the top receiving 25% of the income. For male, about 86.66% of workers receive only 62% of income while 13% at the top receive 38% of income.

The distribution of income is more equitable among female with GC of .25, while for male it is relatively unequal distribution with GC of .44.

Average income of the female workers was lower than that of male in both formal (16.10%) and informal (143.63%) sectors in rural area. The same in urban area was only 4.75% in formal sector and informal sector it was 102.58%. The fact reveals that although male average income in both the sectors and areas are higher, the income gap among gender is much higher in informal sector than the formal sector.

Moreover, female workers are concentrated by and large at the lower spectrum of the income distribution especially among informal workers in both rural and urban areas as indicated by cumulative frequency distributions of workers and income. In formal sector, they are generally concentrated in the middle income groups in both rural and urban areas.

Gini Coefficient values indicate that in informal sector income distribution are comparatively inequitable among male as compared to female and vice versa for formal sector.

4.8 INCOME AND EXPENDITURE BY GENDER

(i) Income of Male and Female headed households :

Male headed households (MHHs) are studied often but studies relating to women headed households (FHHs) are few. Under adverse familial conditions, if women become the heads then they are required to assume different roles and responsibilities and have to act as providers, protectors, and guides for other dependent members. In the present study, attempt has been made to locate the numbers of the households where the heads were women vis-à-vis men.

In both the areas under study, men were found to be the heads of households with the exception of a very few households headed by women in the sample area. Income and expenditure per month for male and female headed households were studied in the sample rural and urban areas.

Male and female headed households:

In the sample total there were 439 households headed by male comprised of 279(63.55%) in rural area and 160(36.45%) in urban area, and female headed total was 64 comprised of 24(37.50%) in rural and 40(62.50%) in urban area.

In rural area, there were a total of 279 MHHs and 24 FHHs, consists of 134(48.03%) in Mokokchung, and 145(51.97%) in Tuensang male headed. FHHs consists of 16(66.67%) in Mokokchung and 8 (33.33%) in Tuensang. MHHs constituted 92% of total households and only 8% were female headed.

In urban there was 160 MHHs, consisting of 85(53.12%) in Mokokchung and 75(46.88%) in Tuensang, and female headed were 40 comprised of 15(37.50%) and 25 (62.50%) households from Mokokchung and Tuensang respectively. In sample aggregate 81% of male and only 19% female.

Average Monthly Income by Household Heads:

Table 4.28 (a): Household average monthly income by gender in rural areas during 2011-12

Districts	MHH		FHH		Total	
	No. of H/h	Average monthly income(in Rs)	No. of H/h	Average monthly income (in Rs)	No. of H/h	Average monthly Income(in Rs)
Mkg-Rural	134	24515	16	27875	150	24820
Tsg-Rural	145	14226	8	10150	153	14012
Rural Total	279	19167	24	21633	303	19363
Mkg-Urban	85	58188	15	35200	100	54740
Tsg-Urban	75	35502	25	25880	100	33097
Urban Total	160	47554	40	29375	200	43918
Rural-total	279	19167	24	21633	303	19363
Urban-total	160	47554	40	29375	200	43918
Nagaland	439	29513	64	26472	503	29126

Source: Sample Survey, 2011-12

Rural Area:

Household average monthly income was estimated for male and female headed households, separately in the sample. It was found that the average monthly income of FHHs in rural area of Mokokchung was higher than MHHs by 13.70%. The average monthly income of male MHHs was Rs.24, 515 and FHHs was Rs.27, 875 in Mokokchung. In Tuensang, the average monthly income of MHHs was Rs.14, 226 and for female headed it was as low as Rs.10, 150, showing higher income for MHHs by 40%. In aggregate, income of FHHs was more than MHHs by 12.86% (at Rs.21633 and Rs.19167 per month, respectively).

Urban Area:

In aggregate the average monthly income of male and female headed households in urban sample area was Rs.47554 and Rs.29375 respectively, that MHHs was higher by

61.88%. The average monthly income of MHHs was Rs.58188 and FHHs was Rs.35200 in Mokokchung; show a gap of 65%. In Tuensang the average monthly income of MHHs was Rs.35502 and for FHHs it was Rs.25880, with a gap of 37%.

Sample Total:

In total, household's average monthly income by gender in Nagaland reveals that the income of MHHs Rs.29513 was higher than FHHs by 11% (Rs.26472).

The data shows that the average monthly income is higher with MHH than that of FHH in sample aggregate. But the rural aggregated sample data show the same is higher with FHH by 12.86% and in Mokokchung by 13.70%. In urban area it was higher with MHH by 61.88%. By area concern, the average income was higher for female headed households than MHHs in rural area and vice versa in urban area and in sample aggregate.

(ii) Expenditure of Male and Female headed households

Table 4.28(b): Household average monthly expenditure by gender

Districts	MHHs		FHHs		Total	
	No. of H/H	Average monthly expenditure(in Rs)	No. of H/H	Average monthly expenditure (in Rs)	No. of H/h	Average monthly expenditure(in Rs)
RURAL						
Mkg-	134	17809	16	16800	150	17701
Tsg-	145	11368	8	9000	153	11244
Total	279	14461	24	14200	303	14441
Urban						
Mkg-	85	39447	15	23733	100	37090
Tsg-	75	23490	25	16752	100	218055
Total	160	31967	40	19370	200	29448
Sample Total						
Rural	279	14461	24	14200	303	14441
Urban	160	31967	40	19370	200	29448
Nagaland	439	20842	64	17431	503	20408

Source: Sample Survey, 2011-12

Rural Area:

The average monthly expenditure of rural area shows that the MHH's expenditure is higher by 2% at Rs.14461 and Rs.14200 for FHHs. By area, rural Mokokchung, expenditure of FHHs was higher than MHHs as their average income was also higher. In rural area, average income was low and expenditure of a household is dependent on its monthly income and therefore spent accordingly. In Tuensang, FHH's expenditure was lower than that of MHHs

Urban Area:

The average monthly expenditure in urban area was much higher for male headed households (by 65%) with Rs.31967 and Rs.19370 for FHHs in aggregate. In both the districts

the average monthly expenditure was higher for MHHs. This will imply that the income of FHHs is lower hence their expenditure is also lower affecting the standard of living of female headed households.

Sample Total:

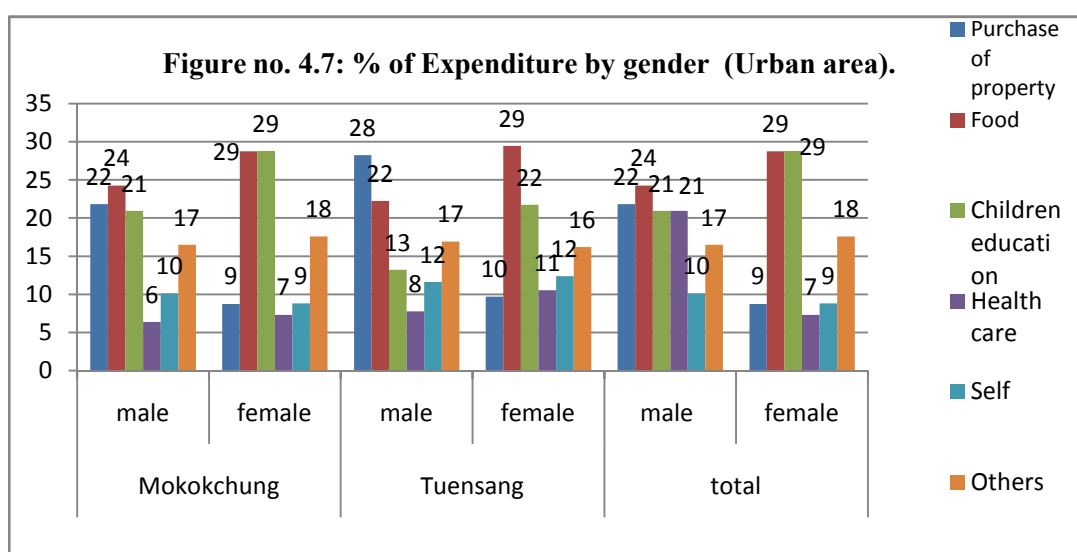
Average monthly expenditure of 439 MHHs was Rs.20842 and the same for 64 FHHs was Rs.17431, that MHH’s expenditure is higher by 20%.

By area, rural area comprised of 279 MHHs whose monthly expenditure was Rs.14461, and 24 FHHs average monthly expenditure was Rs.14200, with a marginal difference of 2%. In urban area average monthly expenditure was higher with Rs. 31967 for 160 MHHs than 40 FHHs with an average of Rs.19370, with a significant difference of 65%.

The fact reveals that the average monthly expenditure is determined by average income. That rural Mokokchung, expenditure of FHHs was higher than MHHs as their average income was also higher. In rural area, average income was low and expenditure of a household is dependent on its monthly income and therefore spent accordingly. The income of FHHs is lower hence their expenditure is also lower affecting the standard of living of female headed households.

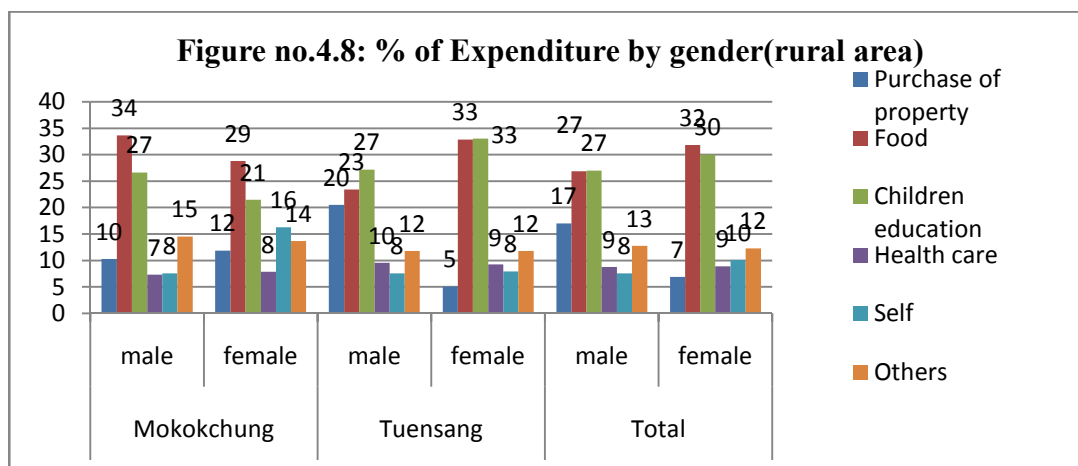
(iii) Household Expenditure by gender

The expenditure pattern of male and female seem to differ, where female tend to spend relatively more on human development related items than the male. This underscores the importance for women to work and earn income not just for her status but for the welfare of her family and community at large.



Source: Sample Survey, 2011-12

In urban aggregated data, among female the major expenditure is incurred on food and children education (29% each). For male it is on food (24%), followed by property (22%), children education and health care (21% each). In sample districts, urban female in Mokokchung spent mainly on food and children education (29% each) while in Tuensang it is on food (29%). Among urban male in Mokokchung spent by and large on food and next on property, and in Tuensang it is on property (28%). Expenditure on self, health care and others are lower irrespective of gender.



Source: Sample Survey, 2011-12

In rural aggregate data as shown in figure no.4.8, both male and female incurred higher expenditure on food and children education, but the expenses on those items are relatively higher with the female than that of male. Expenditure on property is relatively higher among male.

4.9 TIME SPENT FOR WORK

Table 4.29: Differences in time spent by gender

Area	ACTIVITIES (in hours per person)										
	Sex	Household activities					Economic activities			Social	Total
		Cooking	Washing & cleaning	Child care & children education	Fuel & Water collection	Sub total	Marketing buying & selling	Place Of work	Sub total		
Mokokchung											
Rural	M	0.34	1.24	0.30	0.41	2.29	0.24	5.57	6.21	1.10	10.00
	F	2.52	2.06	2.16	0.50	7.24	1.26	5.69	7.35	1.52	16.51
Urban	M	0.55	1.09	0.52	0.07	2.23	0.46	5.44	6.30	1.21	10.14
	F	2.20	2.03	1.17	0.16	5.56	1.36	5.58	7.34	1.28	14.58
Tuensang											
Rural	M	0	1.83	0	0.70	2.53	0	4.40	4.40	2.43	9.36
	F	2.99	2.76	2.70	1.40	9.85	0	3.72	3.72	1	14.57
Urban	M	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	4.00	1.00	2.00	3.00	1	7.00
	F	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	4.00	1.00	2.00	3.00	3.26	9.26

Source: Sample Survey 2011-12

Differences in time spent are taken for household activities, economic activities and social activities in hours per person.

Household activities:

The average time spent for all household chores is much higher for female in both rural and urban areas (7.24 and 5.56 hours per day, respectively) as compared to male average (2.29 and 2.23 hours per day, respectively). Among the household activities, for female, more time is spent on cooking in both rural (2.52 hours) and urban areas (2.20 hours). For male, it is on washing in both rural and urban areas (1.24 and 1.09 hours per day)

The average time spent for all household chores is much higher for female in both rural and urban areas of Tuensang (9.85 and 4.00 hours per day, respectively) as compared to male average (2.53 and 4.00 hours per day, respectively). Among the household activities, for female, more time is spent on cooking in both rural (2.99 hours) and urban areas (1.00 hours). For male, it is on washing in both rural (1.83 hours per day) and urban areas for all household activities time spent was (1.00 hours per day).

Economic activities:

Moreover, in both rural and urban areas, it is female who spent more time on economic activities (7.35 and 7.34 hours, respectively) as compared with male average time (6.21 and

6.30 hours, respectively). However, among the activities, male spent longer time in the place of work than female in both rural and urban areas. But for marketing (selling and buying) and other economic activities, female spent more time than that of male.

In both rural and urban areas of Tuensang, it is female time spent on economic activities is lower than male, which shows (3.74 and 3.00 hours, respectively) as compared with male average time (4.40 and 3.00 hours, respectively). However, among the activities, male spent longer time in the place of work 4,40 hours in rural area and for female it was 3.72 hours per day. In urban area it was 2 hours each for both male and female. But for marketing (selling and buying) it was nil in rural area and 1 hour each for both male and female.

Social activities:

The average time spent on social activities is found to be relatively equal between male and female in Mokokchung. In rural Tuensang male spent more time in social activities and in urban area it was female who spent more time.

Thus, time spent for household, economic and social activities it was female who spend more time in both rural and urban area (16.51 and 14.58 hours per day) in Mokokchung as compared to male (10.00 and 10.14 hours per day). As for Tuensang total time spent for the three activities in rural and urban area show that female time spent is higher with (14.57 and 9.26 hours per day as compared to male (9.36 and 7.00 hours per day)

Thus, the average time spent by a working female for household chores economic activities and social activities is found to be considerably higher as compared to male. Many working women respondents have mentioned that time management is difficult; women get torn between their personal and professional lives. Women who are in paid employment, working in farms, working in family enterprises or their own business establishments are still viewed as the family manager back home. Most women cannot spare their time to attend training programs because they have to shift from their place of work to household works. Women are expected to return home at a certain time, cook, clean and take care of family affairs. Women usually work longer hours to fit all their work in. From the study it is obvious that many women put in almost equal hours in household activities, which is an unpaid work, and to paid employment. Self employed women usually work at home to save time and to attend to children and take care of household chores. However, for male, their major time is spent in work place and minimum time in household chores. That women are doubled burdened with household activities that they do not get time for leisure or personal

development and care. Yet their contribution for the welfare of the family is not recognized or counted in many cases.

ANNEXURE –

Annexure no.4.1: District wise Total Workers and Work Participation rate in 2001

District	Total Workers								
	Total			Rural			Urban		
	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F
1.Mon	128915	72038	56977	124282	68726	55556	4633	3312	1321
2.Tuensang	185209	100080	85129	177178	93473	83705	8031	6607	1424
3.Mokokchung	108779	60612	48167	97827	52474	45353	10952	8138	2814
4.Zunheboto	62057	32598	29459	55653	28025	27628	6404	4573	1831
5.Wokha	56453	31424	25029	47982	25244	22738	8471	6180	2291
6.Dimapur	102260	77351	24945	60269	40090	20179	41991	37225	4766
7.Kohima	134689	76318	58371	108951	57365	51586	25738	18953	6785
8.Peren	71620	37382	34238	65244	33243	32001	6376	4139	2237
Nagaland	849982	487767	362215	737386	398640	338746	112596	89127	23469

Source: Census of India 2001, Series 13, Nagaland

Annexure no.4.2: District wise Total workers and work participation rate in 2011

District	Total Workers								
	Rural			Urban			Total		
	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F
1.Mon	134666	71272	63394	12988	8153	4835	147654	79425	68229
2.Mokokchung	78030	42235	35795	22037	14849	7188	100067	57084	42983
3.Zunheboto	70154	35083	35071	9312	6095	3217	79466	41178	38288
4.Wokha	66122	34332	31790	12290	7761	4526	78412	42096	36316
5.Dimapur	76858	45699	31159	74492	53946	20546	151350	99645	51705
6.Phek	70745	35416	35329	9532	6140	3392	80277	41556	38721
7.Tuensang	84747	44370	40377	13407	8561	4846	98154	52931	45223
8.Longleng	27677	14450	13227	2891	1823	1068	30568	16273	14295
9.Kiphire	27302	13828	13473	4657	2951	1706	31959	16780	15179
10.Kohima	71818	39590	32228	43007	28550	14457	114825	68140	46685
11.Peren	52241	27636	24605	9149	4613	4536	61390	32249	29141
Nagaland	760360	403912	356448	213762	143445	70317	974122	547357	426765

Source: Primary Census Abstract, Data Highlights Nagaland, Series 14

Annexure no.4.3: Sectoral Employment in Nagaland in 2001

Sectors	Rural			Urban			Nagaland		
	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F
Cultivators	537861	268540	269321	6572	3068	3504	544433	271608	272825
Agricultural Labourers	32842	17673	15169	1010	468	542	33852	18141	15711
H/H industry Workers	14702	4923	9779	2370	1606	1764	18072	6529	11543
Other Workers	151981	107504	44477	101644	83985	17659	253625	191489	62136
Total	737386	398640	338746	111596	89127	23469	849982	487767	362215

Source: Census of India 2001-Provisional Population Totals, Paper-3 of 2001, Nagaland Series-1

Annexure no.4.4: Sectoral Employment in Nagaland in 2011

Sectors	Rural			Urban			Nagaland		
	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F
Cultivators	516783	250559	266224	20919	8895	12024	537702	259454	278248
Agricultural labour	55677	28133	27544	7285	3724	3561	62962	31857	31105
H/H industry workers	16259	6662	9597	6579	2821	3758	22838	9483	13355
Other workers	171641	118558	53083	178979	128005	50974	350620	246563	104057
Total	760360	403912	356448	213762	143445	70317	974122	547357	426765

Source: Census Abstract, Data Highlights, Nagaland Series 14

SAMPLE AREA TABLES:

EMPLOYMENT IN DIFFERENT SECTORS

Annexure no.4.5: Sector wise work participation in the sample rural and urban areas of Tuensang district –

District/ area	Sectors											
	Primary			Secondary			Tertiary			Total		
	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T
Tuensang												
Rural	46	79	125	47	32	79	57	33	90	150	144	294
Urban	1	-	1	4	5	9	60	80	140	65	85	150
Total	47	79	126	51	37	88	117	113	230	215	229	444
Mokokchung												
Rural	18	37	55	36	29	65	107	66	173	161	132	293
Urban	6	3	9	14	22	36	78	85	163	98	110	208
Total	24	40	64	50	51	101	185	151	336	259	242	501

Source: Sample Survey, 2011-12

Annexure no.4.6: Employment in formal and informal sector in sample areas of Nagaland during 2011-12

Area	Total workers			Formal sector			Informal sector		
	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T
Mokokchung Rural	159	130	289	110	65	175	49	65	114
Tuensang rural	148	146	294	58	33	91	90	113	203
Rural Total	307	276	583	168	98	266	139	178	317
Mokokchung urban	95	114	209	72	88	160	23	26	49
Tuensang urban	67	88	155	60	82	142	7	6	13
Urban Total	162	202	364	132	170	302	30	32	62

Source: Sample survey, 2011-12

Annexure no.4.7: Employment in formal and informal sector in sample areas of Nagaland during 2011-12

Area	Total workers			Formal sector			Informal sector		
	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T
Rural total	307	276	583	168	98	266	139	178	317
Urban total	162	202	364	132	170	302	30	32	62
Nagaland	469	478	947	300	268	568	169	210	379

Source: Sample survey, 2011-12

NATURE OF EMPLOYMENT IN FORMAL AND INFORMAL SECTOR

Annexure no.4.8: Nature of employment in formal and informal sectors (Rural)

Area	Number of persons employed			Nature of work					
				Regular			Seasonal		
	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T
Mokokchung									
Formal sector	110	65	175	110	65	175	-	-	-
Informal sector	49	65	114	29	25	54	20	40	60
Sub-Total	159	130	289	139	90	229	20	40	60
Tuensang									
Formal sector	58	33	91	58	33	91	-	-	-
Informal sector	90	113	203	13	16	29	77	97	174
Sub-Total	148	146	294	71	49	120	77	97	174
Total	307	276	583	210	139	349	97	137	234

Source: Sample Survey, 2011-12

Annexure no.4.9: Nature of employment in formal and informal sectors

Urban Area	Number of persons employed			Nature of work					
				Regular			Seasonal		
	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T
Mokokchung									
Formal sector	72	88	160	72	88	160	-	-	-
Informal sector	23	26	49	15	22	37	8	4	12
Sub-Total	95	114	209	87	110	197	8	4	12
Tuensang									
Formal sector	60	82	142	60	82	142	-	-	-
Informal sector	7	6	13	4	5	9	3	1	4
Sub-Total	67	88	155	64	87	151	3	1	4
Total	162	202	364	151	197	348	11	5	16

Source: Sample Survey, 2011-12

Annexure no:4.10: Employment by economic activities (rural)

Activity	Mokokchung			Tuensang			Total		
	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T
Cultivators	18	37	55	46	79	125	64	116	180
Vegetable vendors	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Casual labour	8	-	8	34	14	48	42	14	56
Carpentry	2	-	2	-	-	-	2	-	2
Transport	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Business/trade	25	26	51	13	16	29	38	42	80
Household industry	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
(i) Food processing	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
(ii) Tailoring/handloom/weaving	-	3	3	-	2	2	=	5	5
Other workers services	107	66	173	57	33	90	164	99	263
Political & social workers	1	-	1	-	-	-	1	-	1
Sub-total	161	132	293	150	144	294	311	276	587

Source: Sample Survey, 2011-12

Annexure no.4.11: Employment by economic activities (urban)

Activity	Mokokchung			Tuensang			Total		
	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T
Cultivators	1	1	2	1	-	1	2	1	3
Vegetable vendors	-	2	2	-	-	-	-	2	2
Casual labour	3	-	3	-	-	-	3	-	3
Carpentry	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Transport	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Business/trade	14	21	35	4	4	8	18	25	43
Household industry	-	1	1	-	-	-	-	1	1
(i)Food processing	-	-	-	-	1	1	-	1	1
(ii)Tailoring/handloom/weaving	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Other workers/ services	78	85	163	59	81	140	137	166	303
Political & social workers	2	-	2	-	-	-	2	-	2
Sub-total	98	110	208	64	86	150	162	196	358

Source: Sample Survey, 2011-12

EMPLOYMENT AND EDUCATION

Annexure no.4.12: Employment by educational level in sample rural areas

Area	Educational levels														
	Below High School			High School			Higher Secondary			Graduate			Post-graduate & above		
	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T
Mokokchung	24	30	54	52	47	99	38	25	63	38	26	64	6	3	9
Tuensang	75	99	174	48	29	77	17	8	25	10	8	18	-	-	-
Sub-total	99	129	228	100	76	176	55	33	88	48	34	82	6	3	9

Source: Sample Survey, 2011-12

Annexure no.4.13: Employment by educational level in sample urban

Area	Educational levels														
	Below High School			High School			Higher Secondary			Graduate			Post-graduate & above		
	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T
Mokokchung	5	5	10	15	20	35	15	25	40	41	41	82	20	22	42
Tuensang	6	6	12	12	31	43	17	19	36	26	22	48	5	11	16
Sub-total	11	11	22	27	51	78	32	44	76	67	63	130	25	33	58

Source: Sample survey 2011-12

Annexure no.4.14: Employment by educational level in sample areas of Nagaland during 2011-12

Area	Educational levels											
	Below High School			High School			Higher Secondary			Graduate		
	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T
MKG	29	35	64	67	67	134	53	50	103	79	67	146
TSG	81	105	186	60	60	120	34	27	61	36	30	66
NGLD	110	140	250	125	126	254	87	77	164	115	97	212
	Post-graduate & above			Total								
	M	F	T	M	F	T						
MKG	26	25	51	254	244	498						
TSG	5	11	16	216	233	449						
NGLD	31	36	67	470	477	947						

Source: Sample Survey, 2011-12

EMPLOYMENT AND INCOME

Annexure no.4.15: Employment and income of sample areas of Mokokchung and Tuensang district

Area	Total number of workers			Total Income (in rupees)		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Mokokchung Rural	159	130	289	2450600	1272350	3722950
Tuensang Rural	148	146	294	1440000	703900	2143900
Sub-total	307	276	583	3890600	1976250	5866850
Mokokchung Urban	96	113	209	2694700	2779300	5474000
Tuensang Urban	66	89	155	1458850	1850840	3309690
Sub-total	162	202	364	4153550	4630140	8783690
Nagaland	469	478	947	8044150	6606390	14650540

Source: Sample Survey, 2011-12

Annexure no.4.16: Employment and income in formal and informal sectors in the sample area during 2011-12(rural, urban and sample total)

Area	INCOME PER WORKER(monthly in Rs) in Formal sector			INCOME PER WORKER(monthly in Rs) in informal sector		
	M	F	T	M	F	T
Rural						
Mokokchung	1918500	996500	2915000	532100	275850	807950
Tuensang	1043100	491500	1534600	396900	212400	609300
Rural total	2961600	1488000	4449600	929000	488250	1417250
Urban						
Mokokchung	2208700	2521800	4730500	486000	257500	743500
Tuensang	1266850	1751340	3018190	192000	99500	291500
Urban total	3475550	4273140	7748690	678000	357000	1035000
Sample total						
Rural	2961600	1488000	4449600	929000	488250	1417250
Urban	3475550	4273140	7748690	678000	357000	1035000
Nagaland	6437150	5761140	12198290	1607000	845250	2452250

Source: Sample Survey, 2011-12

Annexure no.4.17: Employment and Income in Formal and Informal sector (rural)

Villages	No. of workers in Formal sector			INCOME		
	M	F	T	M	F	T
Ungma	31	23	54	457000	351000	808000
Mokokchung	37	25	62	787500	386500	1174000
Khensa	39	18	57	681000	212300	893300
Sub-total	107	66	173	1925500	949800	2875300
Tuensang	30	21	51	539000	332000	871000
Chare	26	11	37	469400	144500	613900
Kuthur	1	1	2	20000	15000	35000
Sub-total	57	33	90	1028400	491500	1519900
Rural total	164	99	263	2953900	1441300	4395200

Annexure no.4.17: Continued:

Villages	No. of workers in Informal sector			INCOME		
	M	F	T	M	F	T
Ungma	21	23	44	190500	208050	398550
Mokokchung	21	17	38	229600	61500	291100
Khensa	11	27	38	102000	61000	163000
Sub-total	53	67	120	522100	330550	852650
Tuensang	21	25	46	188000	137000	325000
Chare	27	37	64	76200	9600	85800
Kuthur	44	50	94	114700	70300	185000
Sub-total	92	112	204	378900	216900	595800
Rural total	145	179	333	901000	547450	1448450

Source: Sample Survey, 2011-12

Chapter V

STATUS OF WOMEN AND EMPOWERMENT

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Women's empowerment has been a topic of academic and policy discussions and debates for quite a long time now. For instance, the United Nations Millennium Declaration (2000) emphasizes the 'centrality' of women in the development process. The UNs Declaration identifies women's empowerment and promotion of gender equality as the key factors for reduction of poverty, hunger and diseases and for prompting sustainable development (WEDO, undated). While there is consensus on the importance of women's empowerment, the literature has yet to come up with a precise definition of the term. Likewise, there is no unique set of indicators that can be used to judge improvements or deteriorations in women's empowerment. The Gender Empowerment Measures indicates the extent to which a woman has influence in decision making, in professional life, and in organizations, which has been used widely in advocating the empowerment of women. Women empowerment has become a popular issue for the past few decades. Augmentation in women empowerment is as one of the strategy of UN and other international organizations for reducing poverty alleviation (Kabeer, 2001)¹⁵³. Access and control over certain resources makes some groups gain control over material resources, productive resources and human resources is clear. The control over intellectual resources, such as knowledge and information and also the capacity to have ideas and think in new ways gives a great deal of power. The objective may be equity and parity in access to resources and decision- making which influence their lives rather than a single goal (Baltiwala, 1995)¹⁵⁴.

Women empowerment is thus the process, and the outcome of the process, by which women gain greater control over material and intellectual resources, and challenge the ideology of patriarchy and the gender-based discrimination against women in all the institutions and structures of society (Baltiwala, 1995, *ibid*)¹⁵⁵. Basically, women's empowerment is the process (and its outcomes) in which women individually and collectively-become active, knowledgeable and goal oriented actors who take or support initiatives to

¹⁵³ . Kabeer, N. (2001) Reflections on the measurement of women's empowerment. In women's empowerment theory and practice, Sida studies No.3, Novum Grafishka A.B Stockholm.

¹⁵⁴ Baltiwala Srilatha, ASPBAE Defining Women Empowerment- A Conceptual Framework, Fourth World Conference on Women, Beijing, Sept. 1995

¹⁵⁵ Baltiwala, 1995, *ibid*.

overcoming gender inequalities. Hence, women's empowerment refers to a strategy to achieve gender equality as well as to the inherent capacity building processes¹⁵⁶.

The extent of empowerment of women is largely determined by three factors, viz. her economic, social and political identity and their weight age, which needs to address simultaneously. Economic empowerment ensures provision of training, opportunities for employment and income generation activities making women economically independent and self-reliant.

Status of women and traditions

Patriarchy and preference for sons run deep in most societies. Such biases are built into the institutional system as it evolves. Job opportunities, legal rights, transfer of property (often patrilineal), and reliance on sons for support in old age are typical gendered social constructs. At micro level, the family is an institution that offers support and security at the same time that it reinforces women's secondary role in society through unpaid labour, lack of legal rights (e.g. requiring a husband's permission to work or enter into contracts) and silence on domestic violence against women. Economic transformation threatens the family as a traditional institution; yet little has emerged to replace the family's role in offering security. The family as an institution needs to be reformulated to permit more equal treatment of its members. (Jaquette and Wolchik 1998;¹⁵⁷ Tinker and Summerfield 1999).¹⁵⁸ Kemp (1986) considers the use of the resource allocation model more fruitful in understanding the status of women than referring to either an economic or cultural explanation of the phenomenon.¹⁵⁹

Access to economic resources and opportunities

Access to physical and financial resources is a major problem especially for poor women and in particular for self-employed women such as hawkers, vendors, home-based workers, manual labourers and service providers. Naga women in general are hard working and they supplement to family's income. Home based work has increased among Naga women because of the growing needs and pressure exerted upon women to contribute to their family income. Women are willing to start their own business but cannot do so because they do not save and emergencies and obligations often force them to borrow heavily. Women especially

¹⁵⁶ Sabine de Rooij, (2005), Institutional Capacity for Rural Women's Empowerment, Electronic Journal of Polish Agriculture Universities, Vol.8, Issue-3)

¹⁵⁷ Jaquette, Jane S, and Sharon L. Wolchik (eds) (1998) Women and Democracy: Latin American and Central and Eastern Europe, Baltimore and London: Johns Hopkins University Press.

¹⁵⁸ Tinker, Irene and Gale Summerfield (eds) (1999) Women's Rights to House and Land: China, Laos, Vietnam, Boulder: Lynne Rienner Publishers.

¹⁵⁹ Sharon F. Kemp (1986), "How Women's Work is Perceived: Hunger or Humiliation" in Changing Division of Labour in South Asia by James Warner Bjorkman, Ed, Manohar: New Delhi.

poor and illiterate are unlikely to have the required experience and self-confidence to obtain credit from a financial institution in the formal sector. Also the institutions regulations and procedures rarely meet the needs and conditions of the woman seeking a loan. Therefore, poor self-employed women often depend on informal money lenders who charge exorbitant interest rates of 10% per day to 10% per month which are common. This is usually the start of a downward spiral of increasing indebtedness.

Employment is to bring change in the context of a women's life but nothing much has changed in the lives of Naga women especially the poor women and their access to resources. To lead a fulfilling human life one has to have economic freedom and to be economically independent one has to have unrestricted access to resources. Denied access to private and public credit from outside, women have often taken measures to help themselves, ranging from traditional group saving schemes to associations and co-operatives with a range of economic and social objectives.¹⁶⁰

One of the greatest disparities between women and men is in ownership of property (Agarwal 1994¹⁶¹; Tinker and Summerfield, 1999¹⁶²) with reforms that stress privatization and markets, women's rights to own property become even more significant. Women's traditional right to land and housing have usually come through the husband. If he dies or they are divorced, the wife frequently loses her rights to property.

The present study explored into gender differentials in the aspects of resource ownership, access to credit and subsidies, trainings, membership in organizations in the sample districts. Further assessed the difficulties faced by employed women and women's perceptions about impact of work and status. Moreover, the reasons for unemployment of women and their status, Women involvement and participation in household decision making process were studied and presented in the following sections.

5.2 OWNERSHIP OF RESOURCES BY WOMEN

Gender inequalities manifest as women and men have different access to resources, roles and responsibilities, both in the market and at the household. Land access can reduce a household's risk of poverty, but for persistent gender inequalities, when land is solely in men's hands need not guarantee female welfare. Direct land transfers to women are likely to benefit not just women but also children especially in rural area. Women with assets such as

¹⁶⁰ FAO, Gender Issues in Rural Food Security in Developing Countries, FAO, Rome, 1990.

¹⁶¹ Agarwal, Bina (1994) *A Field of One's Own: Gender and Land Rights in South Asia*, New York: Cambridge University Press

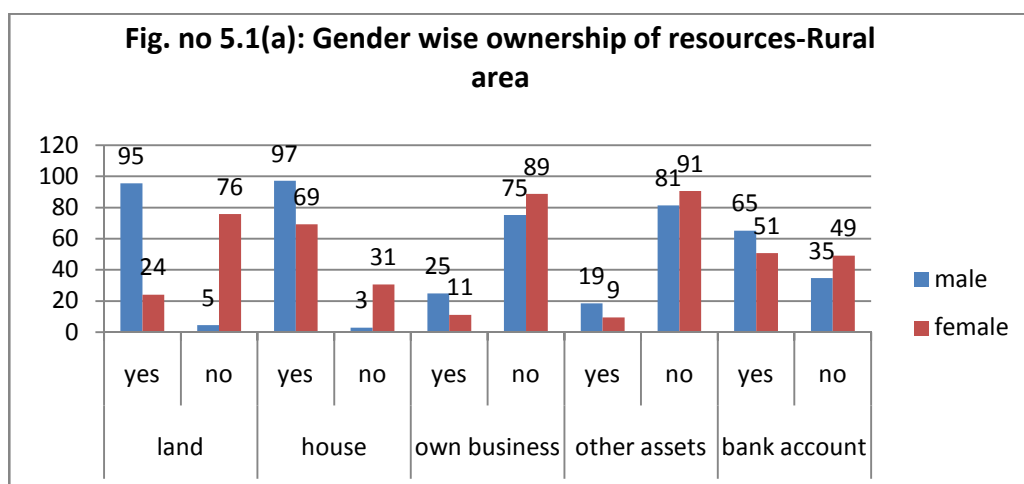
¹⁶² Tinker, Irene and Gale Summerfield (eds) (1999) *Women's Rights to House and Land: China, Laos, Vietnam*, Boulder: Lynne Rienner Publishers.

land, house etc. has greater bargaining power, which can lead to more gender-equal allocations of benefits even from male incomes. On the other hand, women without independent resources are highly vulnerable to poverty and destitution in case of desertion, divorce, or widowhood.

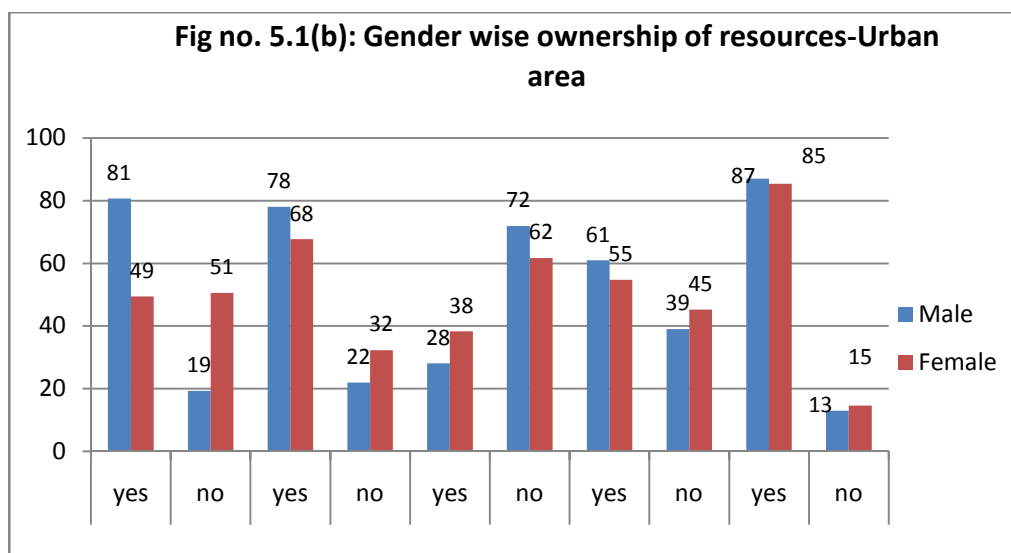
Women access especially titles can empower them to assert themselves better with agencies that provide inputs, credit and extension services. Women in many parts of country are often better informed than men about traditional practices of agriculture. If they had greater control over land and farming, this knowledge could be put to better use.

Methods to empower Women Land rights offer a key way to economically empower women, giving them the confidence they need to tackle gender inequalities. Often women in developing nations are legally restricted from their land on the sole basis of gender. Having a right to their land gives women a sort of bargaining power that they wouldn't normally have, in turn; they gain the ability to assert themselves in various aspects of their life, both in and outside of their home¹⁶³.

Ownership of productive resources such as land, house, own business, other assets, bank account etc by female respondents as compared to male was assessed in the study area and the result is as follows:



¹⁶³ Agarwal, Bina.(1994), "Land Rights for women; Making the case," in a field of one's own; Gender and Land Rights in South Asia, pp, 1-50. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.



Sources: Field Survey, 2011-12

Among female respondents, less than half of them have access to land, which proportion is lower in rural area, while among male, it is as high as 81% and 95% in urban and rural area respectively. Although lower than male proportions, female ownership to house is relatively higher in both rural and urban areas (68% in urban and 69% in rural area). Among female in urban area, 38% has own business, which is higher than male's proportion of 28%. While it was only 11% in rural area which was lower than male's proportion (25%). In urban area female owning other assets was 55% while in rural area it was only 9%. More than half of female population in the sample has bank account, which is remarkably higher among urban (85%) than rural women (51%).

Women Ownership of Resources:

Table 5.1: Ownership of resources by female in Mokokchung and Tuensang districts (%).

Area	Rural Mokokchung					Rural Tuensang				
	Land	House	Own business	Other assets	Bank Account	Land	House	Own business	Other assets	Bank Account
Responses										
Yes	15.6	36.3	14.1	16.3	85.9	15	27.1	8.8	11.6	49.3
No	84.4	63.7	85.9	83.7	14.1	85	72.9	91.3	88.4	50.7
Sub-Total	135	135	135	135	135	80	70	80	69	69
	Urban Mokokchung					Urban Tuensang				
Yes	33.3	69.4	19.4	31.3	89.8	44.4	52.2	36.7	61.1	96.7
No	66.7	30.6	80.6	68.7	10.2	55.6	47.8	57.8	38.9	3.3
Sub-Total	99	98	98	99	98	90	90	90	90	90

Source: Sample survey, 2011-12

The proportions of women who own land were significantly lower than that of male in both the sample districts. In rural area, among female population it was only 15.6% and 15% for Mokokchung and Tuensang, respectively. More of urban female population than their rural counterparts has access to land (33.3% and 44.4% for Mokokchung and Tuensang respectively). However, these proportions are much lower as compared to that of male.

Among those who owned house in rural area comprises of 36.3% in Mokokchung and 27.1% in Tuensang, urban area percentage was higher at 69.7% and 52.2% for Mokokchung and Tuensang, respectively. Female having their own business and having assets were found to be low, except for urban Tuensang where their asset holding percentage and own business was quite high as compared to the total number of female respondents.

As for banking the number of female account holders in rural area consists of 85.9% and 49.3% in Mokokchung and Tuensang respectively. In urban area it was 89.8% and 96.7 for Mokokchung and Tuensang, showing only 10.2% and 3.3% of respondents who do not have bank account in their names.

Ownership of resources by women in general is higher among urban women than that in rural area, also much lower than that of male. The limited access to productive resources for female as compared to male indicates unequal economic relations among gender in the state.

DETERMINANT OF ACCESS TO RESOURCES:

Despite the traditional impediments to women's ownership of assets and resources, it is found that the individual's income influences ownership to resources and assets, which is vital for women because it determines her economic and social status, opportunity to earn higher income, and enable better access to information. Moreover, the variations in ownership of resources between rural and urban women emerge due to differences in their average income. Hypothesis for the study as 'when women earn higher income, their access to ownership of productive resources increase' has been tested.

To examine the impact of average monthly income of women on their ownership to resources, simple regression analysis has been used and the result is given in table no. 5.2.

The resources, viz., land, house, other assets (vehicle, two wheeler, T.V, sewing machine) and bank accounts in their name are considered as dependent variables, which ownership are assumed to be influenced by the level of income (independent variable). The result of the regression analysis is as follows:

Table 5.2: Impact of Women's Income on Ownership of Resources,
A simple regression analysis

Resources	α	β	t	Std. error	F	R	Adjusted R ²	N
URBAN								
Land	.237	9.525	4.014*	.000	16.112	.33	.108	135
Houses	.381	8.937	3.698*	.000	13.675	.30	.093	135
Other Assets	.400	8.359	3.443*	.000	11.851	.91	.082	135
Bank account	.751	6.605	4.149*	.000	17.210	.34	.115	135
RURAL								
Land	.078	5.729	1.902***	.000	3.617	.14	.021	174
Houses	.249	8.212	1.92***	.000	3.686	.14	.021	174
Other Assets	.088	7.445	2.306**	.000	5.319	.17	.030	174
Bank account	.609	1.685	4.303*	.000	18.517	.31	.097	174

*Significance level at 1%, ** at 5% and ***at 10%

Source: Sample survey, 2011-12

The regression result shows that for both urban and rural women, the relationship between ownership of resources by women and their income are positive.

Among urban women, increase in their monthly income by 1%, the number of women with ownership of land goes up by 10%, houses by 9%, other assets by 8 % and bank account by 7%. The t values are |4.01|, |3.69|, |3.44| and |4.14| respectively, all of which are significant at 1% level. So the hypothesis is accepted.

Among rural women, increase in monthly income by 1% leads to an increase in ownership of resources, for land by 6%, houses by 8%, other assets by 7% and bank account by 2%, which are lower than that of urban area. This phenomenon may perhaps be due to reasons like, the influence of traditional norms are stronger in rural than in urban area in regards to ownership to resources. Further, the regression coefficient in rural area is significant at 1% level only for bank account, while for other assets are significant at 5% and, land and house are significant at 10%. So the hypothesis for rural area also is accepted.

The R² in urban area suggest that only 10% of land, 9% of houses, 8% and 11% of other assets and bank account variations are explained by income. The same in rural area is further lower with 2%, 3% and 9% for land and houses, other assets and bank account respectively.

5.3 ACCESS TO FINANCIAL RESOURCES AND SUBSIDIES:

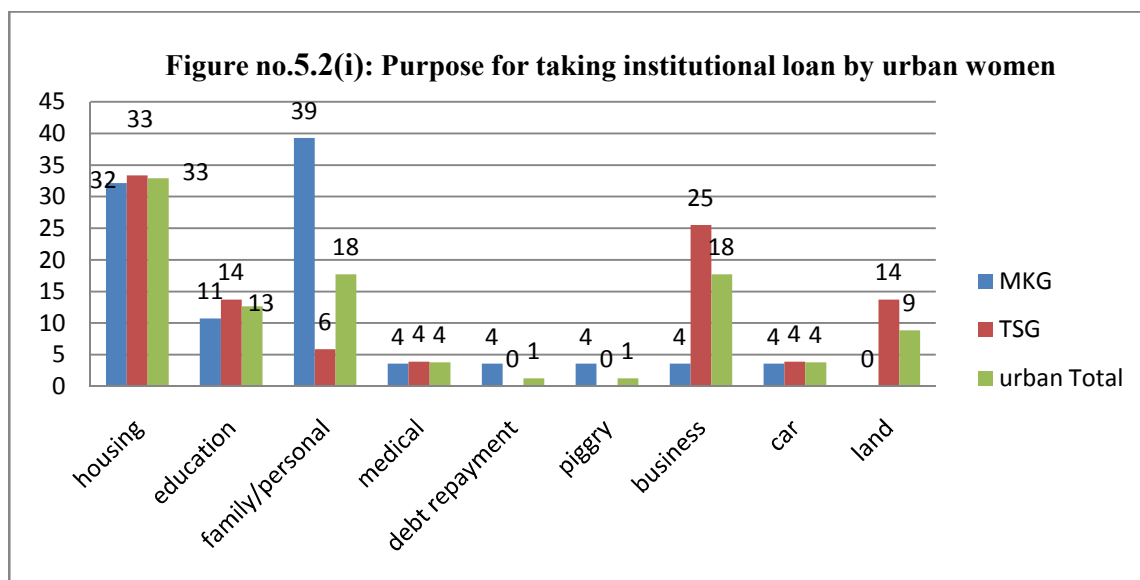
The availability of credit is essential for improving productivity and income, and also at times, for making up seasonal shortfalls. Short and long term credit is needed to buy inputs, and perhaps to set up a small-scale enterprise, such as poultry, piggery or other farm activities, construction works etc. Opening private businesses in a market environment requires assets or credit (through formal channels, money-lenders, family loans or overseas remittances etc.). Women usually have less access to either; because generally women do not have the legal right

to own land and other property. The study made a modest attempt to evaluate the gender differentials in access to credit and financial assistance of the following sources:

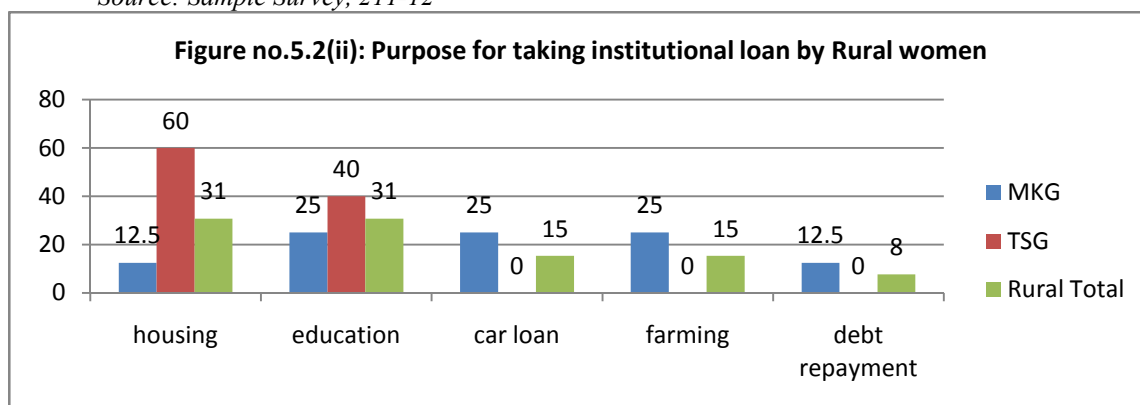
- (i) Institutional, (ii) Private loans and (iii) subsidies

(i) Institutional Loans

Out of total female respondents, 79 and 20 of urban and rural women respectively have availed institutional loans, and the purposes for taking loans are indicated as follows:



Source: Sample Survey, 211-12



Source: Sample Survey, 211-12

In both rural and urban areas, female take institutional loan mostly for construction of houses (31% and 33% respectively). In rural area, loan for children education is also equally high, followed by farming and to buy means of transportation (15% each). Debt repayment accounted for 8%. In urban area, women are availing loans for a multiple purpose, such as personal and business (18% each), children education (13%), to purchase land (9%), medical and vehicle (4% each), debt repayment and farming constituted for 1 % each. The major

source of institutional loan is from State Bank of India (96%-urban and 95% -rural), other sources are co-operative bank and NIDC.

Table 5.3: Applied for loan from financial institutions

Area	Male			Female		
	Yes	No	Total	Yes	No	total
Rural Sub-total	13.81	86.19	100.00	6.56	93.44	100.00
Urban Sub-total	40.00	60.00	100.00	64.00	36.00	100.00
Total	22.26	77.74	100.00	29.87	70.13	100.00

Source: Sample Survey, 2011-12

From the total sample male population of 210 in rural area, those who have applied for loan from financial institutions consist of 29(13.81%) and 181(86.19%) did not apply for loan. Female total respondents in rural area was 183, out of which 12 (6.56%) applied, and 171(93.44%) did not apply.

In urban area, total male respondents are 310, consist of 69 (22.26%.) who applied and 241(77.74%) did not apply for loan from financial institutions. Female total respondents in urban area was 308, out of which 92(29.87%) applied, and 216(70.13%) did not apply. The data show that, the female proportion of those applied for institutional loans is higher than that of male in urban area but it is lower than that of male in rural area.

Table 5.4: Loans not received for the following reasons

Sl no	Reasons	District	Rural			Urban		
			M	F	T	M	F	T
1	Never applied	Mokokchung	59.62	40.38	48.75	40.58	59.42	58.88
		Tuensang	60.82	39.18	30.31	48.15	51.85	40.60
		Sub total						
2	Did not apply knowing I will not get	Mokokchung	25.00	75.00	1.25	25.00	75.00	60.02
		Tuensang	60.00	40.00	6.25	-	-	-
3	Did not know	Mokokchung	22.22	77.78	2.81	-	-	-
		Tuensang	53.13	46.87	10.00	-	100	0.71
4	Applied but denied	Mokokchung	50.00	50.00	0.63	-	100	0.71
		Tuensang	-	-	-	-	-	-
Sub-Total			57.81	42.19	100	42.11	57.89	100

Source: Sample Survey, 211-12

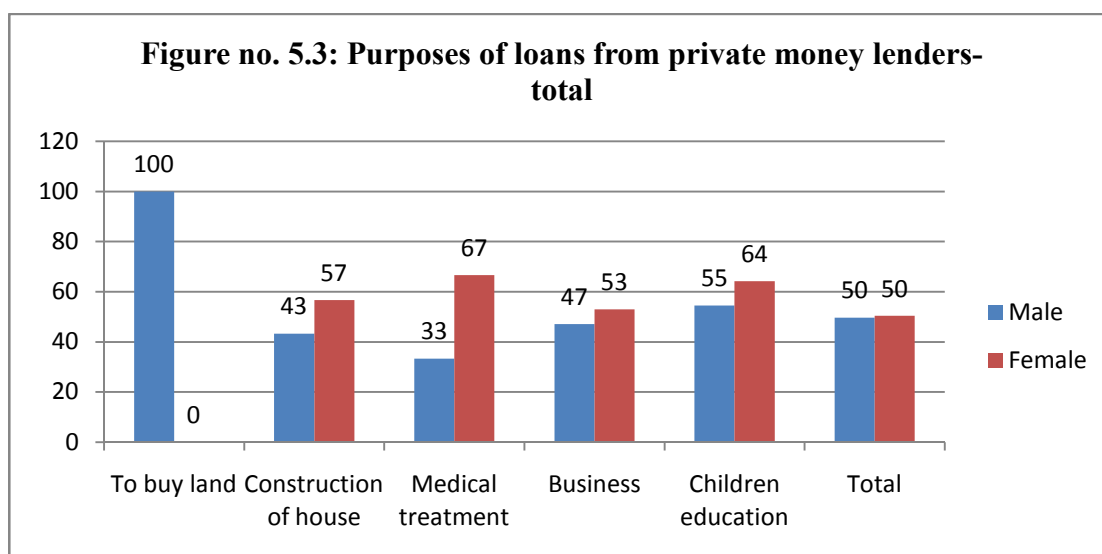
In rural area, in aggregate those who did not receive loan were for reasons like never applied comprised of 48.75% and 30.31% male and female from Mokokchung and Tuensang. Some respondents did not apply knowing they will not get where 1.25% and 6.25% from Mokokchung and Tuensang respectively. Out of this, it was mainly female who did not receive loan consisting of 75% and 40% from Mokokchung and Tuensang. Few of the respondents did

not know about such facilities offered, and some respondents were denied the loan, 50% each for both male and female.

In urban area, in aggregate 58.88% and 40.60% of male and female never applied, among which 59.42% and 51.85% female never applied. And 75% female from urban area did not apply knowing they will not get, as for male it was only 25%. Thus it is evident that female chances of getting loan from financial institutions are very slim. This is the result in part of their lack of collateral required to guarantee loans and in part of their exclusion from male-oriented information networks and extension services.

(ii) Private Loan

Out of total 137 respondents who have taken loans from private money lenders, 68 were male and 69 female. Respondents who have taken loan for purchase of land were all male. For construction of houses, health care, children education and business, the female proportions were higher than that of male. This implies that, except for purchase of land, for all other purposes, it is female, than that of male, who take higher responsibility in availing loans from private money lenders with higher rate of interest.



Source: Sample Survey, 211-12

Table 5.5: Purpose of Loan taken from private money lenders in Mokokchung and Tuensang district

Purpose	Mokokchung						Tuensang					
	Persons			Percentage			Persons			Percentage		
	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T
To buy land	1	-	1	100	-	2.33	-	-	-	-	-	-
Construction of house	5	3	8	62.5	37.5	18.60	8	14	22	36.36	63.64	23.40
Medical treatment	1	3	4	25.00	75.00	9.30	3	5	8	37.50	62.50	8.51
Business	3	6	9	33.33	66.66	20.93	5	3	8	62.50	37.50	8.51
Children education	6	15	21	28.57	71.43	48.84	36	20	56	64.29	35.71	59.57
Total	16	27	43	37.21	62.79	100	52	42	94	55.32	44.68	100

Source: Sample Survey, 211-12

From the sample population of Mokokchung there were 43 respondents who availed loan from private money lenders, of which, 37.21% were male and 62.79% female. From Tuensang there were 94 respondents, comprised of 55% of male and 45% of female who availed loan from private source. In Mokokchung, female proportion was higher than that of male for medical, children education and business loans. In Tuensang, female proportion was higher than male for construction and medical treatment. Majority of the respondents borrowed for children education, followed by construction of houses.

(iii) Access to Subsidies

Table 5.6(a): Subsidy provided for the following activities (rural & urban)

Areas	Mokokchung (persons)			Tuensang (persons)			Mokokchung (percentage)			Tuensang (percentage)		
	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T
Horticulture	1	1	2	-	-	-	50.00	50.00	15.38	-	-	-
Fishery	2	-	2	-	-	-	100	-	15.38	-	-	-
Eri silk rearing	1	1	2	-	-	-	50.00	50.00	15.38	-	-	-
Vermi compost	1	-	1	-	-	-	100	-	7.69	-	-	-
Cattle rearing	-	1	1	-	-	-	-	100	7.69	-	-	-
NREGA	1	-	1	-	-	-	100	-	7.69	-	-	-
Women welfare	-	1	1	-	-	-	-	100	7.69	-	-	-
Piggery	-	1	1	1	-	1	-	100	7.69	100	-	25.00
Handicraft	-	-	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	100	-	25.00
Plantation	2	-	2	1	-	1	100	-	15.38	100	-	25.00
Business	-	-	-	-	1	1	-	-	-	-	100	25.00
Total	8	5	13	3	1	4	61.54	38.46	100	75.00	25.00	100

Source: Sample Survey, 2011-12

Apart from loan, government also provide subsidy component to start different economic activities. Table 5. 6(a) shows that, only 17(seventeen) have received subsidy for economic activities like farming, plantation, piggery, handicrafts and business (petty trades). In

aggregate 64(71% male and 35.29% females) received subsidy for the given activities in the two districts.

In the sample area there were 13 (61.54% male and 38.46% female) beneficiaries from Mokokchung, and 4 (75% male and 25% female) beneficiaries from Tuensang. Thus, the proportion of male beneficiary is higher than female in both the sample districts.

The proportion of beneficiary is insignificant in both the sample districts, thus the study has made an attempt to explore the reasons for not availing such subsidies.

Table 5.6(b): Reasons for not receiving subsidy (rural & urban)

Reasons	Mokokchung (persons)			Tuensang (persons)			Mokokchung (percentage)			Tuensang (percentage)		
	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T
Never applied	140	160	300	126	129	255	46.67	53.33	87.72	49.41	50.59	76.58
Did not know	6	23	29	43	33	76	20.69	79.31	8.48	56.58	43.42	22.82
Denied	9	4	13	-	2	2	69.23	30.77	3.80	-	100	0.60
Total	155	187	342	169	164	333	45.32	54.68	100	50.75	49.25	100

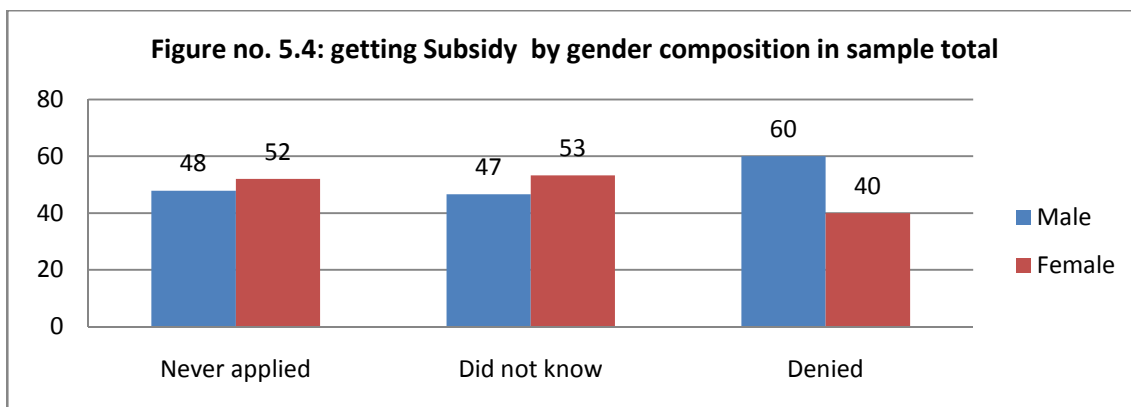
Source: Sample survey, 2011-12

The reasons for not availing or not getting government subsidies in the sample area especially by women for different schemes was examined, covering three reasons such as never applied, did not know and denied. The study showed percentage of beneficiary among women getting subsidy were negligible. The reasons from the respondents of Mokokchung district were, in total 88% were who never applied, (comprised of 53.33 % female and 46.67% of male). Out of total 8.48% who did not know about the scheme, women comprised of 79.31%, and among 3.80% who were denied, women accounted for 30.77%.

The problem in Tuensang district is worse than Mokokchung because very few from the sample population received subsidy under any scheme.

The major reasons are, for both male and female, never applied because they were not interested or not aware of such schemes. For which, it is more of women than male fall under the category.

In sample total, 82 % have not applied for, while 16% were ignorant about the schemes and 2% were denied. The gender composition for not getting subsidies in sample total is shown in figure here below



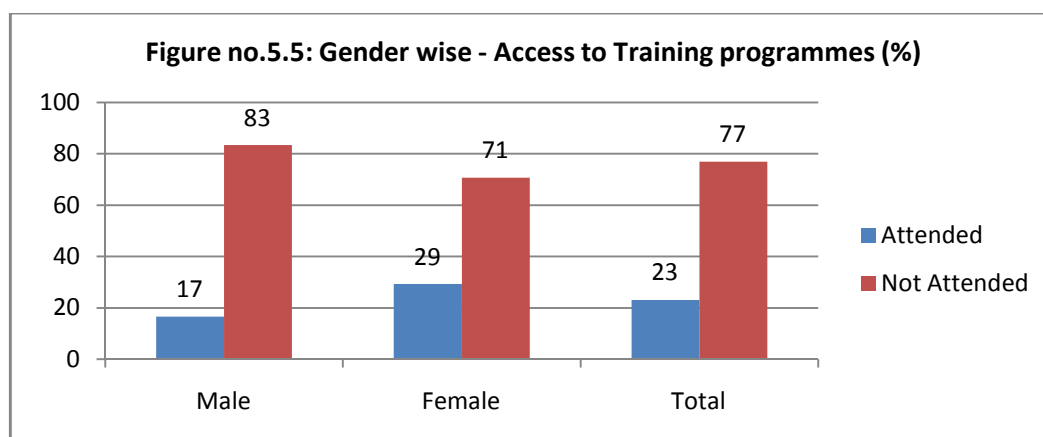
Source: Sample survey, 2011-12

Among the sample population who have never applied for subsidies and did not know, female accounted for higher proportions (52% and 53% respectively) than that of male (48% and 47%). Among those who were denied of subsidies, it is more of male (60%) than the female (40%). This reveals that lack of awareness and inactiveness is higher among female than that of male.

5.4 ACCESS TO TRAINING

A major factor contributing to women's growing participation in work is the fact that they have more educational and training opportunities opened up to them in recent years than before. Training in management skills, assertiveness training and on-the-job training in different areas to gain broader experience and knowledge of an organization's structure and functions are key instruments in providing women with the self-confidence, techniques, knowledge and contacts to move ahead in an organization and the work she has taken up to contribute to their family income.

The study has explored to the extent of trainings attended by female in the sample area. The findings are as follows:



Source: Sample survey, 2011-12

Out of total respondents of 762, only 23% had attended trainings while 77% have not. Among 369 male respondents, only 17% have attended. Whilst out of 393 female respondents, 29% have attended.

The access to training programs among the sample district is indicated in the following table.

Table 5.6(c): Access to training programs

Area	Attended (persons)			Not attended (persons)			Attended (percentage)			Not attended (percentage)		
	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T
Mokokchung	56	95	151	91	47	138	37.09	62.91	85.80	62.94	34.06	23.55
Tuensang	5	20	25	217	231	448	20.00	80.00	14.20	48.44	51.56	76.45
Total	61	115	176	308	278	586	34.66	65.34	100	52.56	47.44	100

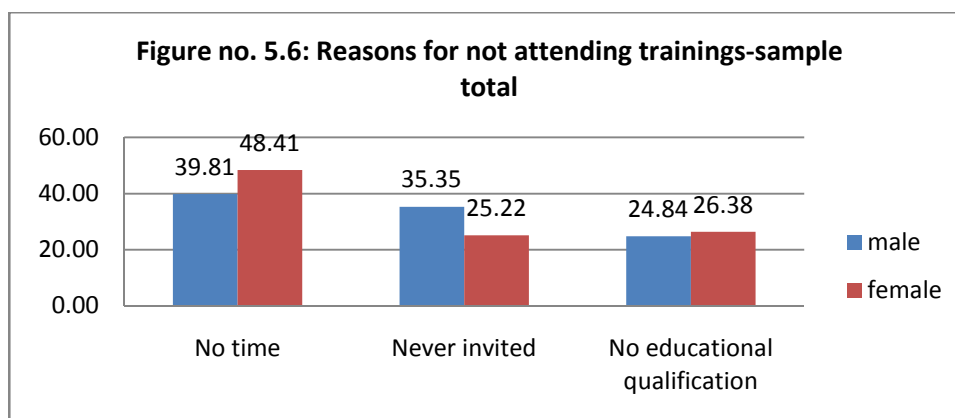
Source: Sample survey, 2011-12

Out of total respondents who have attended trainings, Mokokchung accounted for 85% and Tuensang 14%. Among those who have not attended, Mokokchung comprised of 23.55% and 76.45% of Tuensang. Thus, more sample population of Mokokchung than Tuensang has attended trainings.

Gender composition data indicated in table 5.6(c) reveals that among those who attended, male comprised of 34.66% and female of 65.34% in sample total. The same in Mokokchung district is comprised of 37.09% male and 62.91% female, and Tuensang was 20% and 80% of male and female respectively. The number of respondents who did not attend any training program is huge, that comprised of 53% of male and 47% of female in sample total. In Mokokchung it consists of 62.94% male and 34.06% of female. In Tuensang it is of 48.44% male and 51.56% female. It is evident from the data that participation in training programs is higher among female than that of male.

Reasons for not attending trainings:

Not attending training programs were observed on the basis of three reasons such as, *no time, never invited and no educational qualifications*.



Source: Sample survey, 2011-12

Figure no. 5.6 shows the reasons for not attending trainings for male and female respectively. Among female respondents, 48.41% was due to time constraints, which is higher than that of male proportion of 39.81%. Only 25% of female were never invited as compared to 35% of male. Moreover, 26% of female could not attend due to lack of requisite qualification, which for male was only 24.84%. Thus for female the major obstacle to attend training is time constraint and next is lack of educational qualification. Women are face with time poverty as she has to attend to household chores, job, child care, and social activities etc.. Otherwise such training programmers will enhance their awareness and capabilities to earn higher income.

Sample district data on reasons for not attending trainings are given in the table as follows:

Table 5.6(d): Reasons for not attending training programs (total)

Reasons	Mokokchung			Tuensang			Mokokchung (in %)			Tuensang (in %)		
	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T
No time	63	80	143	62	87	149	44.06	55.94	58.61	41.61	58.39	35.90
Never invited	36	29	65	75	58	133	55.38	44.62	26.64	56.39	43.61	32.05
No educational qualification	10	26	36	68	65	133	27.78	72.22	14.75	51.13	48.87	32.05
Total	109	135	244	205	210	415	44.67	55.33	100	49.40	50.60	100

Source: Sample survey, 2011-12

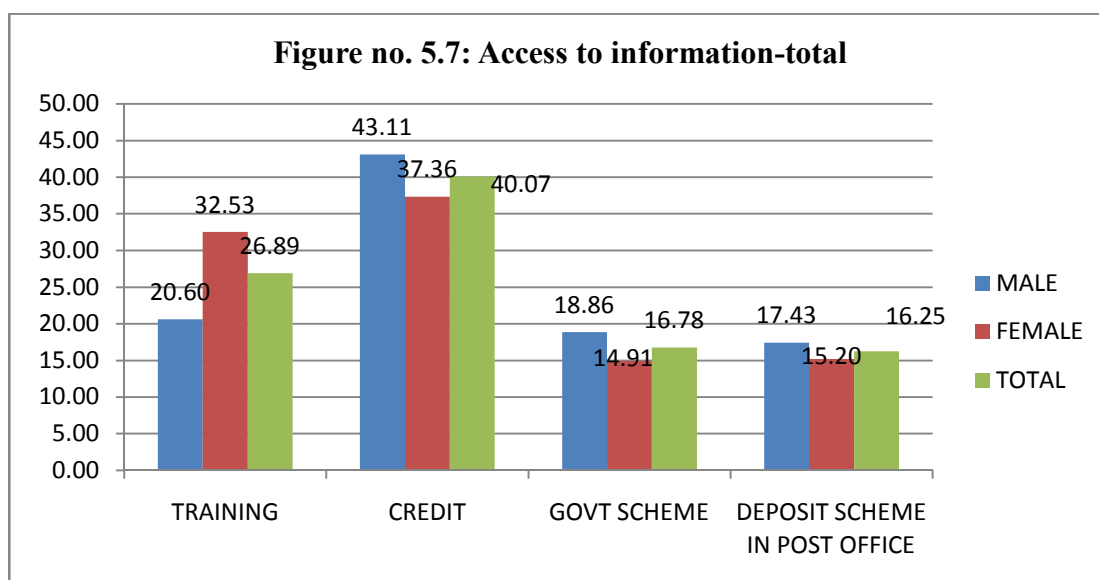
Out of the total responses in both districts, the highest was time constraint consists of 58.61% in Mokokchung (44.06% of male and 55.94% female) and 35.90% in Tuensang district (41.61% of male and 58.39% female). The other reason being never invited consists 26.64% in Mokokchung (of 55.38% male and 44.62% female), and 32.05% in Tuensang (56.39% male and 43.61% female). In Mokokchung, 14.75% (27.78% male and 72.22% female) were

with no educational qualification and for Tuensang it was 32% (comprised of 51.13% male and 48.87% female).

In both the districts, women comprised of more than 50% of respondents who did not have time to attend training programs, and no educational qualification was another constraint with higher proportion of women 72.22% and 48.87% in Mokokchung and Tuensang respectively.

5.5 ACCESS TO INFORMATION (on Trainings and Financial Resources):

Access to information for trainings and other developmental schemes are vital. The study has explored how far the respondents get access to information on trainings, institutional credit, government developmental schemes and post office deposit scheme which were on in recent past and currently on. The results are presented as follows:



Source: Sample survey, 2011-12

In sample total, the respondents who were aware of the information on credit was 40%, followed by trainings (27%) and the least aware of the post office deposit scheme (16%). Gender segregated data also show a similar situation. However, the levels of awareness are lower among female than that of male in all categories, except for trainings.

The data on sample districts is indicated in the table 5.6 (e) as follows (Annexure 5.8)

Table 5.6(e): Access to information in percentage

Schemes/ Facilities	Mokokchung					
	Yes			No		
	M	F	T	M	F	T
Trainings	42.24	57.76	30.34	53.25	46.75	28.07
Credit facilities	53.87	46.13	36.80	36.36	63.64	18.27
Govt.Schemes	52.06	47.94	10.95	43.68	56.32	31.56
Deposit schemes in post office	60.38	39.62	11.61	43.61	56.39	22.09
Total	50.71	49.29	100	45.02	54.98	100

Table 5.6(e):Continued:

Schemes/ Facilities	Tuensang					
	Yes			No		
	M	F	T	M	F	T
Trainings	15.85	84.15	19.43	48.76	51.24	30.45
Credit facilities	45.73	54.27	61.42	52.35	47.65	22.56
Govt.Schemes	60.00	40.00	7.11	46.20	53.80	27.88
Deposit schemes in post office	41.44	58.56	26.30	50.00	50.00	19.09
Total	39.81	60.19	100	49.09	50.91	100

Source: Sample survey, 2011-12

In Mokokchung, out of the total respondents there were 37% having access to information on institutional credit facilities, followed by 30% on trainings, 12% on post office deposits scheme and least was on Govt. schemes (11%). In Tuensang district, most of respondents were aware of credit facilities (61%); followed by post office deposit scheme (26%), trainings (19%), and the least was on govt. schemes (7.11%).

The gender composition data on access to information reveal that in Mokokchung, male has higher access to information than female under all categories, except for trainings where it is more of female.

5.6 MEMBERSHIP IN FORMAL ORGANIZATIONS & SELF HELP GROUPS:

An attempt has been made to find out the level of participation of women respondents in economic and social organizations and the benefits.

(i) Membership in formal organization:

Table 5.6(f): Membership in formal organizations in percentage

Area	Nature of organization					
	Economic			Social		
	M	F	T	M	F	T
Mokokchung	50.00	50.00	100	49.06	50.94	100
Tuensang	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total	50.00	50.00	100	49.06	50.94	100

Source: Sample Survey, 2011-12

The study was carried out for both male and female in the sample to find out their level of participation in formal organizations. From among the respondents of Tuensang, none have membership in any of formal organizations. Mokokchung had 14 (50% each for both male and female) in economic organizations, and 106 (49.6% male and 50.94% female) were members in different social organizations. That in Mokokchung, both women and men equally participate in socio economic organizations; whereas in Tuensang there is no participation for both sexes.

(ii) Membership in SHG:

An attempt has been made to find out the level of participation of respondents in SHGs and on whether being members in various organizations help raise their economic and social status.

Table 5.6(g): Membership in SHGs in percentage

Area	Members			Not members			Benefits			
							Economic		Social	
	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	M	F
Mokokchung	8.11	91.89	48.68	51.32	48.68	51.12	-	100	-	100
Tuensang	-	100	100	51.60	48.39	48.88	-	100	-	100
Total	3.95	96.05	100	51.46	48.54	100	-	100	-	100

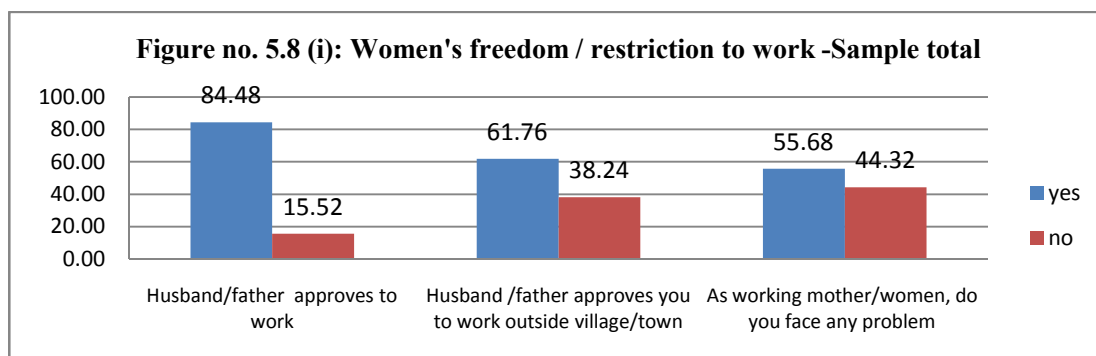
Source: Sample Survey, 2011-12

The sample data of the two districts show that members in the two districts were 76 consisting of 37 (8.11% male and 91.89% female) from Mokokchung and 39 (100% female) from Tuensang. In both the sample areas it was female who received both economic and social benefits and they were able to develop their independent personalities and have free interaction with the other female. The members take up economic activities like piggery, marketing of vegetables, cultivation of flowers, mushroom, vegetables etc. and also received credits and subsidies, gaining economic benefits.

5.7 STATUS AND VIEWS OF WORKING WOMEN

This section of the chapter assess the status of working women in terms of freedom at home, conditions at work place and her perceptions on gender relations.

(i) Freedom and Restrictions



Source: Field survey, 2011-12

Out of 277 responses, 84% have freedom to work as their husbands or fathers do not impose any restrictions on them. However, 38% of the working women have problem to go out of the town or village for work as their husbands or fathers do not approve for the same. Further, more than half (56%) of those women face various problems for being a worker.

Table 5.7(i): Women's freedom and restriction to work

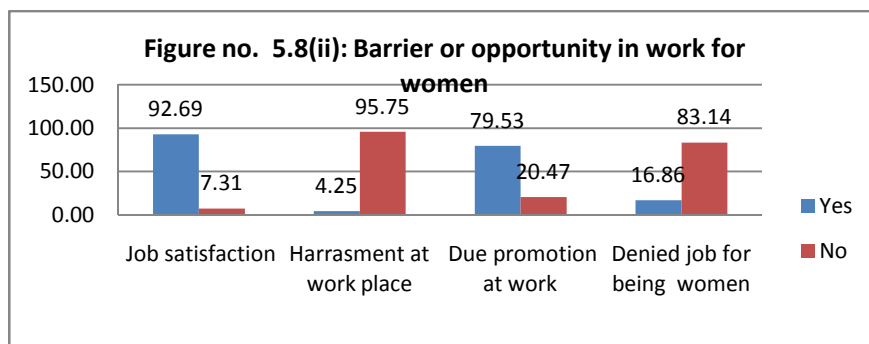
Sl no.	Particulars	Mokokchung		Tuensang		Sample total	
		yes	no	yes	no	yes	no
1	Husband/father approves to work	98.64	1.36	68.46	31.54	84.48	15.52
2	Husband /father approves you to work outside village/town	66.18	33.82	60.00	40.00	61.76	38.24
3	As working mother/women, do you face any problem at home	46.67	53.33	65.12	34.88	55.68	44.32

Source: Field survey, 2011-12

As compared the sample districts, Mokokchung is comparatively advance than Tuensang in terms of literacy and economically, as such, women in Mokokchung has more freedom to work (98.64%) and move outside their towns/villages (66%), and less than half of the working women face problems. While for Tuensang more than half of the women respondent has freedom to work (68%) and move out for work (60%), but as high as 65% face problems for being a working woman.

(ii) Barrier and opportunities at work place

Many of the barriers to women’s empowerment and equity lie ingrained in cultural norms. Many women feel these pressures, while others have become accustomed to being treated inferior to men¹⁶⁴.



Source: Field survey, 2011-12

In sample total, regarding barriers and opportunity in work place the data show that 92% of the working women get work satisfaction from current jobs, and very few of them experience harassment in work place (4%), and nearly 80% expressed that women are given due promotion as male in their respective work places. However, about 17% of the respondents stated that they are being denied job at one time or the other for being a woman.

Table 5.7(ii): Barrier and Opportunities at work place

Sl no.	Particulars	Mokokchung		Tuensang		Sample Total	
		yes	no	yes	no	yes	no
1	Whether satisfied with the position/ job you are holding	95.00	5.00	90.00	10.00	92.69	7.31
2	Harassment of women in work place	6.47	93.53	1.67	98.33	4.25	95.75
3	Whether enjoying due promotion opportunities	71.32	28.68	88.98	11.02	79.53	20.47
4	Denied a deserving job for being a woman	7.46	92.54	27.27	72.73	16.86	83.14

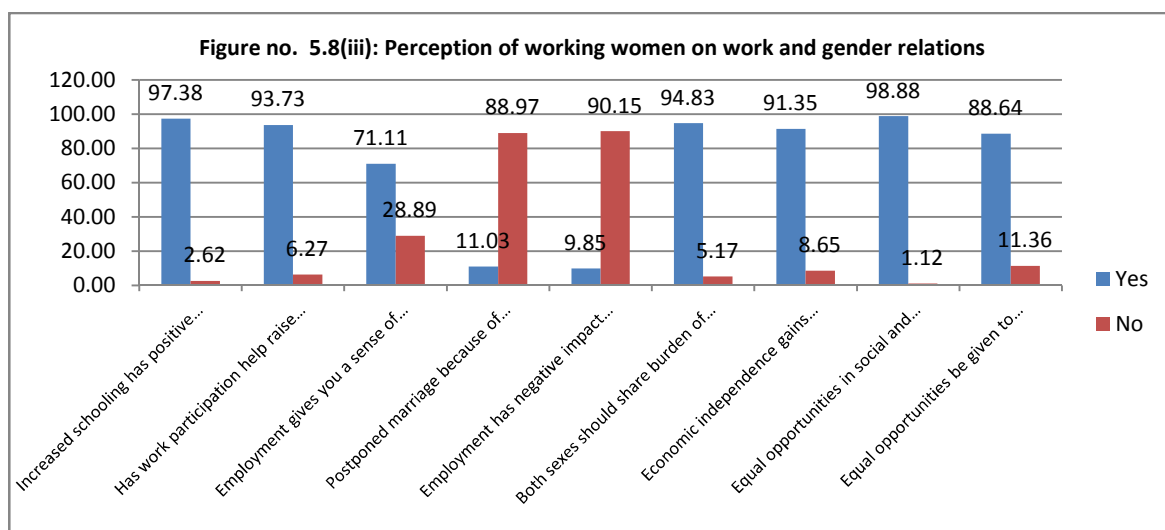
Source: Field Survey, 2011-12.

As compared the two sample districts, working women with job satisfaction and enjoying due promotion in job were high in both the districts. Harassment in work was low and denied job for being a woman was also low in Mokokchung (7%) but moderately higher in Tuensang (27.27%).

¹⁶⁴ World Survey on the Role of Women in Development, Women’s Control over Economic Resources and Access to Financial Resources, Including Microfinance. New York: United Nations.

(iii) Perceptions on work and gender relations:

The perception of working women in respect of work and gender relations results are shown in the figure here below:



Source: Sample Survey, 2011-12

More than 90% of the working women feel that education has a positive impact on work and thus influence the earnings, and that work participation helps raise women's overall status. Moreover, 71% of those working women feel that being engaged in work give them a sense of security. In addition, more than 90% of them percept that economic independence of women helps them to gain more respect in the family and society.

Furthermore, 89% of the women respondents do not agree with the arguments that employment results in postponement of marriages and more than 90% do not agree that employment is negatively impacting the fertility and chances of getting married.

Among the working women, 95% feel that both male and female should share equal responsibility at home, 99% and 89% opine that equal opportunity should be given for both male and female in social, religious and political affairs.

Table 5.7(iii): Perceptions of working women on work and gender relations

Perceptions on work and gender relations	Mokokchung		Tuensang		Sample Total	
	Yes	no	Yes	no	Yes	no
Increased schooling has positive impact on work participation and income	97.08	2.92	97.69	2.31	97.38	2.62
Has work participation help raise your standard	97.86	2.14	89.31	10.68	93.73	6.27
Employment gives you a sense of security	99.33	0.67	36.36	63.64	71.11	28.89
Postponed marriage because of employment/ studies?	14.89	85.11	6.87	93.13	11.03	88.97
Employment has negative impact on fertility and chance of marriage	12.69	87.31	6.92	93.08	9.85	90.15
Both sexes should share burden of household work equally	97.85	2.14	91.60	8.40	94.83	5.17
Economic independence gains more respect in family and society	97.79	2.21	84.62	15.38	91.35	8.65
Equal opportunities in social and religious activities	97.86	0	97.69	2.31	98.88	1.12
Equal opportunities should be given to participate in political activities.	99.25	0.75	77.69	23.31	88.64	11.36

Source: Sample survey, 2011-12

Among the sample districts, both the districts agreed on all the counts and displayed high degree of sensitization (above 80%), except for Tuensang, where only 36% of working women feels that employment gives them a sense of security.

It may be summarized that husband's/fathers' approval for wives/daughters working was more in Mokokchung than in Tuensang. The problem of working mother was found to be more in Tuensang than in Mokokchung. More than half of Women were allowed to work outside their town/village. In both the districts more than 90% of women are satisfied with the job they are holding. Harassment in work place is negligible; Women were also satisfied with the promotion opportunities. Problem faced for being a woman to get a deserving job was also relatively low. The outcome of increased schooling and work participation had positive impact on women's status.

Respondents feel that employment do not have much of impact on fertility and postponement of marriage; also they strongly feel that sharing of household burden and equal opportunities in social and religious activities is needed. Women feel that with more economic independence they gain respect in the family as well as in the society. Equal opportunities and acceptance of women in political activities is felt by women in the sample area.

5.8 REASONS FOR UNEMPLOYMENT (unable to find work)

Many women in the sample area were found to be unemployed and unable to find work. Only women respondents were taken, because they face more problems, to find out a clear picture as to why women find difficulty to find job/work in the area and as to what extent being unemployed affects their self esteem.

Table 5.8(i): Reasons for unemployment (rural & urban)

Sl no.	Reasons	Mokok.	Tuensang	Total	Mokok. (%)	Tuensang (%)	Total
1	Not enough educational qualification	58	92	150	38.67	61.33	46.73
2	To start family	21	48	69	30.43	69.57	22.74
3	To look after children	42	31	73	57.53	42.47	22.74
4	Cannot afford hired help	5	6	11	45.45	54.55	3.43
5	Husband's income is enough	17	1	18	94.44	5.56	5.61
6	Total Respondents	143	178	321	44.55	55.45	100.00

Source: Sample survey, 2011-12

In the survey 321 female responded to the given reasons, composed of 143 and 178 from Mokokchung and Tuensang respectively. In aggregate 46.73% did not have enough educational qualification of 38.67% from Mokokchung and 61.33% from Tuensang. The other reason for unemployment was to start family with 22.74% consisting of 30.43% and 69.57% from Mokokchung and Tuensang respectively.

Another reason for being unemployed was to look after children with 22.74% of the respondents from Mokokchung 57.53% and 42.47% from Tuensang. Cannot afford hired help were 3.43% in aggregate with 45.45% and 54.55% from Mokokchung and Tuensang respectively. 5.61% of the respondents contend that their husband's income was enough.

Among female the major reason for being unemployed is lack of required education, the other reasons are family related problems (nearly 50%), comprise of starting family, children related and family upkeep. Only a handful remains unemployed because her spouse income is sufficient.

It is assumed that unemployment reduces self esteem of the individual and often reduces the status in the society. Thus to examine the level of self esteem three questions were asked and the responses are presented here:

Table 5.8(ii): Responses of unemployed women in percentage

Sl no	Questions	Mokokchung		Tuensang	
		Y	N	Y	N
1	Do you have a sense of security	61.76	38.24	22.40	77.60
2	Do you go out/ travel alone or else you need company	34.72	65.28	28.13	71.88
3	Apart from domestic work do you want to venture out and pursue your interests	55.00	45.00	49.19	50.81

Source: Sample survey, 2011-12

In order to know whether or not the unemployed women have a sense of security for being unemployed, in Mokokchung 61.76% gave affirmative answer and only 38.24% feel insecure. The question of whether or not they travel alone or need company to go out/travel, only 34.72% response was yes and majority of them (65.28%) show lower self esteem by saying they need company to travel.

Apart from domestic, whether they want to venture out and pursue their interests question was posed, the responses were, little more than half (55%) of women desires to pursue their interest in life although currently unemployed and 45% has no desire to do so , which shows lower self esteem.

Out of 125 respondents from Tuensang district, only 22.40% had a sense of security even if they were not employed, but as high as 77.60% have feeling of insecurity as they were not employed and only 28.13% need company to go out/travel and 71.88% do not need company. To the other question where 49.19% wanted to go out and pursue their interests apart from their domestic chores.

The feeling of insecurity for being unemployed is higher in Tuensang district than Mokokchung , but the insecurity to go alone which show lower self confidence is higher among women in Mokokchung, and nearly half of them do not have the desire to pursue their interest as they lack self esteem.

Table 5.8(iii): Assistance received by unemployed women

Sl no.	Particulars	Mokokchung		Tuensang	
		Y	N	Y	N
1	Are you a beneficiary of NREGS	25.25	74.75	37.82	62.18
2	Are you a beneficiary of any govt. welfare scheme	16.16	83.84	12.20	87.80
3	Are you a member of any govt. developmental scheme	7.00	93.00	34.96	65.04

Source: Sample survey, 2011-12

There were 99 respondents in Mokokchung on the question on NREGS, out of which only 25.25% were beneficiaries and 74.75% were not. Out of total respondents, the beneficiaries of government welfare schemes was 16.16% and 83.84% were not beneficiaries. On government developmental scheme, only 7% were members and 93% were not.

Out of 123 respondents in Tuensang, there were 37.82% beneficiaries of NREGS and the rest 62.18% respondents were not beneficiaries. Under different government welfare schemes 12.20% were beneficiaries and 87.80% were not beneficiaries. Members of government developmental schemes were 34.96% and 65.04% were not members.

The result shows that, among unemployed women very few of them received governmental assistance in the form of wage work, welfare scheme and developmental projects. Consequently, they have low self esteem and confidence on themselves.

5.9. DECISION-MAKING:

Decision- making is an important aspect of familial network with the help of which we can understand its inner power dynamics. Scanzoni (1980).¹⁶⁵ Other scholars like (Blood & Wolfe, 1960;¹⁶⁶ Goode, 1971¹⁶⁷) opine that it is the resources of an individual which help them in playing an important role in the family decision-making. A person with greater resources would be better placed in arriving at any decision.

This section presents the result of the analysis of women’s position in the household decision making process as compared to male. To find out who wields the power in decision making of the households, eighteen different questions were included in the schedule covering different dimensions of decision making at the household level. The major dimensions of decision making in (i) home related are home management and purchase and construction of house and articles. (ii) Child related includes education, occupation and purchases for children, (iii) money related includes handling money matters especially incurring expenses utilizing the savings, and (iv) Purchases and Sales.

Gender wise Decision making:

(a) Home related matters:

Table 5.9(i): Home Related Decision making by Gender in Sample (in %)

Sl no.	Decision making dimensions	Mokokchung			Tuensang			Nagaland (Sample total)		
		Male	Female	Both	Male	Female	Both	Male	Female	Both
Rural- Home Related:										
1	Home management	4.7	21.3	74.0	3.3	28.9	67.8	4.0	25.2	70.9
2	Purchase of household articles	8.6	29.8	61.6	28.8	8.5	62.7	18.8	19.1	62.2
3	Construction of a new house	46.6	13.7	39.7	61.6	5.3	33.1	54.2	9.4	36.4
4	Repairing existing house	49.3	13.5	37.2	89.3	5.3	5.3	69.5	9.4	21.1
	Average score (Rural)	27.3	19.57	53.13	45.75	12	42.23	36.63	15.78	47.65
Urban -Home Related:										
1	Home management	1.0	54.0	45.0	2.0	67.0	31.0	1.5	60.5	38.0
2	Purchase of household articles	1.0	58.0	41.0	20.0	49.0	31.0	10.5	53.5	36.0
3	Construction of a new house	18.7	14.3	67.0	52.4	23.2	24.4	34.7	18.5	46.8
4	Repairing existing house	21.3	12.8	66.0	62.5	23.9	13.6	41.2	18.1	40.7
	Average score (Urban)	10.50	34.78	54.75	34.23	40.78	25.00	21.98	37.65	40.38

Source: Annexure 5.13 and 5.14

¹⁶⁵ Scanzoni, M.(1980). Family Decision Making: A Developmental Sex Role Model, Sage Publications, London.

¹⁶⁶ Blood and Wolfe(1960). Husbands and Wives: The Dynamics of Married Living, The Free Press, New York.

¹⁶⁷ Goode (1971), Paa 2008, Princeton.edn/papers/8013.

Rural Area:

On an average in rural sample total, home related decisions are taken by and large jointly (both male and female) in the families, especially relating to home management and purchase of household articles (70% and 62%, respectively), but regarding major investment like construction and repairing of houses, decisions are normally made by male (54% and 70%, respectively), in some cases it is taken jointly (36% and 21% respectively) but very rarely by female alone (9% each).

As comparing the sample districts, rural women in Mokokchung are better situated as its average score is 20%, having relatively more influence in decisions of construction and repairing of houses and purchases as compared to rural women in Tuensang (12%).

Urban Area:

The decision regarding home related matters, contrary to rural women, the average score of urban women is higher (38%) than that of male (22%); however, generally it is taken jointly (40%).

In the two sample districts, comparatively urban women in Tuensang have higher influence as the average score is higher (41%) than women in Mokokchung (35%). In Mokokchung district normally it is taken jointly (55%). Whereas, in Tuensang, the average score of urban women is higher than both male and jointly.

In urban area, women enjoy greater influence over male in home management and purchases. Only in Tuensang and in sample average, men are having relatively greater influence over women in construction and repairing of houses. But in most of the households in Mokokchung as well as in sample total, it is taken jointly.

In rural area, normally it is male who takes the decision in regards to construction and repairing of houses, and it is jointly for home management and purchases, but never by female alone in general.

(b) Child Related :

Table 5.9(ii): Child Related Decision making by Gender in Sample (in %)

Sl no.	Decision making dimensions	Mokokchung			Tuensang			Nagaland (Sample total)		
		Male	Female	Both	Male	Femal	Both	Male	Female	Both
Rural-Child Related										
1	Children's arguments	3.6	35.5	60.9	10.5	10.5	79.0	7.1	22.8	70.1
2	Children's purchases	5.7	45.0	49.3	1.4	23.6	75.0	3.6	34.3	62.1
3	Medical treatment for children/family	9.1	20.3	70.6	12.2	7.4	80.4	10.7	13.7	75.6
4	Type of education for children	8.6	14.3	77.1	8.1	5.9	85.9	8.4	10.2	81.5
5	Occupation of children	8.1	14.8	77.0	8.2	4.5	87.3	8.2	9.7	82.2
	Average score (Rural)	7.02	25.98	66.98	8.08	10.38	81.52	7.6	18.14	74.3
Urban-Child Related										
1	Children's arguments	1.1	40.9	58.1	10.1	41.6	48.3	5.5	41.2	53.3
2	Children's purchases	0	78.9	21.1	0	75.8	24.2	0	77.4	22.6
3	Medical treatment for children/family	3.2	29.2	68.8	3.1	43.8	53.1	2.6	36.5	60.9
4	Type of education for children	2.2	16.7	81.1	2.3	36.8	60.9	2.3	26.6	71.2
5	Occupation of children	2.5	18.5	79	2.7	37.8	59.5	2.6	27.7	69.7
	Average score (Urban)	1.8	36.84	61.62	3.64	47.16	49.2	2.6	41.88	55.54

Source: Annexure 5.13 and 5.14

In both rural and urban areas, the average score is higher for ‘both’ (74%-rural and 56%-urban), followed by ‘female’ (18%-rural and 42%-urban) , which implies that for most of the families the child related decisions are taken jointly in both rural and urban areas. Urban women have moderately higher influence over male than that of rural women in regards to child related decisions in the families. Male alone has very limited weight in child related decisions.

In the sample districts, rural women in Mokokchung district enjoy greater influence over the male counterpart as compared to that of rural women in Tuensang in this regard, so also the urban women in Mokokchung show greater influence in regards to settlements of disputes and purchases for children. But urban women of Tuensang show greater influence over their male counterpart in regards to children medical care, education and occupation.

(c) Money Related:

Money related dimensions of decision making is considered in terms of management, keeping cash in bank, loans, and savings in one hand, and purchases and sells are examined on the other.

Table 5.9(iii): Money Related Decision making by Gender in Sample (in %)

Sl no	Decision making dimensions	Mokokchung			Tuensang			Nagaland (Sample total)		
		Male	Female	Both	Male	Female	Both	Male	Femal	Both
Rural-Money Related										
1	Money management	10.8	40.5	48.6	3.4	17.4	79.2	7.1	29.0	64.0
2	Keeping money in the bank	34.0	19.4	46.5	6.5	9.8	83.7	21.3	29.0	63.7
3	Decision on taking loan and repayment of loan	15.6	19.1	65.2	37.2	15.9	46.9	25.2	17.7	57.1
4	Saving and capital transaction	16.9	16.1	66.9	7.6	5.9	86.4	12.4	11.2	76.4
	Average score (Rural)	19.33	23.78	56.80	13.68	12.25	74.05	16.50	21.73	65.30
Urban-Money Related										
1	Money management	1	55.6	43.4	3	58.6	38.4	2	57.1	40.9
2	Keeping money in the bank	12.8	31.9	55.3	13	56.5	30.4	12.9	44.1	43
3	Decision on taking loan and repayment of loan	6	23	71	48.8	23.3	27.9	18.9	23.1	58
4	Saving and capital transaction	11.8	19.7	68.4	25	63.5	11.5	17.2	37.5	45.3
	Average score (Urban)	7.9	32.55	59.53	22.45	50.48	27.05	12.75	40.45	46.8

Source: Annexure 5.13 and 5.14

The sample data shows that in regards to money related matters, for majority of the households money management and its related decisions are being taken by both husband and wife together (jointly) in both rural and urban areas (65% and 46.8%). By gender concern, female average scores are higher than male in both areas (21.73% and 40.45%, respectively for female, whereas for male it is 16.50% and 12.75% respectively).

Management of money at home and keeping money at banks are usually the domain of female whereas, decision on taking loans and repayment and saving and capital transactions are of male domain in rural area. In urban area, female influence over male in making decisions for overall matters relating to money. District wise data show slight variations, where in urban area, female has higher influence over male in general, and in rural area too women enjoy greater influence on management of money.

(d) Purchases and Sales

Table 5.9(iv): Purchases and Sales Related Decision making by Gender in Sample (in %)

Sl no	Decision making dimensions	Mokokchung			Tuensang			Nagaland (Sample total)		
		Male	Female	Both	Male	Female	Both	Male	Female	Both
Rural-Purchases and Sales										
1	Going to bazaar for purchases	6.8	55.8	37.4	4.1	90.5	5.4	5.4	73.1	21.4
2	Buying and selling of land and livestock	30.0	15.3	54.7	29.8	15.2	55.0	29.9	15.3	54.8
3	Buying of farm inputs and implements	12.1	22.7	64.5	25.5	17.6	56.9	19.4	20.1	60.5
4	Sale of farm output	9.1	51.7	39.2	36.0	25.2	38.8	22.3	38.7	39.0
5	Buying and sale of Jewelries and moveable property	10.7	31.5	57.7	0.0	76.1	23.9	6.1	50.8	43.1
	Average Score (Rural)	13.88	35.4	50.7	19.08	44.92	36	16.62	39.6	43.76
Urban-Purchases and Sales										
1	Going to bazaar for purchases	3.2	65.3	31.6	4.2	86.3	9.5	3.7	75.8	20.5
2	Buying and selling of land and livestock	23	20	57	40.9	18.2	40.9	30.1	19.3	50.6
3	Buying of major implements	47.9	7	45.1	29	25.8	45.2	39.1	15.8	45.1
4	Sale of household outputs	10	38.3	51.7	43.6	21.8	34.5	26.1	30.4	43.5
5	Buying and sale of Jewelries and moveable property	4	32	64	9.5	35.7	54.8	5.6	33.1	61.3
	Average Score (Urban)	17.62	32.52	49.88	25.44	37.56	36.98	20.92	34.88	44.2

Source: Annexure 5.13 and 5.14

The sample total indicates that in regards to decisions on purchases and sales, for majority of the household, it is taken by both male and female jointly in both rural (43.76%) and urban areas (44%), the same for both sample districts.

In rural area, where it is either female or male alone are comprised of 39.6% and 16.62% respectively. Furthermore, the same in urban area are accounted by 34.88% and 20.92%, respectively. This implies that female has a greater influence over male in this respect.

The details of sub categories show that daily purchases at market are mostly a sphere of female in both rural and urban area (73% and 75.8%, respectively). Buying and selling of jewelry is mostly of female affair in rural area (50.8%) where as in urban area the decision is mostly made by both husband and wife. The rest of the decision dimensions are generally made by both male and female jointly.

By observing the case of either female or male alone, in rural area, female have greater influence over male in all the categories except for purchase and sale of land and livestock, where it is male who have greater influence. In urban area, for livestock, land and implements male has greater influence over female.

The analysis of data on different decision making dimensions shows that in all crucial family affairs dealing with the material resources, like construction and repairing of house, buying and selling of land and implements, and livestock, it is the men who influence the

decisions, For education and selection of occupation for children, generally the decision is taken jointly by male and female in the household.

While in areas related to “motherhood” and “housework” it is the women who are the decision makers (Table 5.9(ii)). Those areas that fall between these two spheres of income or expenditure and motherhood and housework show a high level of reciprocity in gender relations. The result suggests that in the area of home related which deals with material resources it is male who has greater influence over female.

5.10 Women in VDB

The concept of village Development Board (VDB) began to take shape during Seventh Plan period, when it was realized that there is a need to reconcile the traditional tribal institution of the Village Council, which basically comprises of male members. In Nagaland Village Council was established under the Nagaland Village and area council Act 1978. The function of village council is the authority of administering justice within the village headed by chairman known as Village Council Chairman (VCC). The village council forms an important component of the modern governance system in Nagaland. The District Planning and Development Board (DPDB) provide the needed flexibility to ensure a responsive and holistic approach towards development linking to the grassroots through the Village Development Boards. Under the finances of VDBs 25 percent or one fourth of the fund was earmarked for women welfare schemes. There are 2 women VDB members or more in each recognized village and all womenfolk take part in the village developmental works. In some villages in Nagaland women VDB is very strong, but in some they are not active. Some of the achievements of women VDB in the sample areas are, constructed their own building which is being used to start weaving unit, and purchased land, construction of waiting sheds and toilets in the village. But since the fund allocated for women was not adequate they take up other works in like plantation of banana, pineapple and ginger in the village and sell them to increase their fund. Some women VDB have generated a sizable amount of money which is used as revolving loan for the needy women in the village. Women VDB do not have the autonomy to function independently, but they are subject to the approval of the general male dominated VDB and the Village Councils. There is need to increase women representation of women to influence policy decisions proportional to their population.

Conclusion:

From the foregoing study it is evident that there are unequal economic relations among male and female in the State which also prove that female have limited access to productive resources. Most of the women are not well informed about the opportunities available for them except for trainings leading to inactivity which is higher than male. It was found that the unemployed women are insecure with no access to developmental schemes and financial assistance which affect their self esteem. As for decision making urban women have greater influence over male in home related decision making than their counterpart in rural area. But when it comes to construction and property it is usually male who take the decision or they take decision jointly in both rural and urban areas.

In short, it can be concluded that despite their hard long hours of work, equal participation in work activities along with men, women's economic status has not been elevated and the benefits of development have not reached them as is evident in terms of resources received by female.

ANNEXURE

Annexure 5.1: Ownership of resources by female in Mokokchung and Tuensang district

Area	Rural Mokokchung					Rural Tuensang				
Resources	Land	House	Own business	Other assets	Bank Account	Land	House	Own business	Other assets	Bank Account
Responses										
Yes	21	49	19	22	116	12	19	7	8	34
No	114	86	116	113	19	68	51	73	61	35
Sub-Total	135	135	135	135	135	80	70	80	69	69
	Urban Mokokchung					Urban Tuensang				
Yes	33	68	19	31	88	40	47	33	55	87
No	66	30	79	68	10	50	43	52	35	3
Sub-Total	99	98	98	99	98	90	90	90	90	90

Source: Sample Survey, 2011-12

Annexure 5.2: Ownership of resources by female in Nagaland

Area	Nagaland				
Resources	Land	House	Own business	Other assets	Bank Account
Responses					
Rural	215	205	215	204	204
Urban	189	188	188	189	188
Nagaland	404	393	403	393	392

Source: Sample survey, 2011-12

Annexure 5.3 Ownership of resources by gender in Tuensang district

Resources	Responses	Rural			Urban		
		M	F	T	M	F	T
Land	Yes	140	48	188	57	46	103
	No	5	88	93	13	33	46
	Total	145	136	281	70	79	149
House	Yes	146	152	298	56	59	115
	No	-	1	1	21	32	53
	Total	146	153	299	77	91	168
Own business	Yes	43	10	53	12	38	50
	No	89	106	195	25	30	55
	Total	132	116	248	37	68	105
Other assets	Yes	19	2	21	54	7	61
	No	83	100	183	58	21	79
	Total	102	102	204	112	28	140
Bank account	Yes	60	30	90	55	80	135
	No	86	123	209	15	18	33
	Total	146	153	299	70	98	168

Source: Sample Survey, 2011- 12

Annexure 5.4 of resources by gender in Tuensang district (rural & urban)

Resources	Responses	Rural			Urban		
		M	F	T	M	F	T
Land	Yes	74.47	25.53	66.90	55.34	44.66	69.13
	No	5.38	94.62	33.10	28.26	71.74	30.87
	Total	51.60	48.40	100	45.83	54.17	100.00
House	Yes	48.99	51.01	99.67	48.70	51.30	68.45
	No	0	100	0.33	39.62	60.38	31.55
	Total	48.83	51.17	100.00	45.83	54.17	100.00
Own business	Yes	81.13	18.87	21.37	32.43	55.88	47.62
	No	45.64	54.36	78.63	45.45	44.12	54.54
	Total	53.23	46.77	100.00	35.24	64.76	100.00
Other assets	Yes	90.47	9.52	1.96	88.52	11.48	43.57
	No	54.36	56.64	98.04	51.79	26.58	56.43
	Total	50.00	50.00	100.00	80.00	20.00	100
Bank account	Yes	66.67	33.33	30.10	45.45	54.55	80.36
	No	41.15	58.85	69.90	21.43	18.37	19.64
	Total	48.83	51.17	100.00	41.67	58.33	100.00

Source: Sample Survey, 2011- 12

Annexure 5.5: Applied for loan from financial institutions

Area	District	Male			Female		
		Yes	No	Total	Yes	No	Total
Rural	Mokokchung	21	93	114	8	110	118
	Tuensang	8	88	96	4	61	65
	Sub-total	29	181	210	12	171	183
	Urban	Mokokchung	23	34	57	29	16
Urban	Tuensang	17	26	43	51	29	80
	Sub-total	40	60	100	80	45	125
	Total	69	241	310	92	216	308

Source: Sample Survey, 2011-12

Annexure 5.6: Applied for loan from financial institutions

Area	District	Male			Female		
		Yes	No	Total	Yes	No	total
Rural	Mokokchung	18.42	81.58	54.28	6.78	93.22	64.48
	Tuensang	8.33	91.67	45.72	6.15	93.85	35.52
	Sub-total	13.81	86.19	100.00	6.56	93.44	100.00
Urban	Mokokchung	40.35	59.65	57.00	64.44	35.56	36.00
	Tuensang	39.53	60.47	43.00	63.75	36.25	64.00
	Sub-total	40.00	60.00	100.00	64.00	36.00	100.00
Total		22.26	77.74	100.00	29.87	70.13	100.00

Source: Sample Survey, 2011-12

Annexure 5.7: Did not receive loan for the following reasons

Reasons	District	Rural			Urban		
		M	F	T	M	F	T
1.Never applied	Mokokchung	93	63	156	28	41	69
	Tuensang	59	38	97	26	28	54
2.Did not apply knowing I will not get	Mokokchung	1	3	4	2	6	8
	Tuensang	12	8	20	-	-	-
3.Did not know	Mokokchung	2	7	9	-	-	-
	Tuensang	17	15	32	-	1	1
4.Applied but denied	Mokokchung	1	1	2	-	1	1
	Tuensang	-	-	-	-	-	-
Sub-Total		185	135	320	56	77	133

Source: Sample Survey, 2011-12

Annexure 5.8: Access to information(rural & urban)

Schemes/Facilities	Mokokchung						Tuensang					
	Yes			No			Yes			No		
	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T
1.Trainings	117	160	277	90	79	169	13	69	82	98	103	201
2.Credit facilities	181	155	336	40	70	110	91	108	199	78	71	149
3.Govt.Schemes	101	93	194	83	107	190	18	12	30	85	99	184
4.Deposit schemes in post office	64	42	106	58	75	133	46	65	111	63	63	126
Total	463	450	913	271	331	602	168	254	422	324	336	660

Source: Sample survey, 2011-12

Annexure 5.9: Membership in formal organizations (rural & urban)

Area	Nature of organization						Not members		
	Economic			Social			M	F	T
	M	F	T	M	F	T			
Mokokchung	7	7	14	52	54	106	161	185	346
Tuensang	-	-	-	-	-	-	228	248	476
Total	7	7	14	52	54	106	389	433	822

Source: Sample survey, 2011-12

Annexure 5.10: Membership in SHGs (rural & urban)

Area	Members			Not members			Benefits					
	M	F	T	M	F	T	Economic			Social		
							M	F	T	M	F	T
Mokokchung	3	34	37	234	222	456	-	23	23	-	24	24
Tuensang	--	39	39	225	211	436	-	32	32	-	34	34
Total	3	73	76	459	433	892	-	55	55	-	58	58

Source: Sample survey, 2011-12

Annexure 5.11: Views and impediments of employed women (rural & urban)

1. Women's freedom and restriction to work	Responses of Mokokchung			Responses of Tuensang			Total responses		
	Yes	No	Total	Yes	No	Total	Yes	No	Total
Husband approve of working	145	2	147	89	41	130	234	43	277
As working Woman/ mother do you face any problem	63	72	135	84	45	129	168	104	272
Husband/ father allow you to work outside	90	46	136	78	58	136	147	117	264
2. Barrier and Opportunities at Work Place									
Whether satisfied with the position/ job you are holding	133	7	140	108	12	120	241	19	260
Harassment of women in work place	9	130	139	2	118	120	11	248	259
Whether enjoying due promotion opportunities	97	39	136	105	13	118	202	52	254
Denied a deserving job for being a woman	10	124	134	33	88	121	43	212	255
3. Women's perceptions on work and gender relations									
Increased schooling has positive impact on work participation and income	133	4	137	127	3	130	260	7	267
Has work participation help raise your status	137	3	140	117	14	131	254	17	271
Employment gives you a sense of security	148	1	149	44	77	121	192	78	270
Postponed marriage because of employment/	21	120	141	9	122	131	30	242	272
Employment has negative impact on fertility and chance of marriage	17	117	134	9	121	130	26	238	264
Both sexes should share burden of household work equally	137	3	140	120	11	131	257	14	271
Economic independence gains more respect in family and Society	133	3	136	110	20	130	243	23	266
Equal opportunities in social and religious activities	138	-	138	127	3	130	265	3	268
Equal opportunities are given to participate in political activities.	133	1	134	101	29	130	234	30	264
Total	1664	686	2350	1369	789	2158	1761	652	2413

Source: Sample survey, 2011-12

Annexure 5.12: Responses and views of unemployed women (rural & urban)

	Mokokchung			Tuensang		
	Y	N	T	Y	N	T
1.Do you have a sense of security	63	39	102	28	97	125
2.Apart from domestic work do you want to venture out and pursue your interests	55	45	100	61	63	124
3.Are you a beneficiary of NREGS	25	74	99	45	74	119
4.Are you a beneficiary of any govt. scheme	16	83	99	15	108	123
5. Are you a member of any govt. developmental scheme	7	93	100	43	80	123
6.Do you go out/ travel alone or you need company	209	393	602	207	529	736
Total	375	727	1102	399	951	1350

Source: Sample survey, 2011-12

Annexure 5.13: Decision making by Gender in Sample rural areas

Decision making dimensions	Mokokchung				Tuensang				Nagaland			
	M	F	B	T	M	F	B	T	M	F	B	T
Home Related												
Home management	7	32	111	150	5	44	103	152	12	76	214	302
Purchase of household articles	13	45	93	151	44	13	96	153	57	58	189	304
Construction of a new house	68	20	58	146	93	8	50	151	161	28	108	297
Repairing existing house	73	20	55	148	134	8	8	150	207	28	63	298
Child Related												
Children's arguments	5	49	84	138	15	15	113	143	20	64	197	281
Children's purchases	8	63	69	140	2	33	105	140	10	96	174	280
Medical treatment for family	13	29	101	143	18	11	119	148	31	40	220	291
Type of education for children	12	20	108	140	11	8	116	135	23	28	224	275
Occupation of children	11	20	104	135	11	6	117	134	22	26	221	269
Money Related												
Money management	16	60	72	148	5	26	118	149	21	86	190	297
Keeping money in the bank	49	28	67	144	8	12	103	123	57	40	170	267
Going to bazaar	10	82	55	147	6	133	8	147	16	215	63	294
Buying and selling of land and livestock	45	23	82	150	45	23	83	151	90	46	165	301
Buying of farm inputs and implements	18	32	91	141	39	27	87	153	57	59	178	294
Sale of farm output	13	74	56	143	50	35	54	139	63	109	110	282
Decision on taking loan and repayment of loan	22	27	92	141	42	18	53	113	64	45	145	254
Saving and capital transaction	21	20	83	124	9	7	102	118	30	27	185	242
Buying and sale of Jewellery and moveable property	16	47	86	149	0	86	27	113	16	133	113	262

Source: Sample survey, 2011-12

Annexure 5.14: Allocation of Decision making by Gender in Sample Urban areas

Decision making dimensions	Mokokchung				Tuensang				Nagaland			
	M	F	B	T	M	F	B	T	M	F	B	T
Home Related												
Home management	1	54	45	100	2	67	31	100	3	121	76	200
Purchase of household articles	1	58	41	100	20	49	31	100	21	107	72	200
Construction of a new house	17	13	61	91	43	19	20	82	60	32	81	173
Repairing existing house	20	12	62	94	55	21	12	88	75	33	74	182
Child Related												
Children's arguments	1	38	54	93	9	37	43	89	10	75	97	182
Children's purchases	0	75	20	95	0	72	23	95	0	147	43	190
Medical treatment for family	2	28	66	96	3	42	51	96	5	70	117	192
Type of education for children	2	15	73	90	2	32	53	87	4	47	126	177
Occupation of children	2	15	64	81	2	28	44	74	4	43	108	155
Money Related												
Money management	1	55	43	99	3	58	38	99	4	113	81	198
Keeping money in the bank	12	30	52	94	12	52	28	92	24	82	80	186
Going to bazaar	3	62	30	95	4	82	9	95	7	144	39	190
Buying and selling of land and livestock	23	20	57	100	27	12	27	66	50	32	84	166
Buying of farm inputs and implements	34	5	32	71	18	16	28	62	52	21	60	133
Sale of farm output	6	23	31	60	24	12	19	55	30	35	50	115
Decision on taking loan and repayment of loan	6	23	71	100	21	10	12	43	27	33	83	143
Saving and capital transaction	9	15	52	76	13	33	6	52	22	48	58	128
Buying and sale of Jewellery and moveable property	4	32	64	100	4	15	23	42	8	47	87	142

Source: Sample survey, 2011-12

CHAPTER VI

FINDINGS AND CONCLUSION

The present study has been undertaken to find out the extent of work participation and the status of women. It was assumed that with female work participation the economic well being of the family will be improved and there would be a relative elevation on the status of women. The important findings of the study in the preceding chapters are highlighted below.

6.1: SOCIO-ECONOMIC PROFILE OF NAGALAND

The findings of general socio-economic profile of Nagaland and the sample areas as discussed in chapter 3 are summarized below.

6.1.1: Demographic features of the state:-

1. Population in Nagaland: According to 2011 census, the population of Nagaland is 1980602. Out of which the females accounted for 48.21%. The density of population is 119 per sq.km against the national average of 362 per sq.km in the same period.

2. Rural and urban population: In Nagaland, 71.03% of the total population resides in rural area while 28.07% in urban area. Rural proportion of Nagaland is higher than the National average of 68.84%, and urban proportion is lower than the national average of 31.16%.

3. The decadal growth of population: In Nagaland had undergone a structural break in 1951, which percentage growth trend fluctuated till this period. Thereafter, in 1961 Nagaland population has witnessed a dramatic increase by 73.35%, the highest recorded percentage increase during the twelve decades under consideration. In the subsequent decades, the population growth was consistent. However, again in 2011 census, it showed a negative growth (-0.47%).

4. Sex Ratio: According to the latest 2011 census, the sex ratio in Nagaland is 931, which is lower than national ratio of 940. The sex ratio in rural and urban areas are 940 and 908 respectively which is lower than that of India with 947 for rural and 926 for urban areas. The coefficient of variation of sex ratio among districts is low and converges during the last decade.

5. Health: The status of health in Nagaland is better than India in respect of life expectancy and infant mortality rate. The life expectancy for Nagaland in 2001 was 73.4 years which was higher than the country's average of 60.7 years during the same year. In 2010, infant mortality rate was recorded at 1.68 per thousand. Longevity in the State was highest in Mon with 75.0 years while Wokha has the lowest with 68.6 years.

6.1.2: Education

1. Literacy rate: Nagaland has attained remarkable progress in literacy rate, which stands at 80.11% in 2011, which is higher than National rate of 74.04%. The literacy rate was increased by 13.52% from 2001 to 2011 (from 66.59% to 80.11% respectively). Ranking of the State in literacy has gone up from 20th in 2001 to 15th in 2011 in the country. Literacy by sex shows that the rates for males has gone up from 71.16% in 2001 to 83.30% in 2011 and for females it has increased from 61.46% to 76.69% during the same period. For both male and female, the literacy rate is higher than the National rate of 82.14% and 65.46% respectively.

It is observed that the extent of gender gap in literacy rate has been declined over the time as its CV value has declined from 27.24% in 1981 to 14.87%, 10.42% and 5.84% in 1991, 2001 and 2011 respectively.

It is also observed that the female literacy rate has been increasing at a faster rate than male in Nagaland, which growth rates are estimated to be 3.01% and 1.80% per annum respectively during 1981-2011. That the disparity as measured by Coefficient of Variation has reduced by -4.80% per annum during the same period.

District with the highest literacy rate was found to be Mokokchung with 92.68% (comprising of 93.55% of male and 91.74% female) in 2011. The lowest literacy rate was in Mon with 56.6% (comprising of 60.38% male and 52.39% female) in the same year. The decadal growth rate of total female literacy is higher than that of the males although female literacy rate is lower than male in all the districts and in the State as well. It is also found that inter district variation is modest, which has reduced during the last decade, that its coefficient of variation falls from 23.19% in 2001 to 12.66% in 2011.

2. Enrolment in schools: In 2007-08 total enrolment from primary to higher secondary was 479732 comprising of (52.03% boys and 47.97% girls). The same in 2012-13 was 562599, showing an increase in total enrolment comprised of 50.53% boys and 49.47% girls. Enrolment in school education decreased for boys from 52.03% in 2007-08 to 50.53 in 2012-13, whereas, for girls it increased from 47.97% in 2007-08 to 49.47% in 2012-13. Though there was a decline in the enrolment of boys, girl's enrolment is still lower but shows a gradual increase.

District wise break up of enrolment data show that Dimapur had the highest enrolment at all levels of school education, while Longleng had the lowest from primary to secondary level. Enrolment at different levels shows a decreasing trend from upper primary onwards.

3. Higher education in Nagaland: In college of general education, girl's enrolment was lower, but steadily shown an increase from 38.99% in 2002-07 to 47.58% in 2008-09. In higher

professional colleges such as college of teacher education and in theological college number of girls were higher than boys. At the university level show in 2008-09 enrolment of girls was (55.08%) which was higher than boys (44.92%). In Medical and Engineering courses in 2008-09 the number of students selected to study medical and allied courses were 74% and 26% male and female and in 2012-13 it was In more challenging streams like agriculture and law the enrolment of girls was lower.

6.1.3: Gender Economic Profile of Nagaland

1. Employment: The total number of workers was 9, 74,122 in Nagaland according to 2011 census which was increased from 847796 in 2001, that shows an increase by 14.90%. Out of total working population the female proportion was only 22% while male shared 78% in 2011. Out of the total workers, 55.2% were cultivators, 6.5% agricultural labourers, 1.7% household workers and 36.0% were other workers in 2011. During the decade, the shares of agricultural and household industries have declined while the same for other services has increased in the state. However there are gender variations in employment pattern as indicated in the table below.

2. Rural and urban employment by gender: According to 2011 census in rural area, the proportion of female agricultural worker is higher (82%), comprised of 74.7% of cultivators and 7.7% of agricultural labourers higher than that male with (69%) comprised of 62% of cultivators and 7% of agricultural labourers. Similarly, among household workers the female proportion is higher (2.7%) than male (1.6%), and in other services the proportion is higher among male (29.4%) than the female (14.9%). In urban area, majority of the workers are engaged in other services for both male (89.2%) and female (72.5%). Although the proportion of workers is lower in total, more female workers are engaged in agriculture and household works (22.2% and 5.3% respectively) as against male proportions (8.8% and 2% respectively).

6.2: Sample areas:

6.2.1: Demographic Profile

(i) Population: The sample survey conducted during 2011-12 covers a total household of 503, comprised of 200 from urban area (Mokokchung-100 and Tuensang-100) and 303 from rural area (Mokokchung -150 and Tuensang-153). The total population in sample aggregate was 2261 comprised of 46.83% in Mokokchung, 53.16% in Tuensang district.

(ii) Rural and Urban distribution: In urban area, total sample population was 854, comprised of 37.77% of sample aggregate, out of which, Mokokchung and Tuensang constituted 51.17% and 48.82% respectively. Male comprised of 48.71% and female 51.28% with sex ratio of 1053.

A total of 100 sample households from were taken from Mokokchung with a population of 437 out of which 47.14% were male and 52.86% were female. The average household size in the sample town was 4.3 persons, and sex ratio 1121. From Tuensang Town a total of 100 sample households were studied with a population of 417 comprised of 50.36% male and 49.64% female. The average household size was 4.1 persons and sex ratio 986.

In rural area, total sample population was 1407, comprised of 62.23% of sample aggregate, out of which, Mokokchung and Tuensang constituted 44.21% and 55.79% respectively. Male comprised of 51.39% and female 48.61% with sex ratio of 946.

Mokokchung total rural sample household was 150, with a population of 622 (comprised of 49.36% male and 50.64% of female), with a sex ratio of 1026. Household size is 4.1.

The three sample villages of Mokokchung district are Ungma, Mokokchung, and Khensa villages with 50 sample households each, covering population of 197, 219 and 206 respectively (comprised of 46.70 % male and 53.30 % female in Ungma, 51.60 % of male and 48.40 % female in Mokokchung and 49.51% of male and 50.49% female in Khensa. Average household size was 3.9, 4.3 and 4.1 persons respectively with sex ratio of 1141, 938 and 1020 respectively.

Tuensang total rural sample household was 153, with a population of 785 (comprised of 52.99% male and 47.01% of female), with a sex ratio of 887. Household size is 5.1.

The three sample villages of Tuensang district are Tuensang, Chare and Kuthur, from each of the village the sample households taken was 50, 54 and 49 respectively, with a population of 293, 228 and 264 respectively (comprised of 55.63 % male and 44.37 % female in Tuensang, 50% each in Chare and 52.65% of male and 47.35% of female in Kuthur) . The average household size was 5.9 persons, 4.2 and 5.3 persons respectively. The corresponding sex ratios were 798, 1000 and 899 respectively.

(iii) Age composition of sample population: The total sample population is comprised mostly of adults (35-59years) with 34.45% of total sample population. Next follows junior youth (15-24years) which shared a proportion of 30.16%, followed by senior youth (25-34years) with 15.48%.

(iv)The sex ratio is 1248 for the sample aggregate. Among the different age groups in sample aggregate, it was highest for the age group of 35-59 years with 1128. While the lowest sex ratio

was found in the age group of 60 years and above with 554. The data reveals that the ratio is higher in rural area than in urban area in total sample population. However, in individual age cohort, it was higher in urban area within the age 15-24 through 35-59 and lower for 0-14 and 60 and above as compared to rural area.

Urban: As per sample data the sex ratio in the urban area was 1053, which was higher than that of 2011 census with 905. Among the sample towns, it was higher in Mokokchung with 1121 than 986 for Tuensang. Among different age groups, it ranges from 1750 for 35-59 years to 250 for 60 years and above.

Rural: As per sample data the sex ratio in rural area was 1361 as compared to 942 of the 2011 census. It was higher in Tuensang with 1608 than in Mokokchung with 1026. In the sample villages highest and lowest was Ungma and Tuensang village with 1141 and 798 respectively.

Among the age-groups, the highest sex ratio was for the age-group of 25-34 years with 1059. Tuensang district was higher with 1608 than Mokokchung at 1026.

(v) Education: Out of total sample population (827) in urban area, 250 were graduates, which accounted the highest proportion of 30%, followed by high school with 21.8% and below high school with 20.2%, and higher secondary with 17.2%. The lowest was Post graduates & above with 10.6%.

The gender segregated data also show that graduates constituted the largest proportions for both male and female sample population, however, the proportion among male 32.84% is higher than that of female (27.76%), followed by High school where the proportion among female 23.29% is higher than that of male (20.15%) and higher secondary (male proportion is higher). The fourth is below high school where the proportion is comparatively higher with female. The lowest is post graduate for both, but female proportion continues to show larger proportion (11%) than that of male (9.95%).

Majority of the sample population were graduates, while the lowest was of post graduate degree for both the sexes. Except for graduate and higher secondary, the female proportions are higher than that of male.

The urban data reveals that majority of the sample population were graduates, nevertheless the female proportion was lower than that of male (with 28% for female as against 32% for male). For relatively more developed district as Mokokchung has shown a similar distribution (37% male and 28% female). On the other hand, in Tuensang, which is one of the least developed districts, majority of the sample males population were graduate (29%), but for female it was below high school level (29%).

(a) Currently attending

Of the total sample population, 874 were currently attending schools and colleges that accounts for nearly 40% of its total, of which, the proportion of male (54%) is higher than that of female (46%).

(b) Attended:

The total number of Urban attended was 498, out of the total 46% were male and 54% female, which accounts for 60%. In Mokokchung the proportion of female graduates was highest with 32.39% which was lower than male and lowest was in below high school level with 5.63%. In Tuensang the proportion of female was highest in high school with 35.20% which was higher than male, and the lowest was 9.60% in below high school level where the percentage was seen to be higher than male.

In rural area the total number of attended in different levels of education was 838, comprised of 51.57% from Mokokchung and 48.42% from Tuensang. Mokokchung had a total sample of 427(49.65% male and 50.35% female) and Tuensang 401(49.63% male and 50.37% female). As for Tuensang, highest was in below high school level which was 52.48% higher than male percentage and lowest was found in graduate level with 3.96% lower than that of male.

(c) Never attended:

Persons who did not have formal schooling are included in 'never attended' category. Sample study showed that 0.4% of the sample population had never attended formal schooling, which comprises of 0.3% male and 0.4% female. The figures showed that women percentage of never attended category was more which also indicate that women are placed in the disadvantaged group.

6.3: ANALYSIS OF EMPLOYMENT AND WORK

Work participation and income in Nagaland which was studied in detail in Chapter 4 are summarized below:

6.3.1: Work Participation Rate 2001:

The work participation rate in 2001 was 42.7 in Nagaland, where male rate was higher than that of female rate (46.7% and 38.1%, respectively). In rural area, WPR shows a similar picture (45% -total, 47.3% male and 42.5% female), but in urban area the rate was much lower with 31%, its female rate was only 15.6%, and male was 43.8%.

A perusal of district wise data of WPR, Longleng and Mon districts show the highest (52.6% and 50%, respectively) and the lowest was Dimapur (33.4%), followed by Wokha and Zunheboto (34% and 36% respectively). As for female the WPR was highest in Longleng (52%) followed by Mon (47%) and lowest was Dimapur with (18.6%). In the entire districts, the urban rate was lower than that of rural rate, and male rate is higher than female rate in both rural and urban areas, except for Tuensang where female rate was marginally higher.

District wise work participation rate in 2011:

In total, District data in 2011 WPR among female was Peren 47.9% and the lowest is Dimapur with 24.39%. The WPR of female in rural area was 49.64% in Zunheboto and lowest is Dimapur with 33.48%, and in urban highest was Peren with 35.08% and lowest in Dimapur with 11.35%. In total among female WPR was highest in Peren with 64% and lowest Dimpur with 28.5%. The male female differences in WPR was not very high in rural area, but urban area show huge differences between male and female WPR composed of 79.16% male and only 20.84% for female.

WPR was increased by 15.49% during 2001-2011, where increase in female WPR was faster (17.32%) than male (14.35%). It was also found out that, gender gap is higher in urban area but evidences show that it is narrowing down over the period.

Employment (sample data)

In the two sample districts the total number of workers was 947 comprising of 49.52% male and 50.47% female. Among male workers 65.46% were in rural area and 34.54% were in urban area. As for female 57.74% and 42.26% were in rural and urban area respectively. This implies that the WPR was 41.88% in sample total population.

Formal and Informal workers/sector in sample area

In aggregate formal sector the total worker was 568; out of this 53.17% were in urban and 46.83 in rural areas. The total worker in the sector was comprised of 52.82% male and 47.18% female. In rural area 266 workers were in formal sector, where the proportion of male workers was found to be higher than that of female workers (63.16% male and 36.84% for female). Whereas in urban area with a total of 302 workers, the proportion of male workers was lower than that of female (43.71% male and 56.29% female).

Employment in informal sector in aggregate was 379 workers, 83% were in rural and 16.36% in urban areas; comprised of 44.13% male and 55.87% female. In both rural and urban

areas, the proportion of female was higher than that of male (43.30% male and 56.70% female in rural area and 48.39% and 51.61% in urban area)

In the sample area of Nagaland formal sector employment for male accounts for 71.43% and only 28.57% were in informal sector. In both rural and urban area higher percentage of male workers were found to be employed in formal sector with 66.46% and 79.59% respectively. Informal sector had lesser employment of 33.54% and 20.41% in rural and urban area respectively.

The rural total workers comprised of more male (52.66%) than female (47.34), while urban workers comprised of 55.49% female and 44.51% male. Similar condition is observed in both the sample districts.

Despite small variations among sample districts, in general, it may infer that the proportion of female workers is higher than that of male. Employment in rural formal sector encompasses more of male than female workers, and vice-versa in informal sector. However, in urban area female participation was found to be more than male in both the sectors.

It was found that the proportion of workers in formal sector was higher among male than that of female in total. However in informal sector the same was found to be higher among female than that of male in sample total. This was also true in both the rural and urban areas. This may be one of the reasons for per capita income differential between male and female workers.

Regular and Seasonal Workers:

Out of total 583 workers in rural area, 60% were regular workers and 40 % seasonal workers. Among 349 regular workers, 76% were in formal sector and 24% in informal sector. A total 234 seasonal workers were confined in informal sector. The same condition is found in both the sample districts.

In rural area regular workers, among female regular workers, 70.50% works in formal sector and 30.50% in informal sector. The same among male is 80% and 20%, respectively. In both the sample districts, the proportions of formal workers are higher than that of informal workers for both female and male. In total, female regular workers in formal sector was lower than male, and vice versa in informal sector.

Urban (regular workers)

Out of the total 364 workers in urban area 95.60% were regular and only 4.40 were% were seasonal workers. Among the total regular workers of 348, 86.78% were in formal sector

and 13.22% in informal sector. A total 16 seasonal workers were confined in informal sector. Almost the same condition is found in both the sample districts.

As gender segregated data show that among regular female workers, 86.29% works in formal sector and 13.71% in informal sector. The same among male is 87.42% and 12.58%, respectively. In both the sample districts, the proportions of regular formal workers are higher than that of informal workers for both female and male, but in formal sector, the female proportion is lower than that of male; however in informal sector it is higher among female than that of male.

Rural (regular workers)

In rural total, regular workers are constituted by 60.2% of male and 39.8% female, while the seasonal workers are comprised of 41.5% male and 58.5% female. The nature of employment by gender composition in rural area, the male work participation is higher than female as regular worker, whereas for seasonal workers female work participation is higher than that of male. As more women than male are concentrated in low end of the spectrum, in low paying and insecure seasonal jobs, which give negative implications on their level of income and economic status.

All the Seasonal workers are found to be confined in informal sector in both the districts, which comprised of 66.7% male and 33.3% female in Mokokchung and in Tuensang it is 75% male and 25% female.

Gender segregated data show that, among female workers in rural area, most of them are into cultivation (40.65%), which for male is only 21.36%. This is followed by services in formal sector with 35.61% among female, and 53.07% is for male. For both female and male the next activity is food processing (16.55% and 12.62%, respectively). Other activities among female are vegetable vendors, tailoring and weaving, and only 1% is into casual labour work. There are no carpenter and social workers. Among male other activities are casual labour (11%), carpentry (1.62%) and social workers. There are no tailors, weavers and vegetable vendors

The fact leads to the inference that in Nagaland majority of the female workers in rural area are engaged in informal activities, mostly of agriculture. Whereas, male are commonly engaged in formal activities/services where income are higher and regular, and also jobs are more secured.

Among the sample districts, Mokokchung being relatively developed, it has a higher proportion of rural workers in formal services than that in Tuensang (59% and 31%, respectively). For Tuensang, almost 70% are engaged in informal activities, among them

majority are into cultivation (41.84%). Comparatively, cultivators comprised of only 19% in Mokokchung.

The gender segregated data show that in both the districts, cultivation, vegetable vendors, tailoring and weaving are predominantly of female's works, whereas food processing is relatively equally shared.

Furthermore, in Mokokchung majority of male (66.88%) as well as female (49.62%) rural workers are engaged in formal services, while in Tuensang its proportions are only 38.26% of male and 22.76% of female.

Among the rural female workers, nearly 50 % in Mokokchung and 78% in Tuensang are engaged in informal activities (for male it is 34% in Mokokchung and 63% in Tuensang). Among those female informal workers in Tuensang, 53% are into cultivation, while the same is only 27% in Mokokchung. Next is food processing with 18% in Mokokchung and 15% in Tuensang.

Gender composition by activities:

The total sample cultivator in the rural area was 180, comprised of 35.56% male and 64.44% female. Total number of cultivators in rural Mokokchung was 55 comprised of 32.73% male and 67.27% female, those engaged petty business comprise of (50.98% of female and 49.02% of male), and weaving where 100% are women. In rural Tuensang 125 (comprised of 36.80% and 63.20% female) were cultivators; other activities were casual labour (25% of female and 75% of male), business mostly petty (51.90% of female and 48.10% of male), and weaving where 100% is women. In Services the workers includes 62.36% of male and 37.64% of female.

Employment by economic activities in the three villages of Mokokchung district shows that the highest number of workers was in services sector with 59.04%, followed by cultivators 19.11% and thirdly the household industries with 15.70%. The other economic activities like vegetable vendor show 1.37% only, but almost all agricultural household sell agricultural products though not in large quantity. Casual labours were 2.73% of total workers consisting of male only in Mokokchung, also carpentry 0.68% consisting of male only. Political and social workers were 0.34%.

In rural Tuensang, 41.84% were cultivators followed by services sector with 30.61% and thirdly the household industries with 13.27%. There were 2.38% vegetable vendors composed of female workers only and casual labour constitutes 9.86% which include both

male and female. Activity like Carpentry was male domain with 1.02% and in weaving only female with 1.02% workers.

In rural area, informal activities like casual labour and carpentry are exclusively taken up by male in Mokokchung and Tuensang, except for casual labour activity in Tuensang where female consists of 29.17%, and activity such as vegetable vendor, weaving are taken up by female in both the districts. In business and trade which are usually petty business were taken up by both male and female in both the districts composed of 49.02% male and 50.98% female in Mokokchung and 44.83% male and 55.17% female in Tuensang.

As urban sample aggregate data show that nearly 87% of the workers in urban area are engaged in formal services, while only 13% are in informal activities. Among the informal workers, majority of them are engaged in business (12%), followed by casual labour and cultivators (0.84% each). Others informal activities are vegetable vendors, tailoring and weaving, carpentry etc.

In urban area only 0.84% of the sample population were cultivators, in which male percentage was higher at 66.67% and 33.33% only for female. Other economic activities like casual labour accounts for 0.84%, where 100% of the workers are male, in trade 12% (comprised of 41.86% of male and 58.14% of female), vegetable vendors 0.56% in aggregate, where all workers were female. The area with highest employment was other workers/services with 84.64%, male and female worker in this sector was 45.21% and 54.79%. In other activity such as in political and social work it was 0.56%, all male where women's participation was nil. It is observed on the basis of economic activities that women actively participate in almost all the activities alongside men except in areas where socially accepted norms seem to have followed. In our society the domains are demarcated and therefore in some category of work only female work such as vegetable vendors, weaving and tailoring, food processing etc. and in some other only males do the work such as political/social workers, casual labour etc.

It is observed that in total urban work participation, female accounted for higher proportion than that of male. Among the economic activities in urban area, Services is the principal work and next is business, where in both, female participation rate is higher than that of male. Works such as vegetable vendors, weaving and tailoring, food processing etc. are domains of female. On the other, political/social workers and casual labour are of male.

Employment by education (district wise)

Rural Mokokchung:

In rural sample area of Mokokchung there were 289 workers. The employed persons were disaggregated according to their age and educational level. The total working population in sample is comprised of 50.02% male and 44.98% female in rural Mokokchung. Out of total sample population the highest proportion of workers had high school level qualification consisting of 98(53.06% male and 46.94% female), followed by higher secondary 65(61.54% male and 38.46% female), and the third was graduates 63(58.73% male and 41.27% female), followed by below high school consisting of 54 (44.44% male and 55.56% female). On the other hand the least was post-graduates with 9(66.67% male and 33.33% female).

The sample working population was further divided into four age groups 16-24 years, 25-34 years, 35-59 years and 60 years and above. In sample aggregate, the highest proportion of workers were in the age group 35-59 years, having high school qualification consisting of (53.06% male and 46.94% female), and the lowest proportion of workers were found among post-graduates and most of them were in the age group of 25-34 years consisting of (57.14% male and 42.86% female) in Mokokchung district.

Rural Tuensang:

In rural Tuensang there were 294 workers, consisting of 51.02% male and 48.98% female. Out of the total sample population, the highest number of workers was found to have below high school qualification consisting of 174(43.10% male and 56.90% female), attended high school level consists of 77(62.34% male and 37.66% female), followed by higher secondary 25(68% male and 32% female), and the least was graduates with 18(55.56% male and 44.44% female), and nil post-graduates.

The highest number of workers in rural Tuensang, were in the age group of 35-59 years with 82.31% of the total workers. The lowest was found in the age group of 16-24 years. The percentage of working population as well as attainment of education was lower among female than male in rural Tuensang.

Urban Mokokchung:

Mokokchung consist of 209(45.45% male and 54.07% female) workers and Tuensang 155(42.58% male and 57.42% female) in urban area. The workers in the area were classified into four age groups. It is seen in table 4.12 that among urban workers the highest was in the age group of 35-59 years in both the districts similar to that of rural area, and the least workers were found in the age group of 16-24 years in Mokokchung, whereas it was nil in Tuensang in

this age group. For Tuensang the least number of workers were in the age group of 60 years and above.

On the other hand, employment by education reveal that, the highest number of workforce were graduates consisting of 51.54% male and 48.46% female. The least number of workers are found to have below high school level of education consisting of 50% each for male and female in aggregate.

By gender concern, in Mokokchung among female the highest number of workers were graduates sharing the same percentage with male 50% in their respective total. The least number of workers belong to below high school where male and female share 50% respectively. In Tuensang, highest number of female workers had high school qualification composed of 73.17% in the respective total and the least number of workers is found to have below high school level education.

Distribution of workers by age in sample areas show that the highest number of workers was in the age group of 35-59 years and the lowest was in the age group of 16-24 years. Employment by education show that highest number of workers fall in the category of below high school 250(44% male and 56% female) and high school level consists of 254(49.61% male and 50.39% female). This was followed by graduates with 212 workers, where the percentage of male and female was 54.25% and 45.75% respectively. The lowest number of workers was found in the post graduate level with 67 (46.27% male and 53.73% female). This indicates that female workers have lower levels of education than male except in post graduate level where female percentage is higher.

The total number of workers in rural sample areas was 583 consisting of 289 (49.57%) from Mokokchung and 294(50.43%) from Tuensang. Employment by educational level shows that highest number of workers had only below high school level education with (43.42% for male and 56.56%for female). This was followed by high school level with 176(56.82% male and 43.18% female). In higher secondary level it was 88(62.50% male and 37.50% female), Graduates composed of 82(58.54% male and 41.46% female). The lowest was found to be in the post-graduate level with 9 (66.67% male and 33.33% female) in rural Mokokchung, it was nil in rural Tuensang.

The data also indicate that female education is lower than male at all levels of education in the rural sample areas as well as employment. Lower levels of education among female comes in the way of employment and employability.

In urban area of the two sample districts the working population is classified according to their educational levels. The total employed in urban sample population was 364 consists of (44.51% male and 55.49% female). Of the total workers Mokokchung consisted of 209 (57.42%) and Tuensang 155(42.58%). Out of the total sample the highest proportion of workers was graduates in both the districts consisting of 130(51.54% male and 48.46% female). This was followed by high school level with 78 (34.62% male and 65.38% female), and higher secondary 76(42.11% male and 57.89% female). There were 58 post graduates comprised of (43.10% male and 56.90% female). The lowest was found to be having below high school level qualification in both the districts with 22 workers, consist of 50% each of male and female in Mokokchung and 55.56% male and 44.44% female in Tuensang.

The above analysis reveal that except in the level of below high school and graduates, in all the other levels of education female employment was higher than male in the urban area.

The estimates of Employment by education in Nagaland in the two sample districts during 2011-12 show that, the highest number of workers in Nagaland was below high school level education with 28.52% in Mokokchung and 71.48% in Tuensang. The lowest was workers having post-graduate level of education consisting of 76.12% in Mokokchung and 23.88% in Tuensang. By gender concern the highest number of female workers was below high school, followed by high school level, graduates, higher secondary and the least were the post-graduates. As compared to male employment at each level of education, female accounted a higher proportion at high school and below and post graduate levels, where as male workers were more than the female workers with higher secondary and graduates levels of education.

Education and employment relations

The regression results show that in urban area, the dependence of Employment on the Levels of education is significant, while the same for rural area is insignificant. Therefore, the hypothesis stating that increase in the levels of education among female increases their employment is accepted for urban female workers, while the same is rejected for rural female workers.

As regression result indicates that for urban total, the regression coefficient is 0.106, which is significant at 1% as its 't' value is [5.64]. This implies that an additional level of education will lead to increase in employment by 10%. Its R^2 value is 0.138, which means that 14% of the variation in female employment is explained by attainment of educational levels. For urban sample districts, similar situation is observed where the regression coefficient for

Mokokchung is relatively more significant than Tuensang (at 1% and 5%, respectively as indicated by 't' values in the table).

EMPLOYMENT AND INCOME

1. Gender disparity in Income Distribution by area

The per capita income of the working population in sample total was estimated at Rs. 15,470 per month. The per capita monthly income was found to be higher among male (Rs.17152) than that of female (Rs.13821). Also by area, it was higher among male in both rural and urban areas than that of female.

The average per capita income in urban area was higher (Rs.22, 921) than that in rural area (Rs.7160). In rural area the number of female worker as well as per capita income is lower than male. In urban area, although the total female working population is more, their per capita income is lower than male; which implies that more female workers are engaged in lower paid jobs as compared to male workers.

2. Gender disparity in Income Distribution by sector

The analysis of income distribution in chapter four section 4.6 shows that more women workers are concentrated at the lower range of income distribution in the informal sector in both rural and urban areas. Whereas in the formal sector women workers are concentrated generally at the middle income range in all the areas, therefore the findings support the hypothesis.

The average monthly per capita income of rural workers in the formal sector was Rs.16728; where male income was Rs.17629 and female Rs.15184 per month. In informal sector average income was Rs.4471 and male and female income was Rs.6683 and Rs.2743 respectively.

Income earning in informal sector was found to be lower than that of formal sector, it was also found out that female income per worker is lower than male in both the districts in this sector.

The average per capita income of urban workers in the formal sector was Rs.25658 where male income was Rs.26330 and female Rs.25136 per month. In Mokokchung average per capita income of male and female was Rs.30676 and Rs.28657 respectively. In Tuensang male and female average per capita income was Rs.21114 and Rs.21358 respectively.

Workers in informal sector were less in number in both the districts. The average per capita income of informal workers in the districts was Rs.16694 and income of male and female is Rs.22600 and Rs.11156 respectively. By district in Mokokchung male income was Rs. 21130 and Rs. 9904 for female, and in Tuensang it was Rs.27429 and Rs.16583 for male and female.

In sample total income per worker in formal and informal sectors in Nagaland during 2011-12 in rural area was (Rs.17629 male and 15184 female) respectively in formal sector. Informal sector also show higher income for male at (Rs. 6683 for male and Rs. 2743 for female) respectively. In urban area income per worker in formal sector was (Rs. 26330 for male and Rs. 25136 for female), and in informal sector it was (Rs.22600 for male and Rs.11156 for female) respectively. In aggregate, the average per capita income of male and female was almost same in formal sector (Rs.21457 for male and Rs.21497 for female), and informal sector show that male income was higher than female (Rs.9509 and Rs.4025) for male and female respectively.

Education and Income:

The hypothesis, education enables women to earn higher income which is more significant in urban area is supported by the findings of the study. As the regression results show that there is positive relation between education and earnings, although the R^2 values are not high (this is expected as it is a case of cross section regression). Moreover, the levels of significance are high (at 1%). The result for sample total for urban area suggests that for every additional level of education, the average monthly income of women worker goes up by Rs.7228.57, whereas, the same for rural area leads to an increase in average monthly income of Rs. 3152.08. The intercepts are positive for both the areas, which indicate the level of average monthly income at zero level of education. The R^2 value suggests that about 23% of the variation in average monthly earnings is explained by education for urban sample total, and the same for rural area is 19%. As compare the impact of education on earnings of urban to that of rural women, it is higher with the former than the later. And the 't' values are [7.203] and [6.859] for urban and rural respectively, showing significance at 1% level. Thus, the findings support the hypothesis that education enables women to earn higher income is more significant in urban area.

Comparatively, the results between the two sample districts, in urban area, the impact of education on average monthly income is positive in both the district but relatively higher for Mokokchung with Rs. 9210.23 per month as compared to Rs.4680.15 per month for Tuensang.

This difference could be due to fact that Mokokchung being more developed than Tuensang (Tuensang is one of the least developed districts in Nagaland), so education is having relatively more significant impact. Nevertheless, both district show high level of significant of the beta coefficients (1%). Further, about 27% and 17%, respectively, of variation in average monthly income/earnings is explained by education.

In rural area, the resultant increase in earnings was relatively higher in Tuensang than Mokokchung with Rs.2802 and Rs.2352 respectively, which were significant at 1%. Moreover, only 11% and 14 % respectively, of variation in income is explained by education.

4.6. INCOME DISTRIBUTION

(i). Rural formal sector

The average income of male workers was higher than female workers in rural formal sector which were Rs.17629 and Rs.15184. From rural sample data it is found that as low as 2.28% of the total income (with Rs. 4857 in average per month) was received by 7.14% of female workers, whereas none of the male population was in the lowest level of income in the sample. The highest income earner among male was 2.38% who received 5.20% of the total income (an average of Rs. 38500 per month), as for female, highest income earned was by 1.02% of workers who received only 2.69% of their respective total. Among female workers in the sector, cumulative frequency data show that at the bottom of the income spectrum 63% of the workers receive an average monthly income of Rs. 4857 to Rs.13486, comprised of 38% of the female total income. On the other hand, the second top 6% of the female worker receive an average monthly income of Rs.29000 while the top 1% receives Rs 40,000 per month

The income is more equitably distributed among male workers (as its Gini Coefficient is 0.18) than that of female (with Gini Coefficient of 0.21). Moreover, the income of the female workers is lower and concentrated more at the lower range of income distribution.

(ii). Rural Informal Sector:

The average monthly income per worker was higher for male Rs.6683 than female with Rs.2743. The distribution of income among male workers in rural informal sector, out of total income the lowest income earned was 25.11% by 56.12% workers (with an average monthly of Rs.2991), and 51.69% female received 43.86% of the respective total income (average monthly per worker is Rs.2328). The highest income earner consists of 0.72% male, received 25.11% of income (average of Rs.97, 000 per month). For female the highest income level was only at the range of Rs.15001-20000 which was received by only 0.56% and 4.10% of the respective total

(average of Rs.20000 per worker). The income of female is uniformly low and equitable as its GC is only 0.10, while among male it is 0.33, showing relatively unequal distribution.

(iii). Urban formal sector:

In urban formal sector, the average income of female was Rs.25, 136, which is somewhat lower than male average of Rs.26, 330. The data show that more of urban formal workers were within the middle income group for both male and female.

In urban area 1.52% male received the lowest income of 0.14% of total income (average of Rs. 2475 per month), whereas the highest income earner consists of 15.15% received 30% of total income (average of Rs.52135 per month). Among female, the lowest were 2.94% whose income was 0.48% of total income (average of Rs.4060 per month), the highest income earner consists of 9.41% who received 25.56% of their respective total income (average of Rs. 68256 per month). The income distribution is relatively equitable among male (as its GC is .26) than that of female (with GC of .33) in urban formal sector.

(iv). Urban Informal Sector:

The average monthly income of male workers was higher than female in urban informal sector in sample data (Rs.22600 and Rs.11156, respectively). In this sector, 3.33% of male were in the lowest spectrum of income distribution who receive 0.74% of total income (average of Rs.5000 per month), and for female it was 18.75% who receive 5.60% of total income (average monthly income of Rs.3333). As for the highest income, male consist of 13.33% of workers who receive 38.35% of income (with an average of Rs.65,000 per month) and for female workers 3.13% receive 14.01% of their respective total income (average of Rs.50000 per month). 90% of the female workers are confined within the income range of Rs.5000 to Rs.15000, receiving about 69% of the income, while 6% at the top receiving 25% of the income. For male, about 86.66% of workers receive only 62% of income while 13% at the top receive 38% of income.

The distribution of income is more equitable among female with GC of .25, while for male it is relatively unequal distribution with GC of .44. Average income of the female workers was lower than that of male in both formal (16.10%) and informal (143.63%) sectors in rural area. The same in urban area was only 4.75% in formal sector and informal sector it was 102.58%. The fact reveals that although male average income in both the sectors and areas are higher, the income gap among gender is much higher in informal sector than the formal sector.

Moreover, female workers are concentrated by and large at the lower spectrum of the income distribution especially among informal workers in both rural and urban areas as

indicated by cumulative frequency distributions of workers and income. In formal sector, they are generally concentrated in the middle income groups in both rural and urban areas. Gini Coefficient values indicate that in informal sector income distribution are comparatively inequitable among male as compared to female and vice versa for formal sector.

4.7 INCOME AND EXPENDITURE BY GENDER

Male and female headed households:

In the sample total there were 439 households headed by male comprised of 279(63.55%) in rural area and 160(36.45%) in urban area, and female headed total was 64 comprised of 24(37.50%) in rural and 40(62.50%) in urban area.

In rural area, there were a total of 279 MHHs and 24 FHHs, consists of 134(48.03%) in Mokokchung, and 145(51.97%) in Tuensang male headed. FHHs consists of 16(66.67%) in Mokokchung and 8 (33.33%) in Tuensang. MHHs constituted 92% of total households and only 8% were female headed.

Rural Area: The average monthly income of FHHs in rural area of Mokokchung was higher than MHHs by 13.70%. The average monthly income of male MHHs was Rs.24, 515 and FHHs was Rs.27, 875 in Mokokchung. In Tuensang, the average monthly income of MHHs was Rs.14, 226 and for female headed it was as low as Rs.10, 150, showing higher income for MHHs by 40%. In aggregate, income of FHHs was more than MHHs by 12.86% (at Rs.21633 and Rs.19167 per month, respectively).

Urban Area: In aggregate the average monthly income of male and female headed households in urban sample area was Rs.47554 and Rs.29375 respectively, that MHHs was higher by 61.88%.

In total, household's average monthly income by gender in Nagaland reveals that the income of MHHs Rs.29513 was higher than FHHs by 11% (Rs. 26472).

The data shows that the average monthly income is higher with MHH than that of FHH in sample aggregate. But the rural aggregated sample data show the same is higher with FHH by 12.86%. In urban area it was higher with MHH by 61.88%. By area concern, the average income was higher for female headed households than MHHs in rural area and vice versa in urban area and in sample aggregate.

Expenditure of Male and Female headed households

(i) Sample Total:

Average monthly expenditure of 439 MHHs was Rs.20842 and the same for 64 FHHs was Rs.17431, that MHH's expenditure is higher by 20%.

By area, rural area comprised of 279 MHHs whose monthly expenditure was Rs.14461, and 24 FHHs average monthly expenditure was Rs.14200, with a marginal difference of 2%. In urban area average monthly expenditure was higher with Rs. 31967 for 160 MHHs than 40 FHHs with an average of Rs.19370, with a significant difference of 65%.

The fact reveals that the average monthly expenditure is determined by average income. That rural Mokokchung, expenditure of FHHs was higher than MHHs as their average income was also higher. In rural area, average income was low and expenditure of a household is dependent on its monthly income and therefore spent accordingly. The income of FHHs is lower hence their expenditure is also lower affecting the standard of living of female headed households.

(ii) Household Expenditure by gender

The expenditure pattern of male and female seem to differ, where female tend to spend relatively more on human development related items than the male. This underscores the importance for women to work and earn income not just for her status but for the welfare of her family and community at large.

In urban aggregated data, among female the major expenditure is incurred on food and children education (29% each). For male it is on food (24%), followed by property (22%), children education and health care (21% each). Expenditure on self, health care and others are lower irrespective of gender.

In rural aggregate data, both male and female incurred higher expenditure on food and children education, but the expenses on those items are relatively higher with the female than that of male. Expenditure on property is relatively higher among male.

Time budgeting

Differences in time spent are taken for household activities, economic activities and social activities in hours per person.

(i) Household activities:

The average time spent for all household chores is much higher for female in both rural and urban areas (7.24 and 5.56 hours per day, respectively) in Mokokchung and (9.85 and 4.00 hours per day, respectively) in Tuensang. Among the household activities, for female, more

time is spent on cooking in both rural (2.52 hours) and urban areas (2.20 hours) and (2.99 hours) in rural and urban areas (1.00 hour) for Mokokchung and Tuensang.

(ii) Economic activities:

In both rural and urban areas, it is female who spent more time on economic activities (7.35 and 7.34 hours, respectively) in Mokokchung but lower than male, which shows (3.74 and 3.00 hours, respectively) in Tuensang. However, among the activities, male spent longer time in the place of work (6.21 hours and 6.30 hours per day, respectively) in rural and urban Mokokchung and in Tuensang it is (4.40 hours in rural and 2 hours in urban, respectively).

(iii) Social activities:

The average time spent on social activities is found to be relatively equal between male and female in Mokokchung. In rural Tuensang male spent more time in social activities and in urban area it was female who spent more time.

Thus, time spent for household, economic and social activities it was female who spend more time in both rural and urban area (16.51 and 14.58 hours per day) in Mokokchung as compared to male (10.00 and 10.14 hours per day). As for Tuensang total time spent for the three activities in rural and urban area show that female time spent is higher with (14.57 and 9.26 hours per day as compared to male (9.36 and 7.00 hours per day)

Thus, the average time spent by a working female for household chores economic activities and social activities is found to be considerably higher as compared to male. Most women cannot spare their time to attend training programs because they have to shift from their place of work to household works. Women are expected to return home at a certain time, cook, clean and take care of family affairs. From the study it is obvious that many women put in almost equal hours in household activities, which is an unpaid work, and to paid employment. Self employed women usually work at home to save time and to attend to children and take care of household chores. However, for male, their major time is spent in work place and minimum time in household chores. That women are doubled burdened with household activities that they do not get time for leisure or personal development and care.

Summary and findings of status of women and empowerment in Nagaland discussed in chapter 5 are highlighted below.

1. Ownership of Resources by women

The proportions of women who own land were significantly lower than that of male in both the sample districts. In rural area, among female population it was only 15.6% and 15%

for Mokokchung and Tuensang, respectively. More of urban female population than their rural counterparts has access to land (33.3% and 44.4% for Mokokchung and Tuensang respectively). However, these proportions are much lower as compared to that of male.

Among those who owned house in rural area comprises of 36.3% in Mokokchung and 27.1% in Tuensang, urban area percentage was higher at 69.7% and 52.2% for Mokokchung and Tuensang, respectively. Female having their own business and having assets were found to be low, except for urban Tuensang where their asset holding and own business was quite high as compared to the total number of female respondents.

As for banking, the number of female account holders in rural area consists of 85.9% and 49.3% in Mokokchung and Tuensang respectively. In urban area it was 89.8% and 96.7 for Mokokchung and Tuensang. It shows that, only 10.2% and 3.3% of respondents who do not have bank account in their names.

Ownership of resources by women in general is higher among urban women than that in rural area, also much lower than that of male. Hypothesis that holds as 'when women earn higher income, their access to ownership of productive resources increase' has been tested for urban and rural areas separately. The regression result for both urban and rural women population supports the hypothesis, except for ownership of business by women which is negative and also the regression coefficients are not significant.

2. Access to financial resources and subsidy

Access to financial resources from institutions, private and subsidies were examined in both rural and urban areas, where females take institutional loan mostly for construction of houses (31% and 33% respectively). In rural area, loan for children education is also equally high, followed by farming and to buy means of transportation (15% each). Respondents who have taken loan for purchase of land were all male. For construction of houses, health care, children education and business, the female proportions were higher than that of male. This implies that, except for purchase of land, for all other purposes, it is female, who take higher responsibility in availing loans from private money lenders with higher rate of interest.

The reasons for not getting subsidies were mostly because they did not apply or did not know, where majority were females. This reveals that lack of awareness and inactiveness is higher among female than that of male.

In sample total, the respondents were most aware of the information on credit (40%), followed by trainings (27%) and were least aware of the post office deposit scheme (16%). Gender segregated data also show a similar situation. However, the levels of awareness are

lower among female than that of male in all categories, except for trainings. The gender composition data on access to information reveal that in Mokokchung, male has higher access to information than female under all categories, except for trainings where it is more of female.

3. Perception on work and gender relations

(i) The respondents feel that, employment gives not much of impact on fertility and postponement of marriage; also they strongly feel that sharing of household burden and equal opportunities in social and religious activities is needed. Women feel that with more economic independence they gain respect in the family as well as in the society. Importance of equal opportunities and acceptance of women in political activities is felt by women in the sample area.

(ii) Among female the major reason for being unemployed is lack of required education, the other reasons are family related problems (nearly 50%), comprise of starting family, children related and family upkeep.

(iii) The feeling of insecurity for being unemployed is higher in Tuensang district than Mokokchung, but the insecurity to go alone which show lower self confidence is higher among women in Mokokchung, and nearly half of them do not have the desire to pursue their interest as they lack self esteem.

The result shows that, among unemployed women very few of them received governmental assistance in the form of wage work, welfare scheme and developmental projects. Consequently, they have low self esteem and confidence on themselves.

4. Gender wise decision making

(i) In urban area, women enjoy greater influence over male in home management and purchases. Only in Tuensang and in sample average, men are having relatively greater influence over women in construction and repairing of houses. But in most of the households in Mokokchung as well as in sample total, the decisions are taken jointly.

(ii) In rural area, normally it is male who takes the decision in regards to construction and repairing of houses, and it is jointly for home management and purchases, but never by female alone in general.

(iii) In both rural and urban areas, the average score is higher for 'both' (74%-rural and 56%-urban), followed by 'female' (18%-rural and 42%-urban), which implies that for most of the families the child related decisions are taken jointly in both rural and urban areas. Urban women have moderately higher influence over male than that of rural women in regards to

child related decisions in the families. Male alone has very limited weight in child related decisions.

By observing the case of either female or male alone, in rural area, female have greater influence over male in all the categories except for purchase and sale of land and livestock, where it is male who have greater influence. In urban area, for livestock, land and implements male has greater influence over female.

The presence of VDB women was found in villages where the representation is very less and fund allocated to take up projects by women was found to be less. The VDB women besides implementation of fund raising schemes within the fund allotted to them they cannot play any significant role in the development of the village, and since women representation is less they cannot influence the decision making of the board in important issues in the village.

Conclusion

The state is predominantly inhabited by rural population, and its economy is mainly based on agrarian nature. It may be pointed out that (74.7%) of female in rural area are in agriculture, where the income is low.

Education has a positive impact on women status in formal sector. In Nagaland Education has attained remarkable progress showing female literacy rate at (76.69%), but it is observed that the gender gap is still large in the state where female literacy rate is lower than that of male, and also in technical courses and in more challenging streams like agriculture and law, girl's enrolment is very low as compared to boys.

The study shows that in rural area the proportion of female workers in informal sector was (54.63%) more than that of male; whereas their income earning is lower than that of male. There is greater income disparity in this sector than formal sector. It is obvious that informal sector is one possibility for women to get access to employment and earn an income. Consequently majority of women dominate the informal sector in the State.

It is also found that by nature of work the proportion of male as regular workers was (59.42%) more than female, as for female it consists of seasonal worker with (56.20%) in the sample. This implies that male work participation was higher as regular, whereas female work participation was more as seasonal workers. This shows concentration of women in low paying jobs which are insecure, having negative implication on the level of income and economic status.

Lack of access to land and ownership rights is another major obstacle in total participation of women in work, which is derived from custom and inheritance law. In spite of

women's increasing work participation and growth of the economy, the benefits in terms of ownership of land, property and access to credit, which determines their economic status are still not equally distributed as compared to men.

There are clear indications that there is gender disparity in income distribution among male and female. In urban area female income is higher than male by 1.46% in formal sector, and in rural male income is more by 27.3%. In informal sector higher proportion of workers is female but per capita income of male is higher by 103% in rural area and 150% in urban area than that of female.

Policy Suggestions:

1. The female work participation in the State may be raised through occupation-based education and recognition of various household activities as viable economic activities.
2. Agricultural sector needs to be strengthened by providing basic facilities like extension and credit support, infrastructure and marketing facilities which will enhance the level of income and their status.
3. Employment of women all over the country in formal as well as informal sectors is directly related to the changing employment situation and growth of the nation. There should be a policy to women workers in informal sector. Expansion of opportunities for employment in selected areas suited to women and recognition of their services in many unaccounted informal sectors is required.
4. Special attention is required in informal sector where majority of workers are women by way of providing skill development training including modern handicraft, handloom and farming activities, which need to be executed vigorously for women. Government should focus on implementation of enterprise development, supply chain and marketing practices that empower women.
5. Policies and developments affecting the informal economy have a distinctly gendered effect. Therefore, partnerships must be built with associations of women to create an environment enabling them to make institutional credit available to women at affordable rates.
6. Specific program for improvement of women aiming at raising the level of income and employment needs to be taken up in order to raise the efficiency of women through education and training.
7. To overcome the problems of lack of property and access to land title, government must focus attention on creation of productive assets for women by providing credit on easy terms and subsidies.

8. If women have to participate in the growth of our State, they must first discover themselves, be proud of their accomplishment, have an independent identity, feelings of self-worth, initiative, decision making, and independent stature. This process of learning to assert will have its repercussions, like every process of social change, consciousness of women's rights among women will cut the differences in Naga society.
9. The numerical strength of VDB women needs to be increased in order to influence policy decisions and effective implementation of VDB Act.
10. Female education needs to be intensified and encourage girl students to take up technical and professional education by giving special considerations for girl students which will have a positive impact on level of income. There is also the need to bridge the gap in literacy by investing more in education sector by government as well as private parties, and also to encourage the districts with lower literacy rates to give more importance to education. Government should allocate top priority to the education of females for improving their status in society. Women activists and women political leadership can play a vital role in this regard. A woman working for paid job has better empowerment status than their counterparts without it. Therefore, policies such as promotion of education, training and professional development for women is necessary.
11. Women's share in the science, technical and vocational education has also to receive much attention. Universities should look at the content of the courses in sciences, social sciences and humanities to eliminate any professional biases against women and moreover the so called hard areas as designated for women in science and technology should be open to women. This if implemented optimally, should add relevance to the current socio-economic and technical scenario in terms of the information age and bring about a transformation in the social and economic role women have to play in the future. Besides, the ultimate result of this is in promoting the social values of equality and partnership in family and work.
12. Moreover, the prevailing social prejudices against female movements also are to be removed.
13. Critical institutional strategies would use new institutions such as NGOs to handle some responsibilities that governments would have addressed and to transform other institutions, such as the family, into more equitable units.
14. Programs to make credit available to women should be central to the strategy of governments and non-governmental organizations.
15. To provide Crèche facilities and day care centers for working women, to enable and enhance the quality of women work participation.

16. To minimize the sex bias in the recruitment, working conditions and promotion right from the lowest level to the top.
17. A number of policy initiatives could be used to address this gender gap in State's labor force participation. These include increased labor market flexibility (which could lead to the creation of more formal sector jobs) allowing more women, many of whom are working in the informal sector, to be employed in the formal sector. In addition, supply-side reforms to improve infrastructure and address other constraints to job creation could also enable more women to enter the labor force. Finally, higher social spending, including investment in women education, can lead to higher female labor force participation by boosting female stocks of human capital.
18. Empowering women to participate fully in economic life across all sectors is essential to built stronger economies, achieve internationally agreed goals for development and sustainability, and improve the quality of life for women, men, families and communities.

On the basis of the research findings it may be suggested that the general spread of women's education in Nagaland has implications for future trend in women employment. More women are taking advantages of higher education. Thus it is now recognized that Education is the major instrument which societies can use to direct the process of change. It provides for upward mobility and can thereby help to equalize status between individuals coming from different social strata. The UN Declaration of Human Rights regards it as one of the basic rights of every human being. The movements for improving women's status all over the world has always emphasized education as the most significant Instrument for changing women's subjugated position in society. The better a woman's education, the greater the availability of social opportunities. Whenever new opportunities come in. there is conflict with standing institutions. This leads to a change in thinking and in the pattern of living as indicated below;

Educated woman- has greater opportunities- desire to exploit opportunities- change in attitude- conflict with existing institutions- acceptance of new challenges –woman's status improves.

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