II REVIEW OF LITERATURE

In this chapter the researcher made an attempt to review the past studies pertaining to the present research problem. It would enable the researcher to have a comprehensive knowledge of the concepts used in earlier studies and help to adopt, modify, formulate and improve the conceptual framework of the study. The researcher has organized this chapter in two sections namely, theoretical background and empirical studies on the development of rural dalit women. Theoretical analysis includes women’s Economic Participation theories and theories on, Economic Opportunities. The theories relating to Political Empowerment, Educational Attainments, and Health and Well being are also discussed. Similarly empirical studies have also been given on the same grounds.

2.1 THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Gender and development can be well understood by reviewing the theories concerning women in economic participation, women in employment, women in education, women in politics and women in health and well being. Economic development influences the women’s role in different perspectives viz., female labour force participation, and change in the country’s occupational structure, increased educational opportunities, reduced fertility rates and household responsibilities. The theories relating to the above aspects of women’s role in development are narrated below.

1. Feminist Framework
2. Theory of Labour Choice
3. General Theory of Choice
4. Theory of Segmented Labour Market
5. Labour Process Theory
6. Power Control Theory
7. Male Domination Theory
8. Preference Theory
9. Theories on Political Participation
10. Critical Mass Theory
11. Male Conspiracy Theory
12. Theory of Capability
15. Nussbaum Capability Theory
16. Theory of Cultural Dualism

ECONOMIC PARTICIPATION OF WOMEN

Economic participation of women has been discussed on the basis of Feminist Framework, Theory of Labour Choice and General Theory of Choice

The Feminist Framework

The feminist framework strongly rooted in the theory of patriarchy came up in response to the strong wave of feminism in the Sixties in the western world. It assumed that patriarchy and the resultant male dominance were the products of capitalism with one conditioning the other. These feminist used categories and tools from the Marxist toolbox. These efforts for the first time shifted the focus to domestic labour as the terrain which was the site of women's exploitation. This direct focus on sexual division of labour and its input was a pioneering step. Discussion on gender issues is centered on gender differences, gender inequality, gender oppression and structural oppression. This is depicted in the flow chart given below

Figure 2.1 Feminist Framework

Source: Researcher
Feminists advance three broad perspectives in trying to explain the absence of women from senior management in the public and private sector. The first perspective is personal factors. Among personal factors are self-esteem and self-confidence, lack of motivation and ambition to accept challenges “to go up the ladder”, women’s low potential for leadership, less assertiveness, less emotional stability and lack of ability to handle a crisis (Bond 1996).

The structural or institutional factors paradigm advances the view that it is the disadvantageous position of women in the organizational structure (few numbers, little power, limited access to resources) which shapes and defines the behavior and positions of women. The structural factors that affect women negatively include: discriminatory appointment and promotion practices; male resistance to women in management positions; absence of policies and legislations to ensure participation of women; and limited opportunities for leadership training and for demonstrating competence as a result of power structure in the work place (Bond 1996). Smulders (1998) explores the cultural factors “The gender-based roles, irrelevant to the work place, are carried into the work place and kept in place because the actors involved, both dominant and subordinate, subscribe to social and organization reality”.

**Theory of Labour Supply**

Mincer (1962) and Cain (1966) applying the concept of income and substitution effect, proposed a theory of labour supply that applies especially to married women. Within the context of the family, a rise in income has different effects on its members. For wives, housework is a major responsibility and thus an important substitute for time. Thus, in their case, substitution effect could be larger than for other adults. On the whole, female labour supply increases when the substitution effect is much greater than the income effect. Becker (1965), later elaborated this basic theory of choice.

**General Theory of Choice**

Sweet’s, (1973) in the General Theory of Choice in the neo-classical economics views the decision of a woman to participate in the labour force as a choice between work and leisure which is influenced by changes in wage rate. A
change in wage rate produces two effects on labour supply. The ‘substitution effect’, produces more work because it raises the cost of leisure relative to work. The other, called ‘income effect’ produces less work because it increases purchasing power. But this theory was criticized as it was unable to explain the labour force participation of married women for whom domestic work is an important variable in the choice structure.

ECONOMIC OPPORTUNITY OF WOMEN


Theory of Segmented Labour Market

Reich, Gordon and Edwards (1973) Within the Marxist framework, the theory of segmented labour market was evolved in the Seventies. Three factors are prominent in the theory of segmentation. They are (i) the male dominance and male strategies leading to the exclusion of women from employment, (ii) the restructuring of jobs with accumulation of capital and change in the organizational forms of production and management control and (iii) the restructuring of sexual division of labour based on the pre-existing notions of feminist and masculinity.

Labour Process Theory

According to the Labour Process Theory of Braverman (1974) skills are socially constructed and hence gendered. As capitalist development proceeds and more labour are displaced by machines, a deskilling process ensues. This leads to the creation of a hierarchy of jobs. Since women already have a lower position in the social hierarchy they get inferior positions in the labour market also. Moreover, skilled male labour are being reluctant to take up unskilled work, women are forced to take up the unskilled categories of work. Millicent Fawcett who was the first advocate of the overcrowding hypothesis argued that women overcrowded in unskilled jobs which leads to low wages and poor working conditions in these jobs. He found that trade unions ‘rules, employees’, rules, their attributes and prejudices and social customs deny skilled jobs to women resulting in their overcrowding in unskilled occupations and consequent pulling down of their general wage levels (Lakshmy Devi, 2002).
Power-Control Theory

Hagan’s, (1989) Power-control theory views gender differences in antisocial behavior as a function of power differentials in the family, and states that these arise from the positions the spouses occupy in the workforce, where fathers are the sole breadwinner and mothers are housewives and/or have menial jobs, a patriarchal family structure results, especially if the father is in a position of authority at work. The patriarchal family is one in which the workplace experiences are reproduced, and it is said to be “unbalanced” in favor of the father. Patriarchal families are viewed as granting greater freedom to boys to prepare them for traditional male roles, while daughters are socialized to be feminine, conforming, and domesticated.

Male Dominance Theory

Bhasin, (1993) states that Women’s significant contribution in production, however took a back seat when men’s exploitative potential, which they gained with the help of tools, took over. This marked the beginning of a process of establishing male dominance. The theory of ‘man-the-hunter’, has tried to provide some explanation regarding the origin of male supremacy through authority over tools of production. The prevailing institutional arrangements limit women’s capacity to attain a situation of equality with men, and this goes beyond their relative position in the labour market or their progress in education. These institutions persist with economic growth: violence against women, discriminatory labour and property laws, limitations on women’s power to negotiate inside the home stemming from family customs, laws governing fertility, having fewer opportunities for employment than men; these are all aspects that perpetuate inequities (United Nations Human Development Report, 1995; Cagatay, Elson, and Grown, 1995).

Preference Theory

Hakim’s (2002) Preference theory predicts a polarization of work-lifestyles, as a result of the diversity in women’s sex-role preferences and the three related models of family roles. Preference theory predicts diversity in lifestyle choices. Women choose between three different lifestyles: home-centred, work-centred or adaptive. Work-centred women are a minority, despite the massive influx of women into higher education and into professional and managerial occupations in the last three decades. Work-centred people (men and women) are focused on competitive activities in the public sphere in careers, sports, politics or arts. Family life is fitted around their work and many of these women remain childless, even when married.
Adaptive women prefer to combine employment and family work without giving a fixed priority to either. They want to enjoy the best of both worlds. Adaptive women are generally the largest group among women and are found in substantial numbers in most occupations. Certain occupations, such as school teaching, are attractive to women because they facilitate a more even work-family balance. The third group, home-centred or family-centred women, is also a minority, and a relatively invisible one in the Western world, given the current political and media focus on working women and high achievers. They are most inclined to have larger families and these women avoid paid work after marriage unless the family is experiencing financial problems.

**POLITICAL EMPOWERMENT OF WOMEN**

Political Empowerment of women has been described on the basis of Critical Mass Theory and Male Conspiracy Theory

**‘Critical Mass Theory’**

It analyses women’s legislative behavior; Dahlerup (1988) discussed that the increased presence of women in legislatures does not always translate into women-friendly policy outcomes. Applications of ‘critical mass theory’ draw on the concept to explain a range of different outcomes, most obviously instances where increased numbers of women result in greater attention to women’s issues, but also cases where increased numbers of women result in little or no change, on the grounds that women may not yet constitute a ‘critical mass’. These studies assume that the percentage of women in the institution is the key determinant of their behaviour. As such, they reflect a ‘politics of optimism’ that gender differences can be eliminated and, especially, that women’s progress can proceed on a non-conflictual basis, provoking little or no reaction from men as a group (Blum and Smith, 1988). Empirically, these accounts find that legislatures with high proportions of women introduce and pass more bills on women’s issues than their female counterparts in low-representation legislatures (Bratton, 2005; Thomas, 1991; Thomas, 1994).

Critiques of ‘**Critical Mass Theory**’, in contrast, focus primarily on cases where policy change does not occur, even as the percentages of women in the
legislature reach ‘critical mass’ proportions, identified at levels ranging from 10 per cent to 40 per cent (Childs, 2004; Grey, 2002; Lovenduski, 2001; Norrander and Wilcox, 1998; Towns, 2003). Focusing on the limits of proportions, they call attention to the opportunities and constraints that stem from political party affiliation, legislative committee membership, institutional norms, legislative inexperience and the external political environment, including the electoral system (Swers, 2004; Tremblay, 2003). They bring up a number of common theories on low representation within feminist theory. Sex-role socialization is a factor much similar the gender role structure and relations mentioned in the cause. Women and men taught different roles in life where the home is the women’s area and politics and public life is seen as the men’s world. Another point in this sex-role problematic is the fact that house work and family responsibility hinderes women from participating in politics and public life. She mentions male are discriminating women therefore women have low representation in political office. She continues with institutional constraints that women are less likely than men to become incumbents and therefore have less chance to get into office.

**Male Conspiracy Theory**

_Basham lee’s (2011) _male conspiracy theory derives from feminist ideology bases on the idea that men are discriminating towards women which would partially explain the low representation of women. From this theory one could believe that women do not access to certain resources that would be beneficial in a political carrier and therefore are left out.

**EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT OF WOMEN**

Educational attainment of women covers Theory of Capability, Theory of Human Capital and Theory of Endogenous Growth

**Theory of Capability**

_Sen’s (1991) _theory centrally advanced women’s right to education that would benefit them as individuals rather than merely fulfill larger social goals. The model focuses on process internal to the household-accural of income of different members, intra-household transfer, allocation of income to goods and services by
each individual member. Thus, it is able to show different economic goals of members. It allows for both shared and competing preferences. It incorporates effects of constraints into the formation of economic goods of the household and variation in economic goods according to type of household. Women’s rights to inherit, own and control property are determined primarily by the values and norms which are socially acceptable, as well as the mechanisms of intrahousehold decision-making and distribution.

**Theory of Human Capital**

The quality of labour force is influenced by investments in human capital. There is no denying that resources that are invested in individuals today are likely to enhance their future productivity and carrier prospects. Higher and specialized education is certainly an investment that enhances the credentials of individuals by increasing their skills and knowledge. There is a marked increase in employment of women in traditionally male-dominated occupations such as management law etc. It brings changes in societal norms regarding women’s role in the home and the workplace. In most societies, it has increasingly become the norm for women to be employed outside the home and to have more freedom to choose their own career. Their roles are less likely to be defined solely as mother or wife. (Becker, 1993). This theory postulates that education is costly, it takes time which can be used doing something else and when successfully completed earns us a return and therefore should be seen as an investment. As education should be seen as an investment the workers should be seen as ‘capitalists’. The workers are earning the return to their own investment in form of higher wages and increased life standard. (Galor & Moav, 2003)

**Theory of Endogenous Growth**

Romer’s (1994) “theory of endogenous growth” emphasises how important the accumulation of human capital is for economic growth, and from this starting point the logic of the argument is simple: if the innate capacities of men and women are distributed in a similar way, giving males priority in education will have a negative effect on the average quality of the individuals educated. This is because the average innate capacity of the people who are in fact educated is lower than it
would be if males and females had the same educational opportunities. Giving priority to boys generates an adverse selection effect that could reduce the productivity of human capital and economic growth. In other words, if the education of females has a positive effect on educational quality, reducing gender inequalities would bring about a higher educational level overall and this would have a positive impact on economic growth. It has even been argued that accepting the existence of decreasing marginal returns to education, increasing the educational level of women (who are relatively disadvantaged compared to men) would in principle yield greater marginal returns (World Bank, 2001; Knowles, Lorgelly, and Owen, 2002).

HEALTH AND WELL BEING OF WOMEN

Health and well being of women has been analysed on the grounds of Theories on Social Learning / Social Cognitive Theory and the Capability Theory of Well Being

Social Learning / Social Cognitive Theory

Bandura Albert (1985) says that health behavioral change is the result of reciprocal relationships among the environment, personal factors, and attributes of the behavior itself. Self-efficacy is one of the most important characteristics that determine behavioral change. His with expansions of social cognitive theory, his recent work, published in May 2011, focuses on how SCT impacts areas of both health and population effects in relation to climate change. He proposes that these problems could be solved through television serial dramas that show models similar to viewers performing the desired behavior. Specifically on health, Bandura writes that currently there is little incentive for doctors to write prescriptions for healthy behavior, but he believes the cost of fixing health problems start to outweigh the benefits of being healthy. SCT is the theory that should be used to further a Healthy Society. Specifically on population, Bandura states, population growth is a global crisis because of its correlation with depletion and degradation of our planet’s resources. Bandura argues that SCT should be used to get people to use birth control, reduce gender inequality through education, and to model environmental conservation to improve the state of the planet.
Personal: whether the individual has high or low self-efficacy toward the behavior (i.e., get the learner to believe in his or her personal abilities to correctly complete a behavior). Behavioral: the response an individual receives after they perform a behavior (i.e., provide chances for the learner to experience successful learning as a result of performing the behavior correctly). Environmental: Aspects the environmental or setting that influences the individual’s ability to successfully complete a behavior (i.e., make environmental conditions conducive for improved self-efficacy by providing appropriate support and materials).

**Nussbaum Capabilities Theory**

The focus on “capabilities” proposed by Sen’s, (1999) is an example for well being of social justice. Sen maintains that in order to evaluate the conditions of human well-being genuine liberties that people have so as to be able to lead the kind of life they consider worthwhile. In this view, life can be seen as an inter-relation of “functioning” and “capabilities”: the former has to do with results or achievements and the latter depend more on opportunities. Sen’s focus centres on the freedom men and women have to obtain those goals they consider worthwhile. Well-being can be understood as the expansion of each person’s potential to be or to do, in other words to exercise this liberty, and therefore they are connected with asymmetries in “capabilities” and “functioning” between men and women (Glover and Nussbaum, 1995, Nussbaum, 2000).

Martha Nussbaum offers an analysis of gender issue in development that flows from the “capabilities” approach to the analysis of quality of life Nussbaum, (1993), advocated and developed by Amartya Sen in a variety of writings, (1) this approach attempts to define well-being in an objective way, by identifying a set of core human capabilities that are critical to full human functioning and assessing well-being (and the success of development policies) by the degree to which the individual is in circumstances which lead to the realization of these capabilities.
Nussbaum devotes much care to the composition of this list; in brief, it includes

- Being able to live to the end of a human life of normal length.
- Being able to have good health, adequate nutrition, adequate shelter, opportunities for sexual satisfaction and choice in reproduction, and mobility.
- Being able to avoid unnecessary and non-beneficial pain and to have pleasurable experiences.
- Being able to use the senses, imagine, think, and reason; and to have the educational opportunities necessary to realize these capacities.
- Being able to have attachments to think and persons outside ourselves.
- Being able to form a conception of the good and to engage in critical reflection about the panning of one’s own life.
- Being able to live for and to others, to recognize and show concern for other human beings.
- Being able to live with concern for and in relation to animals and the world of nature.
- Being able to laugh, to play, to enjoy recreational activities.
- Being able to live one’s own life and no one else’s; enjoying freedom of association and freedom from unwarranted search and seizure.

**Theory of Cultural Dualism:**

Van Staveren, (2014) opines that Women are a culturally constructed gender category rather than simply a biologically sex category. Women’s social ties to children through pregnancy and breast feeding ensured that women appeared to be closer to nature than men. Elaborating the perspective of cultural dualism, Gries, and Naudé (2011) view that the western women seek greater satisfaction by the improvement of her family’s economic situation and of her status within family. The primary role of the women is always manifested in their family. The society at large views their economic role as secondary so that they are pushed out of the market.
Figure 2.2: Theoretical Framework

Gender and Development

- Economic Participation of Women
  - Theory of Labour Supply
  - General Theory of Choice
  - Power Control Theory
  - Preference Theory

- Economic Opportunity of Women
  - Critical Mass Theory
  - Male Conspiracy Theory

- Political Empowerment of Women
  - Human Capital Theory
  - Theory of Capability

- Educational Attainment of Women
  - Social and Learning/Social Cognitive Theory

- Health and Well being of Women
  - Nussbaum Capability Theory

Source: Researcher
2.2 EMPIRICAL STUDIES

Empirical studies are grouped under the sub heads viz.

1. Studies pertaining to Economic Indicators
2. Studies pertaining to Non-Economic Indicators

2.2.1 ECONOMIC INDICATORS

It includes studies related to Economic Participation and Economic Opportunity of dalit women

Women’s economic participation encompasses the range of activities they perform to produce financial and other resources. This can include paid employment, small business, training and education and negotiating with agencies and services about household utilities and accounts, bills, taxation, concession allowances, fines and welfare benefits. Women are most often concentrated in feminized professions such as nursing & teaching, office work, care of the elderly and disabled. They tend to remain in lower job categories than men. Advancement within professions, such as law, medicine, and engineering in which women are increasingly well represented in developed countries is of great concern.

Bardhan (1986) argues that class, patriarchy, and social hierarchy (caste, ethnicity, and religion) all interact to shape attitude towards gender roles. In that sense, the downward sloping part of the feminization ‘U’ curve reflects not just Sanskritization, but a general aspiration to upgrade social status or imitate lifestyles of higher status groups. Among higher classes, aspired status groups would be the urban educated with more Western life styles associated with higher female labor force participations rates.

Ramu (1989) revealed that economy need does not always drive women into labour force. The occupational choices that women make are complex and determined by a variety of personal and family considerations of which economic need is profound. Rita Stood (1991) in her study stated that women were being increasingly consulted for family decisions like utilization of money, major investments and children care. Role conflict among women is gradually decreasing due to husband participation in household activities.
Upreti, Sunita (1993) conducted a study in Nepal and found that majority of the respondents have been able to make an adjustment between the housework and office work. They were satisfied with their job and argued that their status was equal to that of their male counterparts. Del Boca et. al., (2000) empirically tested the relationship between the education and employment status of husbands and wives using the Bank of Italy survey. The results of this analysis show that employed women are likely to be married to employed men with a higher level of education and higher income. Das and Desai (2003), argue that women have a stronger preference for white collar jobs as their education increases, and participation declines because these types of jobs are very scarce. Diahwidarti (1998) identified the determinants of female labour force participation (FLFP), by assessing the influence of a set of socio-demographic, economic and cultural factors on educational class differentials in the LFP of married women in Jakarta. The study concludes that education is a strong determinant of women’s participation in the Jakarta labour force. The J-shaped pattern of association between education and FLFP persisted after standardization by age, although it was less marked than the literature suggests.

Beyond economic benefits, women’s participation in the labor force can be seen as a signal of declining discrimination and increasing empowerment of women (Mammen and Paxson, 2000). However, feminization of the workforce is not necessarily a sign of improvement of women’s opportunity in society. It can also be a response to recession or increasing insecurity in the labor market, with female labor supply functioning essentially as an insurance mechanism for households (Standing, 1999, Bhaltora and Umana-Aponte 2010). Cunningham (2001) shows that in Mexico, unmarried women without children are as likely to work as men, while labour supply of married women depends on the presence of young children and the level and stability of household income.

Jeemol Unni (2001) report that women do suffer high levels of wage discrimination in the Indian urban labour market, but that education contributes little to this discrimination. The wage- disadvantage effect of women’s lower years of education than men is entirely offset by the wage-advantage effect of women’s
higher returns to education than men’s. Muthuraja (2001) has discussed and proved that efforts to improve women’s position need to focus on economic factors. Thirty-five per cent of Indian households are below the poverty line and thus, in most cases they depend exclusively on women’s income, as per the Sharamshakti report. Even where there is a male earner, women are earning forms a major part of the income of poor households. Moreover, women contribute a larger share to basic family maintenance, better health and nutrition of the family particularly her children.

Gong and Van Soest (2002) analyzed the Mexican urban labor markets and their findings also challenge the dual labor market view. Both studies find that employment in the informal sector is a worker’s decision determined by his or her level of human capital and potential productivity in the formal sector, which explains the negative association between informal sector employment and education level within countries. This does not mean that workers in the informal sectors are as well off as those in the formal sector. Malhotra, schuler and Boender (2002) review the many ways that empowerment can be measured, they pay attention to the process in which empowerment occurs. The frequently used Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM) is a composite measure of gender inequality in three key areas, political participation and decision-making, economic participation and decision-making, and power over economic resources.

Evans and Jonathan Kelley (2004) reported that women’s workforce participation increased strongly over the 1980s and 1990s, with the increases being generally larger for married than for non-married women, and with the increases being especially large in middle age, as shown by ABS data. Multivariate analysis of ISSSA data covering this period shows that there is actually rather little time trend. Instead, underlying the apparent shift over time, there are large compositional changes in the female population and there is a strong “birth cohorts of women who have higher propensities to work throughout their lives than did their predecessors.

The positive wage effect in the high education sample is a clear sign that, once women have at least secondary education, higher earnings potential increases the probability of participation. One can see the effect falls over time, which Balu and Khan (2007), for the case of US women, interpret as an increase in women’s
labor market attachment. Louise Grogan and Katerina Koka (2010) reported about the changing labour force participation patterns of women with young children in Russia during 1992-2004. In this period maternity leave benefits became less generous and childcare was privatized and became increasingly scarce. Eastin and Prakash (2012), working with data from a wide panel of countries, find that in the early stages of development there are higher levels of gender equality, and these can be captured with various indicators, but in the rapid industrialization stage equity is eroded. Finally, at the highest levels of development, gender equity again begins to improve thanks to increased women’s participation in employment, a fall in fertility rates and acceptance of norms that promote gender equity. Therefore the evidence indicates there is a relation between gender equity and growth that depends on the development stage that countries are in measured in per capita income.

Triventi, (2013) observed that a number of studies find that occupations in advanced economies are highly gender segregated. Moreover, gender integration – similarity between women and men’s wages and activities – occurs more in professional and managerial jobs than in clerical and blue collar occupations. Despite this however, male graduates are more likely than female to be in upper management and in high prestige professions, whereas women graduates dominate in professions such as nursing or teaching.

A case study by Maria Costanza Torri, (2014) states that the socio-cultural constraint prevents an increase in the participation of the women and limits their empowerment. In this context it is important to underline all the complexity of intersectionality of gender oppression, in order to better understand the multiple ways in which various socially and culturally constructed categories interact on multiple levels to manifest themselves as inequality in women’s condition. Hassler, (2014) stated in his study that despite high numbers of female graduates in Europe, once in the labour market, overall, women get lower wages than their male colleagues with the same type of education, resulting in the ‘gender wage gap’. Austria and Germany have larger differences in wages (women’s wages are around 62- 67% that of men). In Spain, Finland, the Netherlands, Czech Republic and Italy, the gender gap is relatively lower (women’s wages are around 75% that of men).
The lowest gender wage gap is in the United Kingdom and Belgium, where women’s average wage is more than 90% that of men. Women’s careers tend to be discontinuous, featuring part-time work. They tend to be secondary wage earners within the family.

Vikas Dhawan, et al., (2014) in their study, observed that Women and their children are bonded due to the fact that the male of the household is a bonded laborer. Women carry out domestic services in the landlord’s house and besides being exposed to long working hours, they may fall victim to physical and sexual abuse from the landlord. In World Economic Forum, Role of Communities (2014) it is stated that there is some evidence from India to suggest that women in local government roles make decisions with better outcomes for communities than men do when charged with budget decisions. They also appear to be more competent representatives than men, obtaining more resources for their constituencies despite having significantly lower education and relevant labor market experience. Vaidya et. al., (2015) in their study observed that according to census 2011, women constitute 48.56% of the total population in India and 25.67% of female population is designated as workers. Almost 400 million people, more than 85% of the working population in India works in unorganized sector and out of these at least 120 million are women. There is a bidirectional relationship between economic development and women’s empowerment defined as improving the ability of women to access the constituents of development-in particular health, education, earning opportunities, rights, and political participation.

Bönte (2015) analyzed whether the claim that women are, on average, less competitive than men does hold for the general population across countries. He analyzed a representative cross-sectional data set of individuals from 36 countries and found that, indeed, women have, on average, lower preferences for competitive situations than men do. In the total sample, only 47% of women state that they like competitive situations, whereas 65% of men agree to be fond of competition. At the same time, although the gender difference is relatively substantial in most countries, the magnitude of difference varies considerably between countries. The evidence on gender differences in preferences is used to make the argument that women,
precisely because they are different, should have a more equal position in the boardroom to counterbalance the riskier and daring male decision making.

In recent work, Agenor (2015) uses an overlapping generations model in which time use is modeled over three phases (childhood, working and retirement) and simulates the effect of public policies (including public investment in infrastructure and efficiency of spending on health and education) on participation choices and economic growth (via impact on human capital, productivity and labor input directly). This paper finds these policies raise female labor force participation rates, and depending on the relevant policies, economic growth could increase by between 1.5–2.4 percentage points per annum.

The literature also finds a link between female labor force participation and legal and social institutions, as well as the existence of gender-based differences in laws. In recent IMF work, Gonzalez, Jain-Chandra, Kochhar and Newiak (2015) find that the presence of gender-based legal restrictions, in particular, restrictions on women’s rights to inheritance and property, as well as legal impediments to undertaking economic activities (such as opening a bank account or freely pursuing a profession) are strongly associated with larger gender gaps in labor force participation. Furthermore, social institutions with more gender equality have been associated with better development outcomes and higher living standards. Indeed, the OECD’s Social Institutions and Gender Index (SIGI) scores countries on 14 indicators, grouped into five sub indexes—discriminatory family code, restricted physical integrity, bias toward sons, restricted resources and assets, and restricted civil liberties—using different dimensions of social institutions related to gender inequality. India ranks relatively low on the OECD SIGI index.

In a recent McKinsey study, 15 gender equality indicators were tracked for 95 countries. The study found that, if women participated in the economy at a level identical to that of men, it would add up to US$ 28 trillion or 26 per cent of annual global gross domestic product (GDP) in 2025, assuming a business-as-usual scenario. This impact is roughly equivalent to the size of the combined United States and Chinese economies today (McKinsey Global Institute, 2015). With more women in the labour market, an economy makes greater use of its productive potential. Since
women account for one half of a country’s potential talent base, a nation’s competitiveness in the long term also depends considerably on whether and how it educates and makes use of its women (WEF, 2015).

The higher participation of women in the labour force and their increased employment rates do not necessarily translate into greater gender equality. A recent report by the United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women (UN Women), Progress of the World’s Women 2015–2016 (UN Women, 2015) and the ILO report Global Employment Trends for Youth 2015 (ILO, 2015b) both show that young women, independent of their level of education and other household circumstances, are less likely ever to enter the job market after leaving education and, if they do, they face longer transition times than young men. To some extent, this may be related to disparities between males and females in subject choices at school, which may in turn lead to women’s lower access to technical and vocational education and training that could improve their skills and labour market outcomes.

In addition to being more likely than men to take up part-time employment, women are also more likely to work short hours against their choice. The statistical notion of “time-related underemployment” refers to persons who are willing and available to work additional hours and whose working hours are below a given threshold relating to working time (determined in accordance with national circumstances) (ILO, 2015c).

The gender wage gap may still be substantial but is showing signs of narrowing. Income from employment may take two forms: first, wages or earnings, for those who are in wage and salaried employment; and, second, income from self-employment, for those who are self-employed. Lack of comparable data precludes a proper analysis of gender income gaps from self-employment, even though the share of wage and salaried workers in total employment varies considerably across the globe, ranging from as little as some 30 per cent in Africa to nearly 90 per cent in developed economies (ILO, 2015d).
Akila and Sudha (2014) shows that the feminist economics is not only for women - men can do feminist economics too - nor can it be assumed that every female economist is doing feminist economics. Many women live in poverty because their work doesn't count. Economists' assumption that women are not rational has meant that people are penalized for considering other options in their decision-making and has justified women's exclusion from much of economic decision-making. Feminist economists point out that families are becoming increasingly dependent on women's wages and this has led to what has become known as the feminization of labour. The intent of feminist principles is to encourage women to take action to develop new structures or reshape existing forces so that women can ‘live out new ways of being in relationship with the world’ Feminists advance three broad perspectives in trying to explain the absence of women from senior management in the public and private sector. Mainstream theorists did not predict that central elements of development – technology, geographical mobility, conversion from subsistence to market economies. The novelty of the arguments for citizenship lie not so much in what is being said about the sexual division of labour, as in the links being forged between the gendered distribution of paid and unpaid labour and the gendered distribution of political status and power. . Feminist economics is necessary because in the past, much of traditional economics has ignored and excluded the experiences of women.

Akila. & T. Sudha (2013) Explain that the qualitative aspects of women’s work have been emphasized in all conferences and seminars at national and international level. It is concerned with the quality of women’s economic involvement, beyond their were presence as workers. This is a particularly serious problem in developing countries like India. India is dominated by villages and rural women’s works in the villages are poorly estimated. Wage discrimination can be witnessed by rural informal sector. Women are considered as cheap labour and thereby they are poorly paid. 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 those men.


2.2.2 NON-ECONOMIC INDICATORS

It includes studies related to Political Empowerment, Educational Attainment and Health and Well Being of Dalit Women

POLITICAL EMPOWERMENT OF WOMEN

The term political participation has a very wide meaning. It is not only related to right to vote’, but simultaneously relates to participation in decision making process, political activism, political consciousness etc. Political activism and voting are the strongest areas of women’s political participation in India.

Phillips (1995) in his study observed that the extent of women’s representation in national legislatures or executives in any given country is determined by a wide range of factors. These include the general progress towards achieving equality of rights and opportunities among women and men in the public and private spheres, the design of political and electoral systems and the level of institutionalization of, and transparency in, political decision-making. Within this complex set of factors, however, political parties are increasingly referred to as the “gatekeepers” of democracy – and of women’s political participation in particular.

Shvedova (1998) asserts that the political arena is organized according to male norms, values and lifestyles. This is otherwise known as the masculine model of politics. It is based on the idea of competition and confrontation, and often ignores systematic collaboration and consensus which is especially the case across party lines. As a result, women reject this type of male-style politics or even reject politics altogether and only a small number of women actually participate. Women that are involved in politics are more likely to focus on societal issues such as health and social security. However, unfortunately the work schedule is very inflexible and women find it hard to combine work and family within such an environment.

The 81st Constitutional Amendment Bill 1996, seeking to reserve one-third seats for women (including within the two already reserved categories - for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes) has become a highly debated issue. The 33 per cent reservation quota provided for women in the local self governing bodies have enabled several women, who had never been in power and even those illiterate, to enter politics.
The political participation is affected by the following reasons as stated by various authors. Lack of economic resources, (Shamim and Kumari, 2000), Lack of education and requisite training (Sultana, 2000), Lack of political connections (Thesbjerg, 2007), Low level of educational attainment (Helvetas, 2010) are the major factors hindering the women to participate in politics. Lovenduski (2001) stated that when arguments for democracy are brought up it is usually about demands on what could be called politics of presence. This complicates that all parts of society should be able to participate in politics to ensure that all opinions are represented in the decision making process. The politics of presence include the equal representation of men and women.

Multiple factors contribute to the situation of today where women are underrepresented in political leadership. Women’s political involvement, participation and access to formal political power structures are linked to many different structural and functional constraints which differ across countries. Several authors claim that women’s absence in the political arena derives from the hindrances related to political, socio-economic, ideological and psychological barriers. There is a direct link between the social and economic status of women in society and their participation in political institutions and elected bodies. Socio-economic obstacles include poverty and unemployment, lack of adequate financial resources, illiteracy and limited access to education, choice of professions and the “dual burden” of family and a full-time job. Women take on a disproportionate share of household tasks which makes a political career almost impossible. Moreover, household tasks, taking care of the children and elderly are not always considered as actual work. Poverty is also one of the major hindrances for women to be involved in politics, namely, the disproportionate effect of poverty on women. Phillips further argues that the cultural framework of values and religious beliefs, men’s failure to share the household tasks and child rearing activities and lack of support services inhibits women from participating in public life and political activities. Liberating women from some of the burden of the domestic work would allow them to engage more fully in the life of their community. The under-representation of certain groups includes other groups than women, for example ethnic, class, racial or religious groups. Some argue that a population should not be divided into different groups which might be under-represented in policies and other spheres of society.
Chattopadhyay and Duflo (2004) in their study observed that the implementation of political reservations for women in India has been proven to affect many aspects of the economic, political, and social lives of women. They used village-level variation in political reservations for women to predict the types of public goods provided in 265 reserved and unreserved areas in West Bengal and Rajasthan, finding that leaders invest more in infrastructure that is directly relevant to the needs of their own genders. Duflo (2005) provided an assessment of the case for political reservations for women and other historically underrepresented groups. Using evidence from India, concludes that reservations have been shown to incur a significant reallocation of public goods towards the preferred allocation of the group in power.

Pande and Ford (2011) provided a more recent comprehensive review of the literature on gender quotas. They concluded that the political reservations led to a significant increase in women’s leadership and influence on policy outcomes, while noting at times more mixed evidence on some outcomes. This review also highlights the need for greater study of economic consequences. Justino et al., (2012) observed that although there may be increased female participation in social and political organizations as a result of mobilization in relation to conflict, this does not necessarily mean a change in patriarchal attitudes towards women’s roles, which means women are usually excluded from formal peace and political processes. Ghani, Mani, and O’Connell (2013) find that areas that have had more exposure to women leaders in the Panchayat system allocate a higher share of public works employment to constituent women.

Women must have a presence in sufficient numbers to engage in overt conflict or influence during decision making. Previous empirical studies on women’s empowerment often include political participation in operational definitions. Further, it included campaigning for a political party or protesting in their composite indicator of women’s empowerment. Others use women’s participation in politics. On the village level, as well as in national parliament as a measure of empowerment (example: Malhotra et al., 1995, Chattopadhyay and Duflo, 2004, Norris and Inglehart, 2003, UNDP, 2015). In line with, this commonly used operational definition of women’s empowerment an increasing, share of women in legislatures
is one of three indicators for the goal of “promoting gender equality and to empower women” in the millennium development goals (United Nations, 2015).

Akila and Sudha (2015) noted that in recent years, there has been a great deal of discussion on political participation of women in general and dalit women in particular. Political participation of women depends on a number of factors, such as: awareness of one’s own rights and claiming them, access to information on the legislation in force, on policies, institutions and structures which “govern” their life; self confidence, self-esteem and capacity to provoke and to face (if needed) the existing state structures; networks and relationship providing support and models of positive role; an environment “empowering” them—a political legal, economic and cultural environment favorable for full involvement of women in decision-making processes. Other factors include: economic dependence and shortage of appropriate financial resources, different employment opportunities (and, implicitly, career development); discriminatory social-cultural attitudes and negative stereotypes perpetuated within families and in public life; overload with domestic responsibilities; intimidation, harassment and violence, lack of access to information. In many societies, the widespread cultural patterns are the traditional ones which assign predetermined social roles to women and men (woman is mostly in charge of care, house, children, private area in general, while the man is in charge of the public area, unequal power relations between women and men in the family; low level of women’s self-confidence about entering the election; women’s perception of politics as “dirty” “rough” and, consequently, low concern about it; fear of violence, harassment, critics and divorce; the way how the mass-media treat women of the political are general, the press imposes the women’s image in politics as an a typical image.

EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT OF WOMEN

Women constitute two third of illiterate population of the world. Educating female child seems to be done as a favour, rather it should be realized as a natural process. Women are unable to access well paid, formal sector jobs, advance within them, participate in, and be represented in government and gain political influences, solely because of the lack of access to equitable education and skill.
Swami (1990) makes a critical study of women’s education in nine districts of the Vidarbha region for the period 1947-87 and points out substantial progress at the primary level, but higher wastage and stagnation amongst girls, the primary reason cited being lack of separate schools and women teachers. In higher education, girls were found largely in general education, with only a few going in for technical and vocational education. King and Anne Hill (1993) studied the condition of Women’s Education in Developing Countries; and discussed about conditions of women’s education, returns to women’s education, factors influencing women’s educational status and factors affecting primary and secondary education.

Jejeebhoy (1995) stated that empowerment of women is a process rather than a state to be achieved. Unquestionably, the beginning of women’s empowerment process is from the education of women. ‘Educated women are more likely to have autonomy making power, freedom of mobility, and access to resources, thus enabling them to act upon the aspects that may affect their own health as well as that of their children, thereby leading to increased contraceptive use and reduced child mortality. Education enables women to assume more women’s autonomy or power both in traditional gender stratified family setting and in more egalitarian ones, giving them greater control over their own lives and a stronger voice in matters affecting themselves and their families. In Bhandari’s (1998) study, an attempt has been made by the author, to compile all factual information and derive selective indicators for depicting the progress of women education in India during the course of the last century and to analyze the gap that still remains to be bridged towards equalization of educational opportunities between boys and girls in the country.

Vijay Kavshik Belakanisharma (1998) studied the nature and degree of women’s participation in labour force which are likely to change because of many factors and education status of women. More women workers may join the labour market to seek white-collar jobs and the rise in the cost of living as well as the increasing level of aspiration have motivated a sizeable section of educated women in going for employment. The book of Bhatia, Anju, (2000) analyzed the existing status of females in terms of their rights, and their socio-economic, education development, highlighting the profiles of some rural women and discusses the strategies of empowerment especially the new roles for education. The author
examines how empowered the highly educated career women are, having the women professional make a success of their careers. The author has collected information on women professionals the world over and makes a comparison with that of Indian findings.

Ungel (2000) conducted a study on what is now a significant body of learning on levels that work in favour of positive change in girls’ schooling and contribute to the promotion of gender equality in education. Shireen Jejeebhoy (2001) reviewed the considerable evidence about women’s education and fertility in the developing world that has emerged over the last twenty years, how improvement in education empowers women in other areas of life such as improving their exposure to information decision-making, control of resources and confidence in dealing with family and the outside world. Janaki (2006) in her study “Empowerment of women through Education: 150 years of University Education in India found that education will be used as an agent of basic change in the status of women. The concept of equality, opportunity and education touches every aspect of women’s lives social, political and economic. Talwar Sabanna, (2007), studied gender discrimination in education and employment intensively. The study revealed that higher and professional education is necessary for new emerging jobs but women are not getting equal opportunity as men in higher education. The situation of lower income groups and rural areas is worse than urban areas and higher income groups.

Ranganath. et. al., (2011) made a study on “Gender Equality in Education”. They found that educational inequality is a major infringement of the rights of women and girls and an important barrier to social and economic development. To promote gender equality and parity in education, States must target their efforts not only towards education itself, but also towards society’s cultural and institutional framework.

De Jong (2013) explores the experiences of educational disadvantage of second-generation migrant youth in Italy, France, the Netherlands, Spain, Denmark and the UK. The study shows that disadvantages experienced by this group in relation to school progression and attainment are largely due to their ethnicity and social class. Second generation immigrant girls from these backgrounds perform better than boys at school. However, only a minority enter non-vocational secondary
school streams and go on to attain university degrees. This is a result of a number of disadvantages associated with gender and ethnic minority status. Inequality in education is experienced among this group in the form of language gaps, early dropout, poor performance and attendance at vocational schools. In terms of gender, young women in this group are also exposed to control ‘major family and community control’ which limits their ability to transition through school and into higher education.

Akila and Sudha (2013) in this study examined the right to girls education is one of the most critical of all rights because education plays an important role in enabling girls and women to secure other rights. Education helps women take advantages of opportunities that could benefit them and their families. Education has made vast strides since we attained independence. Self-fulfillment, but not self indulgence group cohesiveness but not group jingoism, work and achievement but not power and an equalitiveness for the own sake. Discussion on gender issues is centered on gender differences, gender inequality, gender oppression and structural oppression. Feminists believe society is male dominated – in other words it is a patriarchy. Feminists also believe that society is based on conflict between the sexes. They believe that women have historically been disadvantaged in society and that men historically have had more power than women. Feminists believe this is wrong and needs changing. There are many different feminist theories but they all share things in common – they look at the differences in society between men and women and try to see how these problems could be solved. Feminists believe that education is an agent of secondary socialisation that helps to enforce patriarchy. They look at society on a MACRO scale. They want to generalise their ideas about males and females to the whole of society.

Akila and Sudha (2015) views that underlying assumptions about gender and power relations dictate the way in which new resources are allocated. The concept of gender has made a substantive contribution towards better understanding of education and development. Studies in both gender and education should be academic as well as practical. Therefore they should continue to be in touch with the gender reality and the educational reality in order to further productive research and
also to enrich each other. Strengthened by evidence associating education with improved health and productivity and creating benefits which go beyond education. The reality of female education in developing countries, however, remains far less than desired. Other aspects of inequality, such as rural-urban disparities, further amplify the gender gap in education. The gender framework in development is currently being utilized in various facets of developmental work. The approach emphasizes empowerment as the key concept, a concept born out of criticism leveled against different approaches adopted in the past, such as welfare, equity, anti-poverty and efficiency. The framework distinguishes strategic gender needs from practical gender needs and it could be utilized as an effective tool in examining female education in the larger context of development and efficiency. Educating girls achieves even greater results. When girls go to school, they tend to delay marriage, have fewer but healthier children, and contribute more to family income and national productivity. In fact, “educating girls quite possibly yields a higher rate of return than any other investment available in the developing world” The two main policies usually pursued are family reform and the expansion of female educational opportunities. The education opportunities of females depends upon the education of the parents as well.

HEALTH AND WELL BEING OF WOMEN

Nutritional deficiency of women has two major consequences for women. First they become anemic and second they never achieve their full growth, which leads to an unending cycle of retarded growth, as malnourished women cannot give birth to a healthy baby. Women’s health and well being takes into account the physical, social emotional, spiritual and financial dimensions of women’s health.

In India, as the World Bank Report (1993) indicated, 88% of the pregnant women are anemia. Similarly iodine deficiency causes mental retardation, stunting and neuron–muscular, speech and hearing disorders where as vitamin-A deficiency causes varying degree of vision loss and this is the primary cause of acquired blindness in children. The total impact of malnutrition on health is much larger, however mild or moderate protein-energy malnutrition and micro nutrients deficiency are risk factors for illness and death. Jejeebhoy, Shireen and Saumya Rama Rao, (1995) argued that the high levels of maternity mortality could be
prevented if women had adequate health services as in India the leading contributor to high maternal mortality ratios is lack of access to health care. Even today India’s maternal mortality rates in rural areas are among the world’s highest. From a global perspective, India accounts for 19% of all live births and 27% of all maternal deaths.

World Bank Study (1996) on women’s health remarked that violence against women is a serious cause of ill health and death among women. Domestic violence in various forms affects the health of women. They are not only physically wounded but mentally and emotionally too. Even employed women are no exception. Many of them do not have control over their earnings and body. Some women report that they are raped by their spouses. 27% of the urban and 25% of the rural physically-abused women reported being injured by their husbands. The injuries ranged from cuts, bruises and bites to broken limbs, broken teeth and burns. Married women reported various health problems including walking difficulties, pain, dizziness, and memory loss. A survey revealed that compared to the wives from violence-free homes, wives experiencing partner-violence bore more children, and more commonly underwent induced abortion and reported higher rates of child mortality. Prevalence of high levels of domestic violence confirms that it remains a major public health problem in India. Since husbands are the greatest perpetrators of violence against women, effective interventions would need to target them. Dowry deaths are also common.

Victoria Velkoff and Arjun Adlakha. (1998) in their study reported that India is one of the few countries where women and men have nearly the same life expectancy at birth; however, women’s health is a systematic problem because of high mortality rates during childhood and reproductive years. On the other hand son preference along with high dowry costs for daughters, sometimes results in the mistreatment of daughters aggravate the problem, and because of this daughters are neglected for the health care facilities most of the times.

Mridula Bhadauria (1999), in her article opined that most of the women are suffering from iron deficiency both in rural and urban area. The maternal mortality rate, the gender development index (GDI), the inverse sex- ratio reflect the poor status of women and their health. Women face high risk of malnutrition, retardation in growth and development, disease, disability and even death at three critical stages in their lives-infancy, childhood and reproductive phase. The maternal mortality rate
is a measure not only of poverty but also a problem of life and death concern to women. Mira Seth (2001) explained that women are seen to be suffering from iron deficiencies. Many state-level surveys on anemia have indicated its prevalence among men and women. The National Nutrition Board conducted a survey in four cities of India, which showed higher anemia rates in women than in men in all age groups in both rural and urban areas.

Jayasree Ramakrishnan and Hema Nair (2002) observed that nutritional deficiency underlies women’s deaths to a greater extent than male deaths. The lower nutritional status among women was according to a recent study conducted in India, due to greater morbidity, nutrition deficiency was one of the most important causes for the health problems of women. It included anemia owing to iron deficiency and calcium deficiency that manifests itself as osteoporosis among older women. Paul A Bourne (2003) provides that health literacy is also important for dealing with a range of chronic diseases. She suggests that health literacy independently influences the knowledge of disease but does not always influence healthy lifestyle practices, therefore the health status of the elderly should be improved and the cost of emergency room services reduced with an effective health literacy strategy.

Meslé and Ecart (2004) reported that many women face huge social, economic and cultural barriers affecting lifelong good health. Several reasons have been found to cause health problems all over the country. There is a strong correlation between illiteracy and women’s health. It has been found that children of illiterate mothers are twice undernourished as compared to the children of literate mothers. The educational level and place of residence has direct role in morbidity and mortality of women folk.

García- Moreno and Reis (2005) stated in their study that in the midst of natural disasters and armed conflicts, access to health services may be even more restricted than normal, contributing to physical and mental health problems that include unwanted pregnancy, and maternal and prenatal mortality. Even when health care is available, women may be unable to access it because of cultural restrictions or their household responsibilities.
Kristin Tomey et al., (2010) examined the relationship between physical functioning and depressive symptoms in the Michigan, study of women’s Health across the Nation Cohort of mid-life women. The analysis include seven performance-based physical functioning measures quantifying strength, balance, coordination, flexibility and range of motion and perceived physical functioning, assessed with the physical functioning Sub-Sore. These findings suggest that higher concurrent depressive symptoms are modestly associated with slower movement and a perception of poorer functioning. In contrast, history of depressive symptoms played little or no role in current physical functioning of mid-life women.

Saha and, Saha , (2010) in their study observed that India has 16% of the world’s population and its 70% of the population resides in rural areas and males significantly outnumber females, an imbalance that has increased over time. There are systematic problems in women’s health care as the typical female advantage in life expectancy is not seen in India.

David Bubal (2010) study investigated the role of household decision-making, domestic violence, access to and utilization of maternal health facilities and socio-cultural practices that influence maternal health status. The study involved both qualitative and quantitative approaches. Household environment is significantly related to maternal health. Maternal educational qualification showed no significant relationship with maternal health. Household sanitation and hygiene behaviors were significantly related to maternal health status. He concluded that maternal health is the result of cumulative effects of household environment, cultural practices, attitudes and behaviors. Improving the household environment and behavior could improve maternal health. This could be achieved through improvement of health services and information in the rural communities.

Wei-Chen Lee and Luohua Jiang et.al (2014) estimated the rural-urban differences in expenditures of outpatient care, hospital inpatient care, hospital emergency room services, medications, and total services. This cross-sectional study used data from the 2010 Medical Expenditure Panel Survey. The overall sample size for the study was 22,772. Weighted frequencies, means, or percentages were estimated to illustrate the distribution of each variable. Five two-part utilization models were then fit to determine the likelihood of having nonzero expenses and to
identify how residence in a rural versus urban area affected expenditures in our five expense categories. Quintile regressions were estimated to further explore relationships between residence and each quartile of nonzero expenditure. The results of two-part model suggest that rural populations spent more on medications, while urban populations spent more on emergency care. However, no rural-urban difference was found in total health expenditures.

Gadre (2015) in his study observed that in major urban areas, the quality of medical care is close to and sometimes meets first-world standards. High-quality medical care is limited or completely unavailable in most rural areas, although rural medical practitioners are highly sought after by residents of rural areas as they are more financially affordable and geographically accessible than practitioners working in the formal public health care sector.

Thus after a brief review of various theoretical and empirical studies, the following research issues and research gap are derived from the literature.

2.2.3 THE ISSUES

1. Dalit women are found to have lower incidence of activity status as self-employed, than the non dalit women.

2. As compared to other women and all others, dalit women fail to achieve education even at primary level, Also, to them, dreaming of higher education means building castles in air.

3. Dalits are less likely to benefit from the meager health care benefits provided by the government due to social exclusion and discrimination.

2.2.4 RESEARCH GAP

Studies related to women development measured on the basis of components of HDI, GDI, GEM and well being (Nussbaum) are numerous. But there are no studies based on the components of world Economic Forum (2005) which measures gender gap worldwide and listed out the components such as (1) Economic Participation of Women (2) Economic Opportunity of Women (3) Political Empowerment of Women (4) Educational Attainment of Women (5) Health and Well being of Women. Hence the researcher makes an attempt to study gender and development in a holistic way based on these five components.

The next chapter presents the research design and the setting of the study.