Chapter – II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Studies on women empowerment

Studies on job satisfaction
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In previous chapter the primary goal was to make clear the meaning and concept of different variables like, women empowerment, job satisfaction and religiosity, to lay down the broad objectives of the study and to frame the hypotheses that will be tested in this research.

The present chapter, as distinct from the previous one will proceed to review the researches which have been conducted so far on women empowerment and job satisfaction. Actually, review of previous researches is an important part of any research it helps in exploring the particular area and then developing the perspectives for further research trends.

Here, an attempt has been made to throw light on studies conducted in the field of empowerment of women and job satisfaction.

STUDIES ON WOMEN EMPOWERMENT

A very good number of researches have been conducted in the area of women empowerment in India and abroad. The study of Marton (1972), Kapoor (1974), Zippy (1995), Kishor (2000) etc. are important. In India, the National Family Health Survey (1998-99) has thrown light on various indicators of women employment. The centre for Development and Population Activities (1996) argued that “the gender roles can be changed and gender equality is possible”. The works of Reddy (1996), Kabeer (1999), Sen & Batliwala (1997), Subha &
Reddy (2000), Ghufran and Bisht (2006), Kumari et. al. (2008) are important in this field.

There is no basic antagonism in middle class families towards women’s employment. They further add that the principal reason for favorable disposition is that women’s employment is a source of income making her economically independent, enhancing family prestige, preparation of unforeseen circumstances and improving matrimonial prospects and so on.

Marton (1972) contends that social status involves not single associated role but an array of roles termed as role set which is the compliment of role relationship in which persons are involved by virtue of occupying a particular social status. All societies face the functional problem of articulating the various components of numerous role sets to organize these so that a reasonable degree social regularity sufficient to enable most people, most of the time, to go about their business of social life, without encountering extreme conflict in their role sets as the normal, rather than exceptional state of affairs. Today, with the change in their status and roles, women are no more confined to an ascribed status only. They also occupy many achieved status. Now working outside home for economic gain has greater social sanction than earlier, therefore the women of today feeling more to be more empowered than the women of past

Kapoor (1974) is of opinion that women are getting into jobs and continue to be employed even after marriage not only due to sheer economic necessity, but also out of various socio-psycho-situational factors and motivations. The reason of taking up jobs was to make use of
their higher education. In Kapoor’s study 40 percent of the women had been found to have started working out of economic necessity and they continued to work when it was no more a ‘necessity’ because they were ‘used to working’ and used to outside life, a particular kind of life pattern giving the freedom to mix with the people and have human contact outside the home, as well as have an independent income and individual status which ultimately results in increasing their empowerment only few notable social scientists in the country have taken an abiding interest in studying the course and pattern of change in the life and attitude of women in India.

After the independence of India the change of socio-economic conditions have made it imperative for women belonging to middle class to take up gainful employment, she has argued that this emancipation of women from their set tradition found ethos and has mainly been instrumental in changing their lives. And especially the entry of women, both of middle and upper class into remunerative vocations has been the caused factor to be counted upon much in effecting changes pertaining to their role, status and life patterns. Her findings also led her to economically hard pressed get involved in job but also used to live a socially useful life and add to the family finances. They have come to realize that works give them personal status and independent social standing with the change in women’s personal status and also in the social status there has come a change in their way of thinking and feeling (Kapoor, 1973, 1974).

Empowerment represents a means for conceptualized as involving two key elements giving community numbers the authority to make decisions and choice and facilitating the development of the knowledge and resource to exercise these choices (Zippy, 1995).
Obstacles and opportunities in the direction of empowerment need to be looked into in depth so as to give meaningful interpretation to the term participation. “An idea which is gaining momentum these days is that increased participation of women in decision – making at all levels will help to ‘adjust’ the goals pursued through the development” (Karl, 1995).

Women are integrated to all aspects of society. However, the multiple roles that they fulfill in society render them at greater risk of experiencing mental problems than others in the community. Women bear the burden of responsibility associated with being wives, mothers and caretakers of others. Increasingly; women are becoming an essential part of the labour force and in one-fourth to one-third of husbands they are the prime source of income (WHO, 1995).

Rao (1996) opined that no country or society can achieve its full potential without adequately investing in developing the capabilities of women and encouraging the empowerment of women. And yet in most of the developing countries, women have much less access to education, jobs, income and power than men. Position and status of women in society is an index of socio-economic and cultural achievement of the society.

Whatever might be the causes behind the increase in the number of the working women of a particular category and irrespective of the change or otherwise in their attitude and thinking, there is no denial of the fact that the status and role of such women is different from that of a non-working, average traditional women. Having not given up her role as a mother and wife she, in fact, has taken upon herself an additional role, and that is outside her home. The two roles, which she combines in
herself does lead to a kind of conflict at times and also causes to create some tension in her. While more parents and husband are willing that their daughters and wives should take up a role outside the home, they have not got themselves fully reconciled to the fact that some kind of adjustment in the traditional role of a woman is called for in consequence of this change. As such, while they agree that women should contribute to the raising of family income, they are not willing to share her domestic responsibilities, which have always been identified with her traditional role. On the contrary, any help provided by male members in domestic errands is still a stigma in the Indian society, and particularly in case of middle class, which are always more rigid and strict about the observance of social traditions. Such males are ridicules in their peer groups for doing so. The yardstick by which the efficiency of a good woman in Indian society is judged is indeed almost totally within the framework of her traditional role, ignoring the new status which she has acquired as a result of her new role. The situation is most unhappy for those working women who, for some reasons or others, are not able to engage in providing some domestic help (Mukherjee, 1996).

Hashemi et al. (1996) acknowledge that it is not possible to change our larger patriarchal structures through micro-credit but women are gaining more power and control increasingly over their lives within familial domain.

Goetz and Gupta’s study (1996) challenges the assumption that women always use loans allocated for them. They also refer that in two-thirds of the loans either significantly or partially are controlled by the husband brought in to the household. Women were unable to make their own decisions on how to invest or use the loan. This is an important
finding as it supports Mayoux’s study which expresses that empowerment cannot be assumed to be an automatic outcome of micro-finance programs especially given socio-cultural setting such as in Bangladesh where women are extremely disempowered to being with (Mayoux, 2000). The critics of NGO activities argue that because of the patriarchal social structure of rural Bangladesh micro-credit does not necessarily lead to women empowerment; it might even worsen their situation (Goetz and Gupta, 1996; Greenhalgh, 1991).

Eckfeldt’s (1996) study aimed to elaborate on help givers’ role and process in empowerment. Fifteen women of color with significant experience in providing helping services with other women of color participated in interview and joint review of their discussions to clarify their meanings about empowerment. Modified analytical induction was used to explore three hypotheses about empowerment. Sensitizing concepts such as self-authorization, critical consciousness, and participatory competence led to the development of these hypotheses. This method allows the investigator who was already familiar with the concept being studied to generate at the outset and refine or refocus them in relation to the data as it is analyzed. In the study, the participants gave details information about their participation and practice of empowerment. They discussed ways that: (a) participants of empowerment reflect their own worldview and are the basis of their role and helpers, (b) strategies which illuminate power dynamics and promote the development of personal power in all relational context are important elements of their practice and, (c) understanding about the impact of external and internalized oppression and related attitudes, skills and capacities facilitate women gaining some reasonable control over their lives. Participants described concerns about institutionalized in the mental
health service system and the insidiousness of sexism in communities of color.

Samira (1997) maintained that related and writing skills have been considered major sources of empowerment in the modern world. Literacy in this sense has been emphasized as a force for empowering people. It has been understood that people are marginalized and are reluctant to change without literacy and hence, if illiterate, they suffer from all hazards of life literacy and development programs based on a technology / functionalist paradigm assume that economic enhancement and living conditions will solve, the problems of development, whereas programs based on critical paradigm consider raising critical consciousness necessary for empowerment. Against this background the researcher designed study to see what empowerment meant to Maithili women in Nepal who participated in a literacy program, and how empowerment was associated with their involvement in the literacy program. In the result of study it has been observed that after the involvement in the literacy programs, women started to associate empowerment with the changes in their social, economic and psychological conditions.

Becker (1997) presented his paper at seminar on Female Empowerment and demographic process. The title of his paper was “Incorporating Women’s Empowerment in Studies of Reproductive Health: An Example from Zimbabwe”. Some other important areas of women empowerment that have been investigated are self-perception of women’s role, socio-cultural status, education, knowledge, skill and training, economic indicators, decision making in the family etc.
In Chandra’s (1997) view gender discrimination is a universal phenomenon. Both inside are excluded from positions of power. They are denied opportunities to participate in the decision making process. Even when the decisions are to affect their well-being, they are only passive observers. They primary challenge facing women today, therefore, are to increase their participation so that they get hold of the situation and become actively involved in the process of decision making. Participation has two dimensions- quantitative and qualitative. Many a time only the quantitative aspect of participation in terms of mere numbers has no meaning. Women often makeup majority of the rank as file and compromise a minority as far as decision – making process is concerned. Today, they are a need for change – change in the right direction-change from quantitative to qualitative. As women would be lift behind in the process of decision- making, it would be hard to get the democratic process started. Active participation in social, economic and political spheres would help in enhancing the process of empowerment and it would also give women the desired self-respect and social dignity, and these, of course, are the pre-requisites of empowerment.

Sakuntala Devi (1998) opined that women has vital role to play in the life of man, the family, the community, the nation and the world, Women is assigned a definite role to play. She is the ‘Queen of the Home’ and man is called the ‘Bread Winner’. The woman rules the world of men. Men and women are like two wheels of a cart, which needs to be drawn with equal force and any imbalance leads to disruption of the family life.

Nayak (1998) is of view that men and women are equal and both play vital role in the creation and development of their families in
particular and the society in general. A woman of today is not only a bread distributor but she is also a bread winner. She is working shoulder to shoulder with men. The greatest contribution of the Indian women, like their counterparts in the other part of the world, is through home, husband and children.

In his study Rahaman (1998) has expressed a dismal picture regarding micro-credit. He has found that the micro credit is helping the women to increase their income but he is very doubtful about its effectiveness and sustainability among women. His report also expresses that about 60% of the women credit holders do not use the money by themselves. Their husbands are doing that. He adds that the credit sometimes credits inconsistencies and conflicts inside the family, which is resulted in unhappiness among them.

Stewart, Das and Seibold (1998) examined the notion of empowerment in relation to the childbirth experiences of 30 Filipion immigrant women in British. Their objectives included assessing the responsiveness of the health system to the women, exploring different cultural perspectives on childbirth, and assessing the understanding of the health rights of women in relation to child and maternal health services. The results of the interviews suggested that the overwhelming majority of women experienced problems with their childbirth. Most reported that theses were due to discrimination, language difficulties, a lack of emotion and social support, and marked cultural differences with respect to pregnancy, childbirth and the postpartum care of mother and child. Despite successful clinical outcomes it was suggested that the notion of empowerment could provide insight into ways of improving the birth
experience in order to ameliorate many of the problems typical to this group.

Willey (1998) in the study of personal re-empowerment by adult female survivors of childhood sexual trauma through ceremony, symbolism and ritual, opined that sexual abuse violates a person’s spiritual connection and physical and emotional boundaries and causes disempowerment due to the shame about the self. The person becomes fused to a self-defeating, dysfunctional, survival patterns, believing that others are more powerful and have control over her life. The sufferers participated in a three-day intensive workshop that employed a variety of traditional, experimental psychotherapeutic methods. During the workshop, when a sense of empowerment is observed and or reported, the senses are accessed providing a connecting to the unconscious. This is a neurolinguistic programming technique that anchors the sense of empowerment on both conscious and unconscious levels. The impact of therapy was measured across the dependent variables, which include self-actualization, internal locus of control, self critical statements, identity, self-satisfaction, behavior, moral-ethical self, personal self, family and social self, which were taken from Tennessee self-concept scale. The participants showed empowerment in all of the specified areas.

Kar, Pascual and Chickering (1999) in their study of empowerment of women for health promotion attempted to identify conditions, factors, and methods that empower women and mothers for social action and health promotion movements. The methodology included a meta-analysis of 40 exemplary case studies from across the world to draw implication for social action and health promotion. Cases were selected from industrialization and less-industrialized nation and
from 4 problem domains affecting quality of life and health: (1) human rights, (2) women’s equal rights, (3) economic enhancement, and (4) health promotion. Analysis identified 7 methods frequently used to EMPOWER: empowerment education and training, media use and advocacy, public education and training, organization associations and unions, work training and micro-enterprise, enabling services and support, and rights protection and promotion. The investigators integrated key finding into an empowerment modal consisting of 5 stages: motivation for action, empowerment support, initial individual action, empowerment programme, and institutionalization and replication. A set of ten propositions were provided to serve as guidelines for planning community-based interventions designed to empower disenfranchised populations and to enhance their quality of life and health.

**Alam (1999)** has also shown that husband use all their credits in lieu of them. Their male guardians are determining how and where the credits would be utilized and how it would be dependent on their male to repay their loan. In most of the cases, they are unable to pay their installments hence the credit collectors put some extra pressures which become later an unbearable burden to them and finally face police harassment. Furthermore, husband and wife come in to conflict for their different views regarding the loan utilization and reverse

**Kabeer (1999)** stressed on the measurement of women’s empowerment in term of resources, agency and achievements. In her formulation, resources refer to access and future claims to material, human and social resources (as per-condition), agency includes process of decision –making negotiation and manipulation, and achievements indicate wellbeing outcomes.
Kishor (2000) argues that capturing the empowerment process with cross-sectional data needs not only indicators that evaluate the end-product of the process (i.e., indicators that measure evidence of empowerment), also indicators of women’s access to different sources of empowerment and of women’s location within an appropriate setting for empowerment. Together the indicators of evidence, sources, and setting provide a snapshot of both the success of the process of empowerment as well as the hurdles that exist.

The National Family Health Survey (1998-99) also throws light on various indicators of women’s empowerment. Few indicators are (i) Women Participation in Household Decision, (ii) Women’s Freedom of Movement, (iii) Women’s Acceptance of Unequal Gender Roles, (iv) Gender Preferences for Children, (v) Educational Preferences According to Sex of Child. These indicators of empowerment of women in India shows that concretisation with regard to gender equality is low among women, son preference remains high and women’s control over household decisions, even decisions about their own health, remains extremely limited.

Aminabhav and Kulkarni (2000) conducted their study on a sample consisting of 50 working women and 50 housewives (23-55 years old) in order to know the significance of difference between working women and housewife in their marital adjustment. The marital adjustment inventory development by Deshpande was used to measure the marital adjustment of the groups. The obtained responses were scored and subjected to a “t” test. Their result revealed that working women have significantly higher marital adjustment than that of the housewives. In addition to this it was also observed that women of adult group and
women who come from nuclear families had significantly higher marital adjustment than their counterparts.

**Becker (2000)** conducted three studies to explore perceived control and influence at the organizational, neighborhood, beyond the neighborhood, and the multiple levels using the perceived control scale as a partial measure of empowerment. Two studies used multiple regression to examine the predictors and health effects of perceived control at multiple levels among women in Detroit, Michigan. Participation in change oriented activities predicted perceived control at all levels. Membership in influential organization predicted perceived control beyond neighborhood level. Perceived control was found to have a positive effect on physical health for women aged 18-34 years. Women aged 35-54 and 55 and older with higher degree of perceived control experienced poor physical and mental health (respectively) than women with lower perceptions of control at similar levels of environmental stress. While younger women may benefit from perceived control, older women may feel a greater sense of responsibility and experience feeling of hopelessness and thus have poorer health in the face of environmental stress. Satisfaction with control was related with to better health with all women. The third study was used qualitative methods involving in-depth, structured interviews to explore the content validity of Perceived Control Scale, and to further define the concept and enhance understanding of the meaning of perceived control and influence among this specific group of individuals. Finding supported the inclusion of multiple levels of perceived control in the scale. The use of the term “control” at the individual level and “influence” at the organization, neighborhood and beyond the neighborhood levels was supported. Findings indicated that the scale addresses a variety of types of “influences” including input in
formal decisions, maintaining neighborhood norms, and drawing on available resources to create social change.

Blinde et. al. (2001) consider that women are often discourage from viewing themselves as strong, competent, and self determining individuals, so that becoming at the personal level would represent a foundation from which women could counteract these limited self – perception as well as gain control over their lives. Against these backgrounds the investigators explored the potential of sport-participation to provide women with this increased sense of power. Telephone interviews were conducted with 24 women athletes. Athletes response suggested sport participation related to the development of three empowering qualities: (1) perception of a competent self: (2) bodily competence, and (3) a proactive approach to life.

Melvin’s (2001) study showed how gender influences identity in one women’s life and in her extended family and also illustrates how her growing sense of personal empowerment affects those around her. Stories over five generations in Shirley’s family demonstrate how women as mother and mentors face the responsibility of preparing daughters for the challenges they will face as women in patriarchal society, and how this mandate changes with time. Shirley’s life and family background show how traditional limitations often pass on from mothers to daughters, and how individual and social changes make it possible to break old patterns and create new possibilities. As mothers, role models and mentors, women have the potential to challenge entrenched attitudes about girls and women, redefine relationships, change social roles, and transform family systems. The investigator also analyzed the social and psychological obstacles to women’s empowerment and autonomy, and
the influence of historical changes, including the women’s movement, on contemporary women’s lives. The study showed how patriarchal gender expactions mold girls’ identity and define women’s place; how conventional obstacles impede the growth of girls and women; and how one empowered and empowering women pass on strength and self-esteem through feminist mothering and mentoring.

Traentafillou and Nielson (2001) analyzed the attempts to promote economic and social development and in the third world through techniques of empowerment and participation. After analyzing two empowerment projects for women, the researchers argued that the empowerment projects seek to contribute the beneficiaries as active and responsible individuals with the ability to take charge of their own lives. Thus empowerment should be viewed as a transfer of power to individuals who formerly possessed little or no power. Secondly, through the intertwinement of anthropological knowledges and radical action research, knowledge about the locale has become authoritative mode of verification (regime of truth) in development intervention. By seeking to instigate and activate locale knowledges, participatory development interventions entail a crucial recasting of the governing of the target population who are now supposed to freely join the power-loaded game of the active citizen.

Freedom to women means respect for her decision, faith and sacrifice. She cares for her family. If she tolerates it does not mean that she is weak. Her Sacrifice is the cause of success of other members of the family. With the changing time the Indian society too has changed. Today there is a big section of mean and accepts her importance. This section wants to promote her equality between sexes not only orally but in
practice too. Women can also proved themselves if opportunities are provided to them. The can performed well in the field of politics, administration, science and industry (Kumar, 2001).

Tiwari and Yadav (2001) presumed that most of the studies conducted on gender related issues have classified women as the housewives or working women. It is being felt now that several women are entering in those areas of work; which have traditional been dominated by males. The area of political leadership is one of them. Therefore, in their study they developed a sample, which consisted of three types of women, namely, the housewives, the working women and the leader women. The three groups of women, when compared with each other, revealed that the working -women and the leader women did not differ on Anasakti but they scored higher on this variable in comparison to household ladies. The housewives appeared next in this regard but the leader women showed relatively poor mental health. Also the working women and the leader women did not differ on masculinity. Both of these groups were found to be characterized by more masculinity in comparison to housewives. In assessing the nature of intercorelations among the variables in the specific context of women; it was found that higher Anasakti was associated with better mental health. In another study, Zareen and Khan (2001) revealed that there was not a single woman who had taken the loan. It also admits that women sometimes make a hustle with their husband and finally can take loan and work independently if their husband gives permissions to. To a greater extent their freedom and aspirations are still in the hands of man who abuse women and even execute separation for their individual interests. But, Adhikari (2004) observes that although the micro-credit has meaningful contribution to raise awareness and increase women mobility outside the
home, gendered attitude, socio-cultural practices, Kinship relations and familial position deprived women of full participation in development. The study concludes that economic empowerment, though effective to reduce poverty situation, alone is not enough to overall empowerment of women.

Becker et. al.(2002) observed that efforts to enhance empowerment toward the aim of improved health require an understanding of factors that contribute to perceived control at multiple levels. Their study examined the hypothesized predictors of perceived control at multiple levels among 679 urban, African American women (aged 18-65 year and older). Variables participations in change – related action: level of activity within respondents, and attempts made by that organization to influence public officials, business and other groups. Results suggested that (1) perceived control is context-specific, multilevel construct, (2) citizen participation is an important factor in control and influence at multiple levels, and (3) organizations that are involved within neighborhoods and in the border community can help to increase control and influence at multiple levels in marginalized communities.

Angelo (2002) examined the effects of women empowerment on Black Women’s psychological well-being, using a structural model that combines Zimmerman’s empowerment construct and brown’s womanist model. The model predicts that differences in psychological well-being are accounted for by differences in empowerment and Afrocentric womanism, a concept that experience of Black Women in the contexts of racism, sexism, and (often) classics. Data used in the analysis came from the National Survey of Black Americans, wave 1, 1980 and
wave 2, 1987, which had usable sample of adult Black females of 742 (Mean Age=43.38, SD=17.84) and 340 (Mean Age=50.01, SD=15.96). Overall path analysis, confirmed by hierarchical linear regression, supported the structural model accounting for 40-45% of the explained variance. While demographic variables accounted for less than 7% of the variance, empowerment factor accounted for over 36% of the explained variance, emphasizing the importance of in predicting psychological well-being. Moreover finding indicated that both interpersonal and behavioral empowerment were positive predictors of wellbeing. In particular, three empowerment factors, namely, coping skills, resourcefulness, and perceived control, were found to be the positive predictors of well-being. Analytical results were stable across both sample. The study concluded that an increase in empowerment improves Black women’s psychological well-being, counteracting the disempowerment impact of racism and sexism.

Bagati (2003) opined that micro-credit programmers assume that the economic role of women will automatically translate into positive changes in their status and role, and thus it will ultimately lead to empower the women, like a magic wand. However most of the research studies on the impact of the micro-credit programmers do not much about how micro-credit programmers actually empower or fail to empower women at the household level. To examine the relationship between micro-credit and empowerment of women, the investigator interviewed 18 women and 15 other members of their families from household participating in indicare Charitable Trust urban micro-credit programme in New Delhi. Interview data suggested how the “starting point” of these loan recipients influenced their loan use partners and subsequent empowerment experiences.
Shahnaj Parveen et al (2004) have conducted a study where they have shown that the level of women empowerment is not satisfactory at household level. It also highlights the fact that formal and informal education, exposure to information, media and spatial mobility are the most influential factors that accelerate women empowerment. In contrast, the traditional beliefs, attitudes and practices are deeply entrenched with the women lives and create problems to empower women.

Consciousness raising approach has also failed to bring the changes in women’s lives. Women are controlled and directed by their male guardians. They can’t participate in any program outside their home without their consent. They are not aware of their rights and privileges due to ignorance and illiteracy. Though education is the key mean of enlightening women, the embrace a little chance for education has because their male guardians also decide how much she would learn.

After a careful examination of the existing major approaches to empowerment of women and subsequent activities, can be concluded that the successes that have so far been achieved reach a little to our expectation. The problem of women empowerment is rooted to the social structure of Bangladesh and other countries of Indian-sub-continent. Male dominated social system or patriarchal social attitude is the main key factor for women’s sub-ordination. Under patriarchal social system, all the decisions come from the male head of the household (Husband, Father, Son or even Father-in-law) actually define the role performance of women whether they would participate or not any kind of activities in their daily lives in family or society. Thus, any kind of activities taken for uplifting the status of a woman will not be fruitfully implemented without
the consent and support of their male head. The discussion states the immense need to change the male’s attitude towards their females to make empowered. But none of the approach considers the attitude of male of though it is an important factor to empower the women in Bangladesh. So, it is our intend interest to propose an alternative approach considering the attitude of male that would give a holistic view and new direction in the way of empowering women.

Hasnain and Sharma (2004) in their study of marital adjustment of dual and single career women and their husbands; drawn a sample of 80 subjects in the age range of 30-40 years. Among them 20 were double career women and 20 their husband; 20 single career women and 20 their husbands. Marital Adjustment Questionnaire was adjustment to measure marital adjustment of participants. t-test revealed non-significant difference between mean marital adjustment scores of dual career women and single career women; husbands of dual career and single career women and their husbands. It was discerned that through the dual work at home and at work place doubles the responsibilities of dual career women; which may rearing them daily hassles depression and anxiety, but rearing, nurturing and caring roles of women in Indian socio-cultural conditions seem to be ingrained in the psyche of all women as cherished value making them able to take the rearing and nurturing not at responsibility but perhaps as sacred duties.

Bishnoi (2004), observed that despite constant effort and development programs to promote status of girl child, the declining sex ratio in Haryana and Punjab indicate that girls are still life, in their journey from womb to tomb. They study was undertaking in 3 villages of Fatehabad district of Harrying. The programs selected were Apni Beti
Apna Dhan (ABAD), Balika Samridhi Yojna (BSY) and National Maternity Benefit Scheme (NMBS). The villages selected were there ones where there were maximum numbers of women beneficiaries in these programs. A total of 90 beneficiaries were selected. The impact of these programs on health status of women and children were studied in terms of knowledge employment, attitudinal empowerment and economic empowerment. Majority of the women beneficiaries fell in the high knowledge category for ABAD, Medium category for BSY and NMBS. For the attitudinal empowerment 50 % had favorable attitude towards ABAD, 40% had favorable attitude for NMBS while 40% fell in neutral category in BSY. Majority of the beneficiaries had availed the benefit only ones. In all the schemes beneficiaries desired that the money provided should be enhanced. The impacted of ABAD was maximum followed by BSY and NMBS. The binificiaries faced various economic, educational, organizational, socio-cultural and communication constraints. Removal of the same would improve effectiveness and lead to better health status of women and children.

Wright (2004) investigated the impact of selected role stressors and coping variables upon strain in women faculty using an integration of coping and feminist empowerment theories. The study was conducted using the traditional mail survey. Participants completed several questionnaires designed to assess role stressors and coping variables hypothesized to influence role strain. Role stressors included family interference with work (WIF) role conflict, work interference with family (WIF) role conflict, and perceived gender bias at work. Coping variables included personal control, perceived social support, and personal empowerment. Using hierarchical multiple regression, data from 137 women faculty with families were analyzed. Result indicated that women
faculty with less FIW role conflict, less WIF role conflict, more personal control, and a greater sense of personal empowerment experienced less role strain related to their work and family responsibility, regardless of university affiliation, tenure status, family income, or number of children personal control and empowerment appeared to the relation between perceived gender bias at work and role strain.

Turket (2004) observes that the obstacles to equality for women have changed from external to intra-psychic. The relational characteristics of women, such as nurturing and connecting with other, are now regarded as desirable attribution for workplace. Adult growth and achievement models are based on the so called masculine characteristics of separation, individuation, and independence. Relational theory supplies alternative modals called growth-in-connection, which stems from the feminine characteristics of connection, collectivity and interdependence. Women’s fear of exercising power, men’s resistance to sharing power, the traditional ways in which women attain power are all concerns that are examined. Real power lies in exercising leadership which implies risk-taking. Exploring the gender disequilibrium in issues of power-both the female advantage and disadvantage –as exemplified by the glass ceiling and its origin- helps to clarify the issue involved in empowerment.

Commenting on the views of Turket about the empowerment of women Sageman (2004) observed that Turket’s view on the empowerment of women present both the theories and the realities central to the position that women find themselves today. One of the harsh realities she discusses is the fact that women earn “79 cents to every dollar a man earns, even when the women are better educated.”
specific point of emphasis is that the only single variable here sex, and no amount of education experience or professional qualifications will alter the inequality that women suffer in workplace. Turkel opines that mothering is a good training ground for leadership as well as good metaphor to describe leadership behavior. The intrapsychic and interpersonal strengths present in good mothering are very much the same as those found in good leadership. The intrapsychic and societal elements that shape women’s relationship with power also have a profound impact on their ability to find fulfillment in love and in their career, and to succeed in life.

Kubiak et. al. (2004) are of opinion that the ability of individual to gain mastery over their environment is considered empowerment. However, empowerment often is assessed without attention to the historical, social, or political context the individual is embedded within. One example of such a policy is section 115 of the personal responsibility and work opportunity Act of 1996, which mandated a lifetime ban on welfare benefit to individual convicted of a drug-related felony. The investigators in the study examined the policy’s implications from a perspective of empowerment. Using the sequential application of case study and survey methods, they first reviewed 250 court files of female drug offenders, finding that most who were convicted of a drug felony received sentences of community probation, predominantly for use and possession. Second, they conducted face-to-face interviews with a sub-sample of 52 drug-convicted women who otherwise were eligible for welfare benefits and compared them with the general welfare-to-work population. The women in their sample had more severe barriers to self-sufficiency, including less education, higher rates
of domestic violence, higher likelihood of recent major depression and substantially higher rates of post-traumatic stress disorder.

**Grown, Gupta & Pande (2005)** are of the view that for loge time, researchers have recognized that educating girls is important for improving health, reducing gender equality, and empowering women. Research shows that education is most beneficial to women in settings in which they have greater control over their mobility and greater access to service. Female secondary education is associated with high age at marriage, low fertility and mortality, good maternal care, and reduced vulnerability to HIV/AIDS. Female secondary education can have a crucial role in reducing women, which has severe health consequences, including unwanted pregnancies, sexually transmitted infections, and complication of pregnancies. In addition to ensuring that girls attain post-primary education, other interventions necessary for gender equality and women’s empowerment can also improve health. Improving infrastructure – especially transportation and water and sanitation services-can have substantial benefit for women’s health.

**Nyanzi et. al. (2005)** keeping in view that market trading requires access to cash, independent decision – making, mobility and social interaction, designed their study to explore whether market work empowers women with respect to spending decisions and negotiation. A semi-structured was administered to 212 market women, and 12 focus group discussions and 52 in – depth interviews were conducted among market women in southern and 52 in depth interviews were conducted among market women in southern Uganda. Market women reported high levels of independence, mobility, assertiveness and social interaction. Access to cash was not synonymous with control over it; however,
spending decisions were limited by men’s ability to selectively withdraw finances for expenditures central to women’s concerns including household and children’s needs. Trading in markets earns women masculine labels, characterized variously as independent, rebellious, and insubordinate. Earning money does not change expectations of correct behavior for wives, making difficult for women to initiate, deny sex or ask for condoms.

Ritchot (2005) designed his research to generate an understanding of the meaning, process, and outcomes of empowerments of Aboriginal women leaders and professionals. In-depth interview were conducted with nine Metis and First Nations women. The data were generated and analyzed according to grounded theory method. The results showed that the research participants struggled with basic psychological problem of powerlessness, which took different forms for each research participant. Notably, all research participants had felt that the burn of racism and discrimination, and many had suffered other forms of abuse. Nonetheless, they had managed to overcome these and other obstacles to become leaders and professionals. A model, Becoming whole, was developed which outline the processes and outcomes grounded in the research participants experiences of empowerment. It has three main parts: the core concepts and two sub-processes, healing within the community and healing within the self. Empowerment was defined by the research participants in a manner consistent with current theoretical perspectives. Overall, research participants believed that empowerment was meaningful in their lives. Empowerment as experienced Aboriginal women leaders and professionals was similar but not identical to empowerment experienced in other groups.
Ghufran (2006) designed a study to find out the impact of socio-economic empowerment of women in the family on their mental health. For this purpose a sample of 88 high and low empowered women respondents were selected after administering the Women Empowerment scale developed by the investigator on a group of 250 middle aged housewives. Mental Health Inventory of Jagdish and Srivastava were administered in order to assess extent of their mental health. The results revealed that high and low empowered women differed significantly on positive self-evaluation, integration of personality, autonomy, group oriented attitudes and environmental mastery dimensions of mental health. The difference in overall mental health scores of high and low empowered women on mental health was higher than those of low empowered women. Thus the empowered woman on mental health was higher than those of low empowered women. Thus the empowerment of women in the family emerged as a strong factor that promotes the mental health of women.

Ghufran and Bisht (2006) observed the effect of women empowerment and self – esteem on depression of housewife and working class women in relation to their age. For this purpose a sample of 120 was selected in such a manner that half of women were young (age ranging from 25-40 years) and remaining half were old (age ranging from 60-75 years). Cooper smith’s Self–Esteem Inventory and Women Empowerment Scale were administrated to identify the women of medium and high self-esteem, and high and low empowered women. Beck Depression Inventory was administrated to all respondents in order to assess the extent of their depression. The results of the study revealed self-esteem to be a moderating factor of depression. Empowerment was also found to effect depressions that create a discrepancy between the
rising expectations by providing new opportunities to women and likelihood of fulfilling them.

Women’s lack of empowerment is believed to be an important factor in the persistent prevalence of malnutrition. The objective of the study was to explore the relationship between women’s empowerment, maternal nutritional status and the nutritional status of their children aged 6 to 24 months in rural Karnataka. Structured interviews with mothers were used to collect data and anthropometric measurements were obtained for 820 mother-child pairs. Results showed that malnutrition was significantly more prevalent in the tribal community. Some degree of malnutrition was seen in 83.5% children and 72.4% mothers. Tribal families had less access to electricity, education, and health care than rural families. Child feeding practices were similar across the sample, and more than 80% of the children were still being breastfed at the time of the study. Tribal women had greater decision making capabilities and freedom of movement than rural women (Sethuraman, 2006).

Das (2006), in his study, opines that women are an indispensable part of our society. In spite of the introduction of various programmes, inputs of modern technology, and creation of employment opportunities, women are still chained to problems in our tradition bound society. This study was carried out in rural areas of Khurda district of Orissa to explore the present status of women. The study identified and analyzed the factors responsible for the overlapping of gender and poverty in villages. It also examined the strengths and weaknesses of the vocational and skill development programmes undertaken by various agencies (Government and Non-Government) in different fields of
women empowerment. The social factors preventing the access of women to these skill development programmes were also identified.

**Siwal (2008)** conducted a case study of Kudumbashree programme in Kerala and reported that changes were brought about in existing power relations in favour of poor marginalized women, and changes were also attempted in knowledge, attitude and behaviour of both men and women. Awareness was built about women’s situation, discrimination, rights and opportunities as a step towards gender equity; and capacity building and skills development was undertaken. Kudumbashree organized women into Self Help Groups (SHGs) for economic independence and freedom from moneylenders. Women’s income leads to increased expenditure on their well being and that of their children. Opportunities for saving and credit are linked to the panchayats. As Kudumbashree was supported by the Government, a declining spirit of volunteerism was evident. Observers of civil social affairs in Kerala pointed to the danger of bureaucratization of Neighbourhood Groups (NHGs). Women activists have involved positively in the new institutions of local self government and development. Kudumbashree has promoted the active presence of women in politics. Kudumbashree has developed a culture of learning by doing and reflection. Group activities have led to cohesion and reduced the feeling of vulnerability. Women reported that violence diminished as men realized the importance of the economic contribution of women to the household. Women became more aware of child care services and availed the facility of supplementary nutrition for lactating mothers.
In a study carried out to assess ICT infrastructure in rural areas vis-à-vis that in urban areas for women’s empowerment, and to assess the status of ICT in education in terms of policies regarding scholarships, reservations, business development programmes, etc. for self-employment opportunities for women. The study was conducted in all five major corporations in the state of Tamil Nadu, i.e. Chennai, Thiruchirappalli, Madurai, Coimbatore, and Thirunelveli. The total sample size was 500 women/ girls. Out of 500 respondents, the highest number of women/ girls interviewed were in the age group of 32 years, followed by girls below 17 years. Majority of the respondents were college educated (374), followed by school educated (57), technically educated (44), and the rest were just literate or those who had no schooling. It was found that ICT introduction has made life easier for 284 respondents, followed by 169 who somewhat agreed. Only 24 and 19 respondents said that they did not know, or could not say respectively, whereas only 3 respondents said that they did not agree with the idea. 224 respondents said that ICTs were easily available, 23 respondents disagreed, and 52 said that they did not know. Only 30 respondents said that they used information technology, 12 for booking tickets, 27 to get information about different aspects of life, and 5 persons said they used IT for banking and insurance. Out of the 500 respondents, 111 said they got information from the Internet, which showed that Internet facility was available in their locality. 90 respondents said communication was through print media, and 33 mentioned radio as a source of information. Of the respondents who said there was easy availability of the Internet, the highest number (170) said they preferred cyber cafes. 116 said they used IT in the office, both for official purposes and personal work. Respondents used Internet according to their need, but only 103 said that
they used it almost regularly. 118 respondents used Internet once a week, 88 used it when they felt it necessary, 66 used it very rarely and also said that it was not necessary for them to use Internet daily or for unnecessary purposes. 48 said that they never used the Internet. 234 respondents strongly agreed that ICT had enabled women to know what is happening across the globe more easily. 376 respondents said that it was essential in their job. Regarding the facility of working from home, 215 respondents said they were to some extent provided this facility of working from home. Also, 132 strongly agreed that ICT enabled people to work from home. About 204 respondents said it took away women’s relaxation time. Majority (258) of the respondents wanted to make use of ICT for the next generation. It was concluded that the use of ICT helps to bridge the gap between people’s opportunities for self-employment in the informal economy and the high growth sectors of the world’s economy. SEWA has started using telecommunication as a tool for capacity building among the rural population. It was suggested that Government departments and others should come together to make poverty alleviation programmes successful through women centric initiatives in which poor women are organized to circumvent the problems of liberal development processes. Women need to be encouraged and trained to become producers on all ICTs. Clearly, engendered ICT policy needs to be developed (Voluntary Association for People Services, Virudhunagar, 2008).
Kumari et. al. (2008) conducted an empirical study to see the effect of nature of work and religiosity on empowerment of women. The study was conducted on 40 working women and 40 housewives of Rampur district of U.P. using a 2X2 factorial design. Results showed that both nature of work and religiosity of women were the significant factors in determining the empowerment of the women.

Advocating political leadership of women, Pandit (2010) opines that women’s participation in the political process is important not only because it strengthens democracy but also helps them to represent their problems and negotiate a better deal. However, it is a global experience to see the terrain of politics being very inhospitable to women. While their number as voters have increased considerably, their participation in the corridors of power especially, at the state and national level is marginally low. Though at the grass root level their number has increased after 1993, it is imperative to bring in not just a quantitative change but also a qualitative change in their participation. It is not just sufficient to empower women but also remove the causes of disempowerment.

The study of Pal (2009), Yousuf (2009), Khanna (2009) are also important in this direction.

Chary (2012) analyses the position of women in political participation and keeps his views that even after more than 60 years of democratic governance, it is distressing that the government and the policy makers are lulled into complacency, by not translating de jure rights to de facto rights to effect changes in the society.
In her paper entitled “Women Empowerment in Assam: A Study”, Chakraborty (2012) presents a brief overview of the issues revolving around women empowerment in Assam and also makes some noteworthy suggestions.

**STUDIES ON JOB SATISFACTION**

In the field of job satisfaction also a very interesting and attention seeking investigations have been conducted in India and a lot of influencing factors have been found out (Jyotsna, 1988; Mehra and Misra, 2003, 2004; Anil Kumar, 2004; Kumari, 2005; Kumari, 2006; Parveen and Singh, 2008 etc.)

The findings of several investigations suggest that job satisfaction is positively correlated with high production and general adjustment (Sinha & Singh, 1961; Sihna & Sharma, 1962; Blood, 1969; Purbil, 1973; Mohanthy, 1981; Jyotsana, 1988 and name a few). If a worker will be satisfied with his/her work, he/she will suffer seldom with monotony and boredom and the production level will always be high. Under the circumstances, to provide interest in the work and make the job satisfactory and pleasant, there is tremendous need for the job satisfaction research. It is only from the date of scientific research that the management can know the factors contributing to job satisfaction and then only can necessary steps be taken to improve job satisfaction. Moreover, knowledge of attitudes and factors leading to job satisfaction will provide scope for better selection procedure.

Personal Factors of Job Satisfaction are related to the employee himself and his family background. Among personal factors some important factors are sex, age, education, intelligence, work experience,
personality traits, level of aspiration etc. The relevant studies are presented below-

Males and females have different views, attitudes, desires, status, and opportunities of jobs; consequently there is a difference in level of job satisfaction for different types of jobs. Studies have proved that under similar working conditions female workers are more satisfied than their male counterparts. Morse (1953) in his study proved that 55% of male workers were dissatisfied while only 35% of women were dissatisfied with their job under similar working conditions.

An excellent illustration of how job satisfaction is influenced by group variables is presented by Hulin and Smith (1964). They were interested to know whether men would differ significantly from women (in the same plant) in terms of job satisfaction. They obtained measures of five separate aspects of job satisfaction from 295 male workers and 163 female workers drawn from four different plants. The data were analyzed with respect to the mean job satisfaction for the male and female workers. Analyses indicated that in three plants the female workers were significantly less satisfied than their male counterparts (p<0.05) while in fourth plant there was no significant difference. A test on the relative size of the somewhat consistent across the four samples (p<0.01).

In a study it has been found that male librarians give more importance to personal development and free decision making in their job than the female librarians, and the female librarians are more dissatisfied than the male librarians.
In “Sex Differences in the Determinants of Job Satisfaction,” Charles Weaver (1978) posits that single workers are less satisfied than their married counterparts. In order to test this hypothesis, he solicited both multi-stage and quota-sampling data from the National Opinion Research Center at the University of Chicago. For simplicity, Weaver (1978) chose to include only whites in his study, thereby creating a sample size (n) of 1,233 workers—518 females and 715 males. Weaver (1978) concluded his study by noting that replicate regressions of three independently drawn national samples reveal no significant sex-differences among white workers for thirteen. In one study it was found that women were more satisfied than man. But in another study it was reported that male principals scored overall satisfaction significantly higher than women.

On the other hand by some researchers (Lynch and Verdin, 1983; Wellmaker, 1985 and Rockman, 1985 etc.) found sex to have an great influence on job satisfaction.

Park (1992) has asserted that women traditionally perceive themselves as teachers and nurtures of pupils and that, owing to social expectations as well as informal gender stereotypes; they are more likely to desire job satisfaction in their teaching career. This view has been repeatedly confirmed by studies in which women teachers have been observed to experience greater job satisfaction than their male counterparts. According to Lissmann and Gigerich (1990), women teachers are more pupils oriented than men teachers and consequently spend more time improving their class climate.
Several studies involving Extension agents regarding their job satisfaction levels and gender have been conducted (Bowen et al., 1994; Nestor & Leary, 2000; Riggs, 2005). However, the literature is divergent, illustrating that some studies indicate that females have higher levels of job satisfaction, while other studies indicate that males do (Bowen et al., 1994; Riggs & Beus, 1993). There are even some studies that indicate that there is no relationship between gender and job satisfaction levels.

Riggs and Beus (1993) found that as the number of areas of responsibility increased for females, job satisfaction increased as well. The opposite was true for males. When their areas of responsibility increased, their job satisfaction levels decreased. However, males with more areas of responsibility were more satisfied with their colleagues than were female counterparts. It was also found that both male and female alike that had fewer areas of responsibility and fewer children living at home were more satisfied. Bowen et al. (1994) as well found a relationship between job satisfaction and gender. They discovered that female 4-H agents were more satisfied with their jobs than male agents. In another study in was found that female teachers appear to be more satisfied with their professional role than are their male colleagues.

Nestor and Leary (2000) found no relationship between gender and job satisfaction,

Kaiser, (2002) and Bender et al. (2005) refers to the fact that women reports higher job satisfaction than men.
Long (2005) also used cross sectional 2001 Australian data to investigate the gender differences in job satisfaction. Both her statistical and econometric analysis suggests that females are more satisfied at work compared to males.

Contradicting the gender paradox, in Denmark (DWECS 2000 survey) and Portugal (ECHP 2001 survey), data reveal that men are more satisfied than women in their job.

Age has an important impact on performance, turnover, absenteeism and ultimately on job satisfaction. The older an employee becomes less likely he or she becomes to quit the job due to decreasing propensity to move from one job to another and from one place to another. The absenteeism rate amounts the older/aged is likely to be higher mainly due to poor health associated to poor health. Older age also results in lower productivity due to decline in activity due to advancing age. Thus an employees’ age and job satisfaction are are found positively associated.

Studies conducted in five different countries prove that the elders workers are more satisfied. According to the study of Mores 1953 older employees are more satisfied with their job as compared to younger counterparts because of limited opportunities in the older age. But this is not confirmed according to study conducted by Scammel and Stead 1980:3-8; Wellmaker 1985:3471 A; and Hamshari 1986:3179A; and they found no meaningful relationship between the job satisfaction and age.
Kalleberg & Loscocco (1983) observed that “significant chronological age-differences in [job] satisfaction [exist even] when all other variables are controlled” (p. 85). An explanation of the factors underlying the positive correlation between age and job satisfaction is beyond the scope of this particular study insofar as the factors themselves require additional analysis. Therefore, further research must delve into the co-relational elements of this relationship, in order to update the authors’ model after two decades of criticism and speculation.

Studies conducted in five different countries prove that the elder workers are more satisfied and there is significant relation between the age and job satisfaction.

In a study of agricultural education teachers in Ohio, Cano and Miller (1992b) found that the teacher’s age, years in current position, total years teaching, and degree status were not significantly related to overall job satisfaction. In general, both males and females were equally satisfied with their jobs. These findings are similar to a later finding of the same nature by Castillo, Conkin, and Cano (1999). Therefore, over an approximate ten years period, agriculture teacher selected demographic characteristics were not significantly related to their overall level of job satisfaction. The findings from these two studies (Cano & Miller, 1992b; Castillo et al., 1999) implied that older or younger teachers were not necessarily more or less satisfied with their jobs. The longer a teacher remained in the profession the less his or her overall job satisfaction level was affected (Castillo & Cano, 1999). For instance, 22 per cent of the knowledge workers in the age group of 20-25 years are satisfied with their current jobs, but in contrast, a surprising zero per cent of employees aged 31 and above express job satisfaction.
Although the Ohio researchers’ findings are consistent, their findings on age, total years teaching, and degree status are contrary to the findings of Berns (1989) and Grady (1985). Berns (1989) found that as the age of the teacher increased, so did his or her overall job satisfaction level. Grady (1985) found that as the number of years of teaching experience increased, overall job satisfaction increased as well. Research has been conducted on whether Extension faculty’s level of job satisfaction was related to age, years of experience, educational level, and marital status (Andrews, 1990; Bowen, Radhakrishna, & Keyser, 1994; Fetsch & Kennington, 1997; Griffin, 1984; Nestor & Leary, 2000). Regarding age, intrinsic job satisfaction was higher for those in the age groups of 23 to 33 and 46 to 50 (Nestor & Leary, 2000). This is consistent with the findings of Griffin (1984), who found in a study of Extension home economists that age was related to job satisfaction. The findings of Bowen et al. (1994) indicated that age was related to job satisfaction, since they found in a study of 4-Hagents that those who were older had a higher level of job satisfaction. On the other hand, Andrews (1990) found no relationship between age and the job satisfaction levels of Extension agricultural agents.

Education is the standard of one’s academic background. Getting job as per one’s academic qualification satisfies him, on the other hand if someone’s job is inferior to his academic qualification brings dissatisfaction to him. Researchers have proved that the highly educated people are not satisfied in teaching (Schlechty and Vance 1983; Darling Hammond, 1984). In a study (Sorcinelli and Near, 1989) found that satisfaction of university faculty is independent of gender and positively correlated with one’s academic rank.
Education is another personal factor for job satisfaction. Studies in past have proved that other factors being constant employees with higher education qualification have lower job satisfaction than employees with lower education qualification who have higher job satisfaction. Mores (1953) in his study has proved that employees who had passed primary schools only were more satisfied with their job as compared to the employees who had higher qualification. But some studies suggest that there is no direct relation between job satisfaction and education qualification.

Bowen's (1981) contention that the quality of the education being delivered is a function of the level of job satisfaction of the teachers.

Concerning the educational level of Extension faculty, Andrews (1990) discovered a relationship between educational level and job satisfaction.

Other researchers have found this same conclusion (Bowen et al., 1994; Cano & Miller, 1992a; Cano & Miller, 1992b; Castillo & Cano, 1999; Castillo et al., 1999; Griffin, 1984; Herzberg et al., 1969). However, the literature does indicate a relationship between education and job satisfaction, even though studies are inconclusive regarding whether or not workers increase or decrease their job satisfaction when they increase their educational level (Herzberg et al., 1969). Even so, some studies do indicate that increasing one’s educational level increases his or her level of job satisfaction (Andrews, 1990; Berns, 1989).
Berns (1989) also discovered that a teacher’s educational level affects his or her overall job satisfaction level. A teacher with a master’s degree was more satisfied with his or her teaching position than a teacher with only a bachelor’ degree.

Teachers are the indispensable cornerstones of the society. The qualifications of the teaching personnel are the fundamental determinant of the development and organization of the service. Rendering effective service in schools depends on the human source.

Job satisfaction of the teachers, who have an important place in the information society, will affect the quality of the service they render. In this respect, the question of how the material and moral elements affect the job satisfaction of the teachers gains importance.

There is empirical evidence on the link between job satisfaction and education, however, does not always bear this prediction out: in some studies it is found that those with more education experience less job satisfaction. This apparent puzzle has been variously attributed to better-educated workers having higher expectations, or, relatively to problems of “over-education”, whereby workers are in jobs that require skills below their own education level (Clark, 1997).

Regarding the relationship between job satisfaction and peoples’ education, there seems to be a common trend in countries that higher the education level, the higher the degree of job satisfaction among employees. Although in some countries (Denmark, Finland and Italy) this trend is only a tendency, in many others (Austria, Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Germany, the Netherlands, Portugal, Romania and Spain), the
surveys’ results highlight more clearly that job satisfaction levels are higher among better educated people.

However, the data provided by the Danish contribution lead to an interesting finding that somewhat contradicts the trend referred to above. In Denmark, semi-skilled women (with less than 12 months of training) - typically employed in low quality jobs in terms of the physical environment and remuneration - are as satisfied as women with higher educational qualifications. Moreover, men with no vocational training are more likely to be satisfied to a ‘high degree’ than less educated male workers. Even so, there is a slight tendency for job satisfaction to increase with increasing educational levels. It should be noted that the group of semi-skilled women represented a small number of cases.

The Italian case identified some factors for the positive correlation between job satisfaction and educational level. The satisfaction with professional fulfillment and work perspectives increases as the educational level rises. In Italy, educational levels strongly increase as age decreases, due to the availability of better educational opportunities in recent times; consequently, young well-educated workers are more satisfied in their work than their older counterparts.

In the Bulgarian case, the correlation between satisfaction with working conditions and education is much stronger than for sex and age: ‘the more educated people are, the higher is their satisfaction with their working conditions’. Although higher educational levels strongly influence the proportion of people who are completely satisfied with their job, more people with lower educational levels are moderately satisfied.
Religiosity has been a significant independent variable in psychological and educational researches. In most of the cases its impact has been positive. With regard to job satisfaction, the available researches are also in favour of the significant effect of religiosity on it and normally it optimises the job satisfaction level of individual (Martinson & Wilkening, 1983; Chusmir & Christine, 1988; Casio, 1998 etc.).

Elzbieta (2005) conducted a study to assess relationship between religiosity and work-related attitudes among para-professional (N=182) and professional staff (N=125) in assisted living. The attitudes examined included job satisfaction, co-worker satisfaction and organisational commitment. Staff members were selected from 61 faculties in Maryland. Data were collected from staff using self-administered questionnaires. Greater religiosity was associated with higher job satisfaction and greater organisational commitment among para professional staff when considered together with age, sex and education, religiosity emerged as a significant predictor of organisational commitment for paraprofessional staff.

Empirical evidence suggests that marital status is directly associated with job satisfaction. Kalleberg & Loscocco (1983) imply a correlation between marital status and job satisfaction in so far as mature workers tend to fit both criteria. However, this method occasions a causality problem, since researchers cannot determine whether one’s age or marital status accounts for her high job-satisfaction. Indeed, this query highlights the need for further research.

Steiner and Truxillo (1987) found positive correlation between marital status and job satisfaction. He concluded that those who highly value work evince the strongest relationship between job satisfaction and
life satisfaction, we may also infer a likelihood of marriage for these same individuals. Furthermore, since marital status is directly associated with life satisfaction, we may assume that it influences job satisfaction as well.

But on the other hand, Weaver (1978) finds no sex differences in overall job-satisfaction for white workers, as he lends credence to the correlation between marital status and job satisfaction. Interestingly, when the author did not control for sex, he observed a clear discrepancy in job-satisfaction ratings between single workers and their married counterparts. Thus, it is assumed that there is more robust association for married males, since single men frequently report lower life satisfaction than their feminine counterparts. These issues require considerable investigation, in order to illuminate their implicit causality.

Zimmerman, Skinner, and Birner (1980) reported that married home economics teachers were more satisfied with their jobs than unmarried teachers.

According to study done by Michael Kneir “There is conditional relationship between marital status and job satisfaction. He observes that the correlation between marital status and job satisfaction appears statistically significant for males under age 30, females’ aged 30 to 49, males over age 50, and females over age 50. Conversely, this association is statistically insignificant for females under age 30 and males aged 30 to 49. But explaining them still remains considerably more difficult.
Fetsch and Kennington (1997) also found relationship between marital status and job satisfaction levels. They found both divorced and married subjects to be more satisfied with their jobs than subjects who were never married, remarried or widowed.

Regarding job satisfaction by marital status, a recurring result in some countries is that single people are among those most satisfied with their jobs. This is the case in Austria, Bulgaria, Germany, Portugal (‘never married’ group) and Romania (‘single people/unmarried’).

The opposite occurs in Denmark, Italy and the Netherlands. In Denmark, single people are less content than others in their jobs; in Italy, those who are divorced and separated are the most satisfied with their job; and in the Netherlands those who never married (POLs 2003 and TAS 2004) and those who are divorced (POLs 2003) are less satisfied than other groups.

Data from the QWLS (Finland) and the OS November 2004 (Czech Republic) show no significant differences in the job satisfaction of people of different marital status.

Besides the personal factors, some important job factors are also significant that determine the level of job satisfaction of the employee. Some important factors are –type of institution, type of work, skill requirement, occupational status, geographical condition etc.

The type of institution in which an individual works is an important factor to determine the level of job satisfaction. In this field the study of Sanghi (1992) is note worthy. He presented study on effects of job values upon job satisfaction and personal adjustment of public and private sector engineers. It was found that (i) Public sector indicated
positive relationship between values of opportunities for intellectual development personal skills and achievements, kind of work and job satisfaction. (ii) In private sector values of financial benefits, supervisor and co-workers were positively correlated with satisfaction. Among intrinsic values of opportunities for intellectual development, opportunities for responsible and independent action, recognition for accomplishment of work done were correlated to job satisfaction. (iii) Public sector organisations showed positive relationship between the chances to do responsible work and personal adjustment while private organisations showed relationship between opportunities for intellectual development and personal adjustment.

Recently, a good number of empirical studies have been conducted on job satisfaction and many moderator variables are found responsible for job satisfaction (Vashishth & Mishra, 1998; Mishra & Srivastava, 1999; Vashishth & Mishra, 1999-2000; Mishra & Srivastava, 2000; Mehra & Mishra, 2000, 2002 etc.)

Mehra and Mishra (1999) observed the potential moderator effect of integration of personality on the intrinsic job satisfaction-occupational stress relationship. In another investigation an attempt was made to explore the potential moderator effect of participation in decision making on the job satisfaction-occupational stress relationship. The findings suggest that participation in decision making has moderating effect on the job satisfaction-occupational stress relationship (Mehra & Mishra, 2001).

But these investigators, when examined the potential moderator effect of overall Penclope (2006) reported s participation on the job satisfaction-occupational stress relationship, found insignificant
moderating effect of overall participation on the job satisfaction-occupational stress relationship (Mehra and Mishra, 2003). The decision making and opinion seeking areas of participation do not have moderating effect on the job satisfaction-occupational stress relationship (Mehra and Mishra 2003, 2004).

Kumari (2005) in her recently conducted study found that works group had scored higher on job satisfaction than the non-works group and the difference was significant at 01 level. The researcher has argued that the higher level of satisfaction of works personnel in comparison to non-works personnel shows that the nature of their job task gives them better opportunity for ability utilisation and their feedback system is smarter and quick. Clark and Oswald (1996) analyze the importance of individual and workplace conditions in explaining reported job satisfaction in UK.

A study conducted in Canada on Influence of workplace conditions on teacher’s job satisfaction indicated that "female teachers were more satisfied with their professional role as a teacher than were their male counterparts. Teachers who stayed in the profession longer were less satisfied with theory professional role. Work place conditions positively affected teacher satisfaction; followed by teaching competence and organizational culture. Significant interactions between teacher background characteristics and workplace conditions occurred. The gender gap in professional satisfaction grew with increased teaching competence,”
With respect to the relationship between overall and job domain satisfaction, work type comes out as the most important job domain in all countries.

Good job matches increase satisfaction levels in all job domains, but in particular with respect to pay and work type.

It is important for employers to acknowledge occupational stress resulting from incremental changes in the work and external work environment, and the resulting effects on physical health, work-related stress, job dissatisfaction, and propensity to leave the workplace. Sufficient government funding to provide services, avoiding continuous changes in the work environment, and making rational restructuring decisions based on input from all stakeholders can contribute to healthier workplaces and healthy workers. In addition, providing resources in homecare to provide more permanent jobs with wages and benefits that match the acute and long-term care system will help to improve retention and recruitment in the homecare sector.

Private sector workers enjoy much lower satisfaction in job security and hours of work, but somewhat higher satisfaction levels in pay and working condition. Workers in low occupation levels (service sector workers, craft workers, machine operators and elementary workers) suffer satisfaction reductions in work type and working condition with some compensation in the satisfaction with working hours. With respect to industry, we find primary sector workers declare higher satisfaction with pay, job security and work type compared to those working in manufacturing sector. Workers in education, health and social work sectors declare lower satisfaction with pay but they are compensated by higher satisfaction with respect to job security and work
type. As overall job satisfaction is higher among the workers in these sectors (as found in previous section), the compensation in terms of satisfaction in job security and work type seems to outweigh the satisfaction loss due to lower pay.

There is positive correlation between occupational status and job satisfaction i.e. when occupational status is high then job satisfaction increases whereas occupational status is low then job satisfaction decreases. According to the study of Form (1946) about 50% of the workers expressed job satisfaction but only 17% of them agreed to accept the same job again. That means 83% workers were dissatisfied with their job and wanted to join the new work where they could get respect and their status was better.

In other study workers who believe that promotion is possible in the next 2 years reported a higher job satisfaction. In this study it was also found that past promotions have a lingering but fading impact on job satisfaction.

Workplace interpersonal conflicts and negative interpersonal relations are prevalent sources of stress and are existed with negative mood depression and symptoms of ill health. Lack of participation in work activity is associated with negative psychological mood & behavioural responses including escapist, drinking & heavy smoking (Caplan & Jones 1975). It is found that in any culture, job satisfaction is highest where higher status and recognition is attached.

In Italy, however, ‘occupational status shows that both self-employed people and employees with a more precarious status report lower satisfaction in general and for almost all work aspects’.
Geographical conditions faced by the employees also effect their job satisfaction.

Researches reveal that the industrial employees or workers of the big cities are more dissatisfied with their jobs than the employees of small cities or towns. He observed that the 80% employee liked the industries of the small cities and only 20% of the employee preferred big cities.

Other survey covered people involved in IT-oriented jobs in over 35 leading companies in India. The survey has found that it is not only age and experience which have an effect on satisfaction levels, job satisfaction levels vary on a regional basis too.

Knowledge workers in the north expressed the highest dissatisfaction level at 35 percent.

However, zero percent of the respondents in the eastern part of the country displayed total dissatisfaction with their jobs - meaning they were satisfied with their jobs. In the western region, 24 per cent of the respondents were dissatisfied; while in the south 22 per cent of the respondents were dissatisfied.

The factors related to management / employer are also important in deciding the level of job satisfaction of employees. Under this the following factors are important- Wages, Job Security, Job Promotions, Working conditions, Supervision, Responsibility, Nature of communication, Job reward etc.

Wages or salary is one of the top most factors, which causes dissatisfaction to the employee. Job satisfaction is found directly linked
with financial aspect. Studies have proved that salary has relatively strong positive effect on job satisfaction and life satisfaction for individuals high in extrinsic orientation but negative effect on life satisfaction and positive effect for individuals high in intrinsic orientation.

Watson (1939) has conducted a few studies in job satisfaction, the result of which shed light on the role of salary as a factor in job satisfaction.

Kornhauser (1940) observed that workers of higher income group accept salary important for the job satisfaction whereas lower income group doesn’t consider wage as very important factor.

Organizational researches show that general job satisfaction is only weakly associated with a person’s pay or income (Boudreau, Boswell & Judge, 2001). Elardi, Leone, Ryan Kasser 1993). This finding is even more counter intuitive as it implies that salary is not only weakly associated both with people’s quality of life but also with their job satisfaction. The life domain with which income is intimately associated taken.

With respect to overall job satisfaction, wage is important. Yet, some other factors show equally or more important effects. For example, health turns out to be a single most important determinant of overall job satisfaction. Job match quality, contract type and job status are also important.

Previous studies mostly examined the effect of earnings or wages on job satisfaction presuming implicitly that they are the most important factors in determining workers’ job satisfaction. Another justification for focusing on wage is that it is highly correlated with other
job characteristics that affect job satisfaction, therefore wage serving as a good proxy for overall job quality.

Clark (1997) and Grund and Sliwka (2001) find positive effects of both wages and wage increase on job satisfaction in the UK and Germany respectively.

Kingdon (1996) using Indian data shows that teacher’s characteristics that call for higher remuneration are not those that provide obvious learning benefits for pupils.

In fact, salary is not a motivator for employees but they do want to be paid fairly, if individuals believe that they are not compensated well, they will be unhappy by working for the company.

Working condition refers to the physical surroundings (heating, lighting, ventilation etc.) on the job. The environment in which people work has a tremendous effect on their level of pride for themselves and for the work they are doing

A major amount of time is spent in the work place by all of us. The place where we spend such a lot of time should fulfill our needs to some extent.

The physical working conditions like availability of necessary furniture, lighting facilities, size of the plant also plays a major role in the factor of job satisfaction.

The study investigated job satisfaction among public (N=190) and private (N=100) in Jamaican elementary school teachers. Emphasis was on the identification of factors that could be affected through administrative intervention. Results indicated that the quality of school
working conditions and respondents’ relationships with other teachers was significantly related to satisfaction for both public and private school teachers.

Taken together these findings point to the paradoxical conclusion that even in a society dominated by capitalism in which good services and values are often framed in financial terms and in which one’s status is signaled through one’s income.

The knowledge workers do not seem to be pleased with their present condition. For instance, about one-fifth of the knowledge workers would not even recommend their present company as an employer to their friends.

Gautam Nath, director, corporate services and human resources, NFO MBL India, feels that the employers should utilize following factors to improve the working conditions for knowledge workers.

- Clearly defined roles (where every employee knows his goals and functions)
- Suggestions and ideas from employees, (where employees are rewarded on giving good ideas even if these are not implemented)
- Effective downward and upward communication (for an efficient communication and feedback system in the organization or school.)
- Value-driven organization
• Bonding and cohesion (knowledge workers want to be identified with the organization)

• Productivity linked rewards and training and development.

There is a relationship between work place support and job satisfaction. Thus sources of working conditions produce a substantial difference in the jobs satisfaction. Social support received from colleagues had no significant influence on physical well being of a person, whereas social support received from supervisors demonstrates strong association with job satisfaction.

The workers usually compare their working conditions with the conditions of the society, under the variable of social conditions. If the social conditions are worse than the individual's working conditions, then this will result in satisfaction of the individual, as the workers deem themselves relatively in good position.

If working conditions are according to the worker then his attitude towards his organization is good, his self-confidence increases and he is satisfied with his job. In 1941 Watson & Seidman gave 9 reasons for the job dissatisfaction that were rated by the workers and working conditions came on the third place.

Finally, although less than one in five workers are insecure in their jobs, in the sense that they think they might become employed in the following year, those that are insecure are considerably less enthusiastic, more anxious and less satisfied in their jobs.

Although the diversity of job categories used in different countries makes it difficult to compare results, it is possible nevertheless
to identify some common findings. According to the result of the surveys from Austria, the Czech Republic, Denmark and Germany, workers with permanent employment contracts are more satisfied than workers with fixed-term contracts and temporary workers. Thus, it seems that job satisfaction increases with job security.

Uncertainty about the future is found to be negatively related to welfare, and in the context job insecurity has been widely found to be a scourged to stress and tension (Burchell).

Research carried out in the Portuguese information and communication technologies (ICT) and retail sectors (Casaca, 2005) concluded that ‘objective precariousness (contractual) is associated with a perception of weak quality of the job (subjective precariousness)’. The data reveal that, on average, permanent workers are more satisfied with the different aspects of their job than those with non-permanent contracts. The differences between these two categories of workers are particularly striking as according to the extrinsic aspects of job satisfaction: 41% of the non-permanent workers consider that they are ‘not satisfied’ and ‘not satisfied at all’, compared with 10% of the permanent workers who state that they not satisfied’ (data refer only to the extrinsic aspects of a job – such as pay, promotion or job security).

In Bulgaria, the Czech Republic and the Netherlands (POLs, 2003 and TAS, 2004) – where relevant data were also available – self-employed people were more satisfied with their job than company employees because of their permanent job security.

In a study job security and hierarchical position are considered as important factors in job satisfaction.
Security must also be considered as an important dimension of personality as it affects job satisfaction. Security is a relative concept, that security is an attribute of the individual. An insecure person will remain insecure even though his job is secure. Family background and many similar factors contribute to individual security.

There is intense relationship between job satisfaction and supervision as per industrial studies. It is seen that industries where supervision is proper, the employees are more satisfied. Mayo (1927) in his Hawthorn studies observed that even when other factors were not very satisfactory but proper supervision was available employees were quite satisfied with their job, on the other hand it has also been observed that other factors being relatively satisfactory, improper supervision resulted in relatively low job satisfaction. Watson (1939) observed that supervision is very important factor for determining the confidence of the employees. They came to know from the studies that the employees working with the democratic supervisors have high confidence than the employees working with the autocratic supervisors. Kornhauser & Sharp (1932) observed in the study that 71% female employees showed satisfaction in desirable supervision whereas in undesirable supervision only 29% of the female employees showed satisfaction. Thus it may be said “Supervision is, without question, one of the most important factors related to job satisfaction”.

To decrease dissatisfaction in job employer must begin by making wise decisions when they appoint someone to the role of supervisor. It should be taken care that good employees do not always make good supervisors. The role of supervisor is extremely difficult. It requires leadership skills and the ability to treat all employees fairly.
Employers should teach their supervisors to use positive feedback whenever possible and should establish a set means of employee evaluation and feedback so that no one feels singled out.

Supervision, interpersonal relationship etc are other part of work environment as well as the culture of the school. The teachers are directly under the head teacher supervision. So head teacher plays a vital role to be satisfied with the job of subordinate teachers. If the relationship between head teacher and assistant teachers is not so cooperative rather than directive it causes dissatisfaction. It means high power distance creates dissatisfaction to the job. One the other hand if head teacher is cooperative, democratic and friendly the subordinate feels fee to do any job and they become more responsible about the job. According to Hofstede relationship between subordinate and superior in a large-power distance organizations are frequently loaded with emotions. More over the ideal boss in the subordinate, eyes, the one the feel most comfortable with and whom they experience with and whom they respect most, is a benevolent autocrat, or ‘good father’. Generally female teachers’ expectation is more emotional so, all their expectation is not fulfilled all time which made them dissatisfied.

Dogmatism of the head teacher (specially the male head teachers) or harassment in the name of supervision by the senior teachers many time cause dissatisfaction to the subordinates. This is linked to environment and the culture of the organization.

The estimate of the effect of individual responsibility on the job satisfaction is difficult as it works simultaneously with other factors. The feeling of responsibility occurs in the employee due to age, pay, work duration, structure of work, opportunity etc. but the loyalty, honesty,
devotion to duties are more important in the employee to feel the job satisfaction. Sometimes management gives special responsibilities to some employee which satisfies his ego and he is motivated to take more interest in his work and his self esteem also increases. Blum (1952) studied that job satisfaction increased in those employees to whom responsibility was given according to their work. Employees will be more motivated to do their jobs well if they have ownership of their work. This requires giving employees enough freedom and power to carry out their tasks so that they feel they “own” the result. As individuals mature in their jobs, provide opportunities for added responsibility. It is necessary to find ways to add challenging and meaningful work, perhaps giving the employee greater freedom and authority as well.

Communication between employee and organization is of utmost importance and it result in higher job satisfaction. Unclear targets and objectives and poor communication can contribute to dissatisfaction and eventually lead to poor work performance. If employee is administered rewards, make sure they match his expectations are unrealistic, take time to make comparison to equivalent and comparable jobs and broad work related environmental condition to similar employers.

Job satisfaction needs effective communication about the tasks, which have to be done. The teacher/employee must know the performance achieved in relation to the target. Regular work appraisal should therefore be provided to him. More importantly they must have an awareness of organizational or any other changes, which affects their job. Seniors should periodically meet members to share the progress on performance no matter how small. Critical to this is listening to
employees feedback and their perception as it is more likely to affect their job satisfaction and work performance.

Rewarding staff appropriately is important. Especially those with many years of expertise and experience can develop strategic and creative benefits and wages to attract, retain and motivate talent who will achieve high performance for the organization and job satisfaction for themselves.

Job satisfaction is often achieved where performance is recognized by appropriate and equitable performance related pay supplemented with other perks, benefits and non-financial recognition and rewards, which meets the employees expectation. Non-financial rewards have more impact than financial recognition in attaining job satisfaction.

It is evident from the review of literature that the researches conducted in the field of women empowerment are at initial stage in social science. The social, political, economic factors have been discussed and pointed out that throw light on the causes of de-empowerment of women but some psycho social factors are still to be found out.

So far as the case of job satisfaction, the determining factors have been categorized into three main factors- the personal factors, the job factors and the management factors. Under personal factors the effects of personality characteristics, level of aspiration, need variables, religiosity, age, sex, education, work experience, number of dependents etc. have been observed. Under job factors the effects of types of works, skill required, occupational status, geographical conditions, types of institution have been examined and under management factors the effects
of salary of employee, job security, working conditions, supervision etc. have been surveyed.

In most of the studies jobs satisfaction has been considered as dependent variable and in few as independent variable also. It is also obvious from the review of studies that these are very lesser amount of researches in educational field and it is too little to take women teachers as sample.

Although, marital status and types of institution have been considered as factors of women empowerment and jobs satisfaction in previous social science and educational researches but its number is very little. The link between religiosity and empowerment and between religiosity and job satisfaction are to be confirmed. It is in consideration of these facts that the present study was sought to be undertaken.