CHAPTER IV

SURVEY OF LITERATURE

4.0 This chapter has been devoted to give a resume of earlier studies so as to provide an adequate theoretical background for the present study. In the literature many industry studies are available. According to Hagen (1959), the term 'Industry study' refers to a study of some aspect or aspects of the development, structure, and operation of an industry. The basic reason for making industry studies is to gain better understanding of how an industry operates and how it develops. For example the forces which cause a given industry to develop, and the influences which determine the productivity and the levels of living of the people involved in the study and the interactions between economic and non-economic factors related to the industry. The studies may vary widely in purpose and nature. Some may attempt comprehensive analysis of every aspect of an industry's structure, operation, evolution and perspective development. Some others may study a single narrowly defined question concerning only one sector of the

1
industry or perhaps only a single enterprise. Studies of both kinds may provide basic facts and basic insights which govern policy makers, administrators, businessmen and academic students of economic development need.

There are studies relating to industry's product - output trends, rate of investment, introduction of technical improvements and changes in profitability ratio and the size of the labour force. There are some which attach to labour force, its composition in terms of males and females, occupation and their skill requirements.

Other studies are related to the industry's labour market, union and organisation of labour force, the nature of collective bargaining procedure, the degree of maturity of various firms and personnel policies. There are industry studies relating to their number, size, membership, and ownership and geographical distribution.

Since the available literature on handicraft industries is limited and dearth of studies on shell craft industry, it is also proposed to review studies relating to handicraft artisans. Besides, the studies on handicraft artisans have also dealt with cost of production, employment and profit margin which are relevant for the present study.
4.1 Studies Relating to Handicraft Industry

Mensinkai (1961) of Karnataka University has studied the Economics of Handicrafts in Eight Districts of Mysore State namely Dharwar, Bijapur, Belgaum, North Kanara, South Kanara, Gulburga, Raichur and Bidar. The study covers the important handicrafts, their production potential, cost structure, financial and organisational problems and an estimation of degree of underemployment.

There were 306 establishments of different types in the 14 handicrafts. The value of fixed assets for establishment was worked out to only Rs.3,485. Buildings alone constituted over 75 per cent of the value of all the assets. Tools and machinery constituted only 10.85 per cent and 5.88 per cent respectively. The aggregate amount of loans outstanding in respect of all crafts accounted to Rs.12,11,461.

The fourteen crafts producing various kinds of goods, had utilised raw materials worth Rs.73,77,959 and had produced goods worth Rs.87,42,975. The wage bill had totalled as Rs.7,38,067. It means raw material had constituted 90.9 per cent and labour cost had been accounted to 9.1 per cent.

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Regarding employment the author has observed that there were 1,897 workers engaged in all the 14 crafts and of them 270 were females. Outside workers were more than double the number of family workers. The family workers had worked on an average for 240 days per annum and 6 hours per day, while outside workers had worked for 216.4 days per annum and 7 hours per day. In both cases males had worked longer hours than female and children. On the whole the workers were underemployed.

Regarding earnings the study has revealed the following facts. The earnings of paid workers had amounted to Rs.45 per month. The annual earnings of female workers had been around Rs.210 and the monthly earnings amounted to Rs.17 per head. The per capita earnings was around Rs.203 per annum or about Rs.16 per month.

Mensinkai has concluded that the male artisans had earned at the most Rs.1.50 per day and their earnings had been in no way better than the earnings of ordinary unskilled labourers in other occupations. The main reasons for low earnings had been low demand for handicraft articles, lack of organisation, and lack of resources. Both the hired workers and self-employed workers were poor and illiterate people who were forced to work hard to eke out a living.
Lakshman and others (1966) have analysed various types of handicrafts, the number of units engaged in them, the raw materials, and tools used, market conditions, the investment structure, capital-labour ratio, investment turnover, price schedule and wage structure of labourers.

The first part of their work has dealt with theoretical setting, role of cottage and small scale industries in the Indian economy.

The second part has dealt with the case studies made using survey results. The third part has investigated the pattern of handicrafts, and problems of handicrafts. In the last part summary and conclusions have been presented.

Ten handicrafts totalling 662 units had been surveyed. Most of the units had been located in rural areas. All the urban crafts had worked on whole-time basis and of the rural crafts 30 per cent had worked on part-time basis.

All the units were proprietary and in each unit the craftsman had been both a worker and an entrepreneur, attending to all activities from the purchase of raw materials to the marketing of finished products.

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The total investment of all handicrafts was Rs.8,14,243. The total number of workers was 2,395. The average turnover per employee had varied from Rs.200 to 400. The small turnover was due to small output, seasonal demand and low price of the product.

The main problems of those handicrafts had included management problem and raw materials problem. The equipment and techniques used were less advanced and obsolete. The productivity was low. Middlemen had dominated the marketing of finished articles and their exploitative practices had affected the growth of those industries.

Upadhyay (1973) has discussed the importance of handicraft technology, designs, and quality control in handicrafts. He has analysed the importance of marketing, export promotion and problems in effective marketing of handicrafts and also has suggested ways and means to overcome the problems in handicrafts.

Private producers of handicrafts had limited capital resources and as such could not organise a steady market for themselves. There had been a striking resemblance in the marketing of agricultural produce (in

4
India) and handicrafts. Both the peasant and artisan suffered from lack of bargaining capacity as they were poor. Hence they were unable to hold on to their products till they found a fair price. The handicraft artisans were also handicapped by the limited availability of design, improved techniques and market research guidance. Upadhyay had classified marketing into private co-operatives and public sectors. Individual artisans sold their goods in village shandies and fairs. A few of the co-operative societies had marketing sections which had organised their sales. State run emporia are widely prevalent and had numerous branches all over the country. Along with emporia a number of private parties had entered into the retail business in handicrafts.

Even before the planned development of handicrafts was initiated exports had been done to many countries. The trend in export revealed the large growing potential that had existed for Indian crafts. An important factor was that the inputs for most handicrafts were of indigenous nature. The limited use of capital equipment, investment, labour intensity, and traditional skills made handicrafts an ideal foreign exchange earner.
Handicrafts suffered from problems like defective personnel selection, poor quality, delays in shipment, high tariffs, scanty market research data, dearth of literature including illustrated brochures and leaflets, highlighting the salient features of particular crafts.

He has also given solid suggestions for export promotion and effective marketing of handicrafts.

1. Provision of attractive commissions, discounts, and incentives to the private sector for marketing and sales promotional activities in handicrafts.

2. Establishing a network of national emporia in leading cities of India and abroad.

3. Rationalisation of import duties, negotiations to be conducted with the Ministries of Commerce to enable Indian handicrafts to be exported at reasonable prices.

4. Mobile exhibitions of handicrafts including floating fairs to acquaint people with crafts from other areas and to stimulate interest accompanied by demonstration.
Kamaladevi Chattopadhyay (1985) has discussed the various types of handicrafts of Gujarat, Bengal, Bihar, Orissa, Karnataka, Uttar Pradesh, Kashmir, Manipur, Himachal Pradesh and Tamil Nadu. Her book has also dealt with the handicraft items made from horn, shells, sholapith and papier mache. There were a few minor raw materials from which utility as well as fancy articles were made. Each craftsman has specialised in some items and has attained greater proficiency. She has analysed different types of shell-crafts like tortoise shell, coconut shell, and conch shell, and their production processes, number and kinds of items produced from those shells.

Baljit Singh (1961) has discussed the problem of capital intensive verses labour intensive techniques in small and handicraft industries. Arguing that the concept of capital intensity might be used in two different senses (a) the intensity of capital per worker, that is, capital labour ratio and (b) the intensity of capital per unit of output, that is, capital output ratio, and that the two


would not necessarily move in the same direction. He contended that an emphasis on less capital intensity in the former sense might be misleading. He believed that a more labour intensive technique, unless it simultaneously reduced capital requirement per unit of output, would fail to serve the very purpose for which it was meant, namely, increased employment and output under conditions of relative scarcity of capital. In the planned growth of small industries in any underdeveloped country, the technique employed should satisfy the criterion of labour capital intensity per unit of output. For this a minimum size of small establishment was required. The data indicated that capital intensity in the sense of capital employed per unit of output had not been necessarily the lowest in the smaller size establishments. An obvious conclusion followed was that efficiency of capital was less in the smallest size of establishment than in others and hence a shift of capital from this class of enterprise would improve considerably the overall performance of small scale sector.

Baljit Singh is of the view that the respective techniques of small industries for consumption goods and production goods could vary. According to him, in selecting highly capital intensive (capital per worker) techniques for the producer goods industries and the lower
capital intensity techniques for the consumer goods industries, there could be no inherent inconsistency, provided the latter caused a lower capital output ratio. He has concluded that the preference of traditional tools such as Ambar Charka to modern machinery is open to criticism.

Shetty (1963) has analysed the problem of classification of household small scale industries, capital and number of persons employed in it. The second chapter of his book has analysed the place of small scale industries in developed and underdeveloped economies in the case of U.S.A., Japan and India. The third chapter has dealt with the rationale of small scale industries. The fourth chapter has analysed the structure of household industries and small scale industries. The sixth chapter has analysed the operative conditions and specific problems of household and small scale industries. Seventh chapter has dealt with the pattern of assistance, marketing and sales, indebtedness and credit.

Three thesils of Amravathi, Daryapur and Morri in the Amaravathy district of the composite Bombay state had been selected for the study. The important objectives

were an appraisal of the operative conditions of household and small scale industries, a quantitative assessment of the numerous specific problems encountered by each of these industries in their day today functioning and an objective analysis as far as possible of the various factors whose absence had found to inhibit the competitive efficiency impair productivity, capacity and retard growth of these industries.

The study has covered 28 small scale industries like furniture making (6), general engineering (7), manufacture of utensils (machines) (5), oil pressing (6) and soap making (4) and 146 household industries like carpentry (16), black smithy (15), leather working (15), weaving (26), printing and dyeing (10), manufacture of utensils (hand) (8), lime kilns (6), pottery (12), brick making (10), tanning (14), bamboo works (14).

The study has been restricted to 20 important centres on the 3 thesils based on concentration of industries. Total number of establishments in selected centres has been 1,148. The number of units covered has been 178 and the percentage to total has been 15.2. The study has analysed the type of ownership of the enterprise, amount of capital invested, location of work place, the characteristics of output, composition of employment characteristics, marketing and sales, problems
connected with credit, raw materials, organisation and transportation difficulties.

The study has made suggestions like improving finance and credit, supply of raw materials, improved equipment, lower selling costs, operation of mobile vans, wholesale depots, export drive, government purchase, lower transport costs and labour costs.

Abdul Aziz (1989) has conducted a case study with regard to lacquerware and bidri industry in Karnataka. He has analysed two types of strategy, that is, self employment generation strategy and artisan development strategy. Though the focus has been on the handicraft artisans and their levels of living, it has also examined the operations and institutions built around the artisan trades. The industry has been classified into factory units, corporation production unit and household unit.

The study has revealed that the industry has been constrained with non-availability of inputs like raw materials, credit and market. The small artisans had been exploited by rich mastercraftsmen and it has pointed out the advantage of state intervention. The study has also pointed out that institutional agencies could play more

positive and constructive role in future in the creation of new product designs and in training the artisans. Unlike in agriculture, production under the artisan occupation had been wholly for the market. Hence, the author has analysed the production and market relations. In order to make a comparison, the value of output had been taken into account rather than physical output. Wood and other raw materials had been identified as the main determinants of value of output. Across the factors, the elasticities of wood were higher than other factors. The study has also examined the sources of raw materials and the problems with their availability and prices. Wood had constituted 60 per cent of the total raw material costs. The problems connected with wood supply had been its non-availability in time and its high price.

Labour was an important input of toy making craft. The basic source of labour supply had been family labour itself. Female and child members of the family too had worked with the head of the household. Some of them had worked full time and some of them had worked part time. Labour had been also hired from outside the family who had worked full time for wages. The state had come forward to supply two of the basic inputs required by the lacquerware artisans, namely, finance and raw materials.
The wooden toy making artisan had not faced the marketing constraint as these products fetched an export market. Even then a large majority of the artisans had depended only on local markets.

The author also has studied Bidri industry. It has been largely a household industry. There have been broadly two types of enterprises in the industry, namely (i) household enterprises and (ii) master craftsmen enterprises. The basic difference has been in terms of the size of capital employed and the type of labour employed.

There had been hardly any earlier study on the problems of bidri artisans or on state intervention in this area. For the purpose of enquiry the enterprise had been taken into consideration rather than artisans as the unit of observation. The survey had identified 63 enterprises. At the time of enquiry there had been 206 artisan workers consisting of 173 family artisan and 33 hired artisan workers. Of this 7 males, 43 females and 19 children had been reported as part time workers. The study has also revealed the capital structure, employment structure and annual capacity and production in these different enterprises.
The 63 enterprises had invested about Rs.210 lakhs as fixed and working capital in the ratio of 42.5 and 57.5 per cent respectively. Bidri industry had provided employment to 122 males, 38 females and 24 children. The industry had been basically a family labour employing one.

The 63 enterprises had produced bidri articles worth Rs.5.36 lakhs during the reference period (1982-83). The production had been skewed infavour of the mastercraftsmen enterprises which had given some control over the product market. The average output per enterprise had been Rs.8.5 thousand which was very small considering the popularity of the product. The average value of production in the case of household artisans had been even less than Rs.6,800 though this figure had worked out to two to three times in the case of mastercraftsmen enterprises. Another disturbing point had been that the actual output was only 50 per cent of the existing capacity. The reasons had been raw material, finance and product market bottlenecks.

Statistical tests had shown that not only the mean level of output between the two categories of enterprises had been significantly different but also the variables like capital, and labour inputs showed significant difference between them. These two inputs had explained a
high proportion of variation (86 per cent in output $R^2 = 0.86$).

The regression analysis had revealed that a one unit increase in capital and labour would lead to an approximate increase in output value by Rs.0.78 and Rs.2.90 respectively. Thus the bidri industry had been highly labour intensive. Again output had been more sensitive to fixed capital rather than working capital.

Aziz has studied the socio-economic profile of bidriware artisans such as their religion, caste, age, sex, composition, educational status, family size and work participation. The overall average family size worked out had been 6.6. The work participation rate among the artisan households had been 79.4 per cent. Bidri had been a source of employment and income. Nearly 80 per cent of the total family income had come from bidri. The income data analysis has revealed that 80 per cent of the households had fallen below the poverty line which called for poverty amelioration policy measures from the state.

Aziz has concluded that the components of intensive artisan development programme, namely, bank credit, supply of raw materials and purchase of bidri articles subsidised tools and equipment and common facilities adopted in respect of bidriware artisan had been appropriate. He has evaluated his programme in the last chapter.
Cable Vincent, Weston Ann and Jain (1986) (in their book, 'The Commerce of Culture: Experience of Indian Handicrafts') have elaborated the importance of handicrafts in the Indian economy. They have analysed the wages, labour conditions and welfare of the handicraft artisans, their technology choice and policy, input constraints and the international environment for Indian handicrafts and have made some policy implications.

The study had been undertaken because of the growing importance of handicraft items in India and abroad. Of the increase in production from 1974 to 1980, 65 per cent had been exported and only 35 per cent had been sold domestically. According to them, rural women had been forced into the situation of producing unnecessary luxury items like lace, or other handicrafts for women in Europe and the U.S.A.

The exploitation of women who had produced for the world market did not consist in the fact that they had been not only denied reasonable living wage but also robbed of their energy, and their living time. Their skills and knowledge could have combined with local raw materials to produce use values for themselves.

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The handicraft sector had been highly diverse. They had identified four major types of organisations each representing a different stage of commercialisation and technology. Further differentiation had been possible according to the place of production, the ownership of means of production, the mode of production and whether the labour was family or hired, part time or full time.

Regarding wages, they have pointed out that the structure of wages had been as complex as the craft industries themselves with variation as between different production processes, different places and different seasons of the year. Payment had been invariably a piece rate system, complicated in practice by various factors. They have pointed out the practical problems involved in the determination of average wages for comparative purposes.

Eventhough wages had been low it could be argued that increasing demand for the products of craftsmen had bound to improve their lot by raising demand for their labour. The increased demand for labour had not only been expressed in increased employment but also in higher real wages. But it had been difficult to trace change in real wages. In the handicraft industries wages had been only one aspect of the working life of the artisan. A more meaningful test of assessing the property of artisans and
improvements had been to look at living conditions rather than looking at wages directly. In many cases the home had been the work place and it had determined the quality of the working conditions.

According to them another approach to the question of wages and conditions had been to look at the distribution of value added between wages and profits and at value added at different stages of production and distribution. They have also suggested certain ways and means to improve the position of artisans which had included market development, labour market intervention, unions and legislative controls and encouraging the independent artisan for social development.

They have also pointed out the problems confronting the credit and raw material markets, the international environments for Indian handicrafts, marketing strategies and commercial problems like poor quality and lack of product innovation, the incentive given by the government of India and their impact on handicrafts. Finally they have suggested some policy implications for the improvement of handicraft sector.
4.2 Studies Relating to Handicrafts Artisans

Kaul (1965) has studied wages, earnings and conditions of employment of handicrafts workers. Kaul, Deputy director, All India Handicrafts Board, in 1965 had conducted a field study. The main objective had been to study the composition of working force, wages, earnings and conditions of employment of handicrafts workers. Field work had been carried out on 10 handicrafts centres (Lucknow, Varanasi, Jaipur, Indore, Delhi, Srinagar, Hyderabad, Mysore, Tanjore and Trivandrum). In all, 522 craftsmen who had worked in 12 broad and 31 sub-craft groups.

Craftsmen had been classified on the basis of age groups and craftwise and had come to the conclusion that craftsmen continued to work even in their old age. Handicrafts workers had been predominated by adult males (93.3 per cent). Female and child labour had accounted for 6.1 per cent and 0.6 per cent respectively.

On an average handicrafts workers had been engaged for 283 days in the year which had been 17 days short of a normal working year of 300 days. The overall number of

hours per day worked out had been 8.4 hours. That is to enhance daily earnings most of the workers had been working for more than the normal working time of 8 hours, two thirds of the craftsmen had been employed on the basis of piece rate wages. Time rate wages system had also been prevailing.

Finally the author has analysed the standard of living of artisans on the basis of data collected from artisans on structure and composition of family, housing and indebtedness. He has concluded that the handicraft worker despite his skill and art, continued to belong to the weaker and poorer segment of the society. Artisans conditions of living had been far from satisfactory. He has suggested that employment generation in this sector to a large extent has depended on provision of protective and welfare measures such as minimum wages, bonus, gratuity permanency of employment, provident fund, medical aid and adequate facilities for training. Then only handicraft sector would step up production and earn more foreign exchange.

Margo Russel (1985) has studied the production and marketing of women's handicrafts in Swaziland. The

industry has provided regular cash income for women but women have faced conventional market hazards like competition from other suppliers. Handicrafts has represented one of the avenues through which women get access to and control of cash and in the expenditure of which they have exercised some independence. Handicraft production has enabled them to conform to both these pressures (consumers, child bearing) since it has afforded them the cash to consume without interfering with their obligations as mothers to be with home.

The importance of handicraft earnings has been the assured income over which women have control. 86.3 percent of women have decided on their own what their income from handicrafts should be spent on. The money has been spent on items which enhance the well being of women as daughters in law, wives and mothers. Food, clothes, school fees, saving and investment have been met from handicraft income. It has been a reliable element in the management of family economy.

The women had offered 74 different kinds of products. Three quarters of all products on the market have been made from natural materials particularly grasses and reed which women gather from bush.
The handicrafts items have been sold both in the local market and in the tourist market. Women producers have also served as traders. The handicraft trade has been predominantly female though men have been recently becoming more conspicuous as producers mainly of wood and stone carvings. In 1984 a consultant had been appointed to investigate the export potential of Swazi handicrafts in British and German markets.

Shantha Krishnan (1989) has studied traditional potters. She has identified 40 potters in the locality of Delhi. There had been 1,899 households with a population of 9,063. The average size of the family had been 4.77. The maximum members in a family had been 21 and the minimum had been one. There had been 24 households with no male and 33 households with no female at all. There had been the migration of potters from rural areas to urban areas.

As a result, the proportion of urban resident potters had been slowly but steadily rising. The artisans had been largely isolated from the benefits of improved appropriate technology, credit and inability to take advantage of developmental opportunities provided by the

12

market and developmental facilities extended by the government organisations and other agencies. They generally lack management skills to secure these benefits for themselves in order to improve their production returns and income and enhance the social economic status of their families.

The survey has been designed to trace out the existing status, the gaps in and the improvements required in the areas and systems of technology, production and productivity, design marketing and marketing intelligence, developmental finance and credit and to throw clear light on their developmental needs including marketing.

The productive activity of the potter artisans has been at its peak during the summer. This has been dictated by the nature of market and demand for the major production of their crafts.

The potter artisans have been both full time and part time workers. During the festival season the potters having other main occupations have done pottery work. They have produced both traditional and new products to suit the needs of the people. The study has concluded that out of the 1899 families 36 per cent have been full-time workers and 64 per cent have been part-time workers.
The literacy level has been very poor in the case of potter artisans.

There had been an inverse ratio between craft intensity and educational level. The vast majority of the illiterates were from full-time / part-time / festival time potter families.

The trade margins and trade relations in respect of pottery goods have brought out that the case of potter artisans of Delhi has not been one of market exploitation so much as poor exploitation of the market. The potter artisans of Delhi have got the entire price paid in the market by the ultimate user in respect of the major part of the trade where sale to the ultimate user has been carried out by the potter producer himself or members of his family directly.

There has been middlemen exploitation. The study has recommended a system of market intelligence to be set up and expertise for market exploitation and market development and improved access to the market. Technological upgradation in terms of product as well as process, provision of adequate physical space and infrastructure for production storage, sales and incorporating an artisan appropriate residential pattern
in urban planning, have made credit available both for maintenance of production as well as development.

13

Pratap Mathur (1994) has conducted a study in arid zone of Rajasthan. He has studied the socio economic conditions of eight types of handicraft artisans and has revealed that the establishment of handicrafts has prevented the migration of men and women in search of food and shelter. He has analysed the problems of arid zone and socio-economic conditions of artisans and their health hazards, inadequate wages and non availability of training facilities. The study has revealed that dealers get the real profit than the artisans.

Handicrafts have continued to thrive inspite of recurring drought so that dependence on monsoon could be reduced and the gainfull handicraft occupation has provided the necessary income on permanent basis. This would not only serve as an effective drought proofing measure but also minimise huge efforts required through relief works in cases of scarcity conditions.

The prices of raw materials have been constantly rising and as such the average profit margin of the

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13

 artisans has been reduced considerably. As compared to the rise in the cost of raw material the prices of handicrafts have not been increasing simultaneously in the same ratio.

The rural artisans had not been able to purchase the raw materials from any government depot or other agency. They had been forced to buy the required raw materials from private dealers at exhorbitant prices. This has eroded the average profit earning possibility of the rural artisans. There had been no co-operative societies. The artisans had been exploited by the dealers as well as the other middlemen, who had engaged in marketing their finished products.

The stocks of finished products of the artisans have been accumulating. Almost all the artisans engaged in these activities had been using old tools, and techniques of production which could not match the present day development requirements. The actual productivity had been very low and the artisans had been lacking new designs for their products. It had been causing problems in the marketing. Average profit of the artisans had not kept pace with the minimum wages prevailing in the area. Artisans had sold their products to the local consumers or to the middlemen. This has reduced the bargaining of artisans.
Vijayagobalan (1993) has confined his study only to 16 export oriented handicraft activities concentrated in different areas of the country.

He has analysed the demographic status, educational levels and training, assets and liabilities, employment and working conditions, production and costs, household income and socio-economic aspiration of the handicraft artisans.

He has classified employment in the handicraft sector under two categories, namely, wage earners and self employed. It had been found that self-employed artisans normally worked for longer hours than wage earners. The handicraft sector had offered full scope for round the year employment thanks to an assured market and the shortage of skilled craftsmen. Self employed artisans had assured work orders to be kept busy for over 300 days in a year. The artisans had been paid wages on a piece rate basis instead of weekly/monthly basis. From the survey result it had been observed that 93.3 per cent of the sample wage earning artisans were paid on a piece rate basis.

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14
Nearly half the self-employed artisans (47.7 per cent) had been wage earners in the concerned craft prior to setting up their own manufacturing units. As a result they had been well familiar with the various aspects of production. A classification of the sample manufacturing units by scale of manufacturing operation had revealed that two fifths of the units had produced handicraft goods worth up to Rs.25000 annually. The presence of substantial number of units engaged in the manufacture of high value items, in the sample, had pushed up the average level of production of a handicraft unit to Rs.1.12 lakhs.

For the purpose of analysis production expenses had been divided into 3 broad categories. Raw material, paid labour charges and other items. It had been found that raw material was the major item, accounting for 70 per cent of production costs. On the annual turnover of Rs.1.12 lakhs an entrepreneur in handicraft activities was found to realise a margin of Rs.30,000. The 'margin' indicated was the difference between the value of production and paid out costs and it did not wholly constitute profits as it had included a component of opportunity cost of family labour.
The study of Ramakrishnamoorthy (1996) has analysed 11 women labour intensive handicrafts industries including shell craft. The analysis has included production, employment, wages, income and profit margin. He has classified the 11 industries under 3 groups namely sea-shell craft, lace and embroidery and natural fibre craft. The labourers in the handicraft sectors have been divided into part-time and full-time labourers. The study has also analysed the nature of employment status, working hours and days of employment.

Some of the findings concerned with shell craft artisans have included. The average hours worked per day during 1995-96 had been 8.16 hours. The average days of employment of part-time artisans had been 330 and that of full-time artisans had been 304. There had been 3 methods of wage payment, namely, time rate, piece rate and contract wage.

The average wage of shell craft artisans had been Rs.10.12 per day.

Use of machinery in artisans work had been practically absent. The annual production of these industries for the year 1995-96 had been Rs.5.48 crores. Shell craft has been one of the major handicrafts of Kanyakumari district. The entire units had been classified on the basis of the value of annual production.