

ECONOMIC ANALYSIS OF WOMEN LABOUR: A STUDY IN SELECTED INDUSTRIES IN COASTAL KARNATAKA

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DECLARATION

I, hereby declare that the present thesis titled “**ECONOMIC ANALYSIS OF WOMEN LABOUR: A STUDY IN SELECTED INDUSTRIES IN COASTAL KARNATAKA**” is the outcome of an original research work undertaken and carried out by me under the guidance of **Prof. Shripathi Kalluraya P.**, Professor, Department of Studies and Research in Economics, Mangalore University. Due acknowledgement is made wherever anything was borrowed from other sources.

I also declare that the material of this thesis has not formed the basis for the award of any degree or diploma of Mangalore University or any other University previously.

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CERTIFICATE

I certify that the Ph.D. thesis titled **“ECONOMIC ANALYSIS OF WOMEN LABOUR: A STUDY IN SELECTED INDUSTRIES IN COASTAL KARNATAKA”**, incorporates the results of the independent research of Mrs. Priya Harish, designed and carried out under my guidance and supervision.

I also certify that it has not previously formed the basis of any degree or diploma of the Mangalore University or any other University.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

- **INTRODUCTION**
- **NEED AND SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY**
- **RESEARCH ON WOMEN LABOUR**
- **STATEMENT OF RESEARCH PROBLEM**
- **OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY**
- **HYPOTHESES**
- **RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**
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INTRODUCTION

The economic development of any country is determined by several factors like human resources, physical capital, natural resources and technology and their utilization, in which human resources are paramount. It has been realized that investment in human resources development is more significant than investment in machines. Knowledge in general, and technical knowledge in specific, makes the labour force more manageable and economic activity thrives and becomes healthy. Human resources constitute both the male and female working population of a country. The percentage of women labour in India is not constant and usually increasing.

In developing countries, due to historical reasons or due to the prevailing socio-economic conditions, women, and more specifically rural women, are marginalized and mostly engaged in unproductive or less productive activities. Low productivity, gender discrimination, and social barriers make women to engage in household activities. Recently, researchers showed interest in evaluating the role of women in economic development and tried to measure the contribution of women labourers to the economic development.

The rural population in India comprises of a major portion of the total Indian population, which live in villages scattered throughout the country. A number of factors are responsible for poverty in the rural

areas of India. Agriculture is demographically the broadest economic sector. The rural population depends on unpredictable agriculture income, while the urban population depends on industrial work, bank sectors, government sectors, and malls or shopping complexes.

Women contribute to the economy to combat poverty through remunerated work at home, in the community, and at the work place. When poverty affects households as a whole, the gender division of labour and responsibilities of the household, give women, a maximum burden to manage household consumption. Women labour constitute an important segment of the labour force in India, and their participation is increasing over the years.

Women Labour in India

There are many different types of industries in urban and rural areas. Mining industries such as coal and lignite, and manufacturing units like brick, chocolate, beedi, cashew, fish, tiles, etc are situated in both the areas. Working women in these industries enhance their family's earnings. Female labour is an important segment of the workforce of India. In many cases, women are deprived of formal education and compelled to work for the family. This study documents the story of the progressive change of women in some of the least developed villages of India.

The data by the International Labour Organization for 1995-2004 shows that women's entry into the labour market continues and the

gender gap in labour participation has been reduced worldwide. Due to economic necessity, some qualified women work for a sense of achievement and to provide service to the society. Hence, there is high female participation in economically under privileged communities. The work participation rate is found to be higher among rural women, i.e., 27.00 per cent and that of urban women is 10.00 per cent. As estimated by the World Bank, 90.00 per cent of the women working in the informal sector are not counted in the official statistics and their work is undocumented, comprising of unskilled low paying jobs, which do not provide any form of benefit to the workers. In urban areas also, many women work in the informal sector, which includes household industries, building, construction, petty trade or domestic services.

Women Labour in Karnataka

Illiteracy is the main root of unemployment. Most of the literates work in urban areas and illiterates work in the agricultural sectors. Everywhere, the rate of male is higher than the female rate in terms of employment. The gender rates in the urban and the rural areas have a slightly different pattern with regard to the economic activities. Karnataka has a literacy rate of 75.36 per cent as per the 2011 Govt. census with 82.14 per cent males being literate and 65.46 per cent females being literate. Karnataka is one of the major states of south

India. It is the 9th largest state in India in terms of population. The population of Karnataka in 2011 was 61,130,704 and in 2012 it was estimated to be 710,201,204 as per the govt census. Rapid industrialization and the growth of various metros in Karnataka has contributed towards the growth of its economy and increase in working population.

The coast line of Karnataka is 65kms long and offers some of the picturesque and pristine beaches along the west coast. According to the 2001 census, farmers and agriculture labourers formed 56.00 percent of the workforce of Karnataka. Karnataka occupies the second position in India in flower production. 700 tonnes of flowers worth Rs. 500 million were produced in 2004-05. Cashew, coconut, arecanut, cardamom, chillies, cotton, sugarcane, and tobacco are among the other crops produced in the state. After independence, Karnataka has evolved as a manufacturing hub of some of the largest public sector industries of India.

In coastal Karnataka, most women contribute significantly to the fishery, beedi and cashew industries. Recently, the rate of enrolment of women in both primary and higher education has increased as can be observed by the increasing number of graduates and post graduates. In view of this, the number of women entering different employment avenues has also increased. The number of less educated women labourers working in industries has also increased. Women labour force

entering industrial activities has shown a remarkably increasing trend. There are a few industries where women employment is preferred by the employer. For example, in Coastal Karnataka, women employment is found more in fisheries, beedi, and cashew industries. Even hotel industries prefer to employ women labourers. Increased scope for women labour force in industries is a good trend. However, there is a need to investigate their role contribution and its impact on them. Several research works have attempted to evaluate the conditions of women labour which is reviewed in the next section.

NEED AND SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The present study on 'Economic Analysis of Women Labour: A study of selected Industries in Coastal Karnataka' was taken up to study the prospects and problems of women labourers in the DK and Udupi districts of coastal Karnataka. Women working in Beedi, Cashew and Fishery industries which are the sectors taken up for the study, are deprived of the essential social benefits and are also marginalized. Most of them are illiterate and ignorant, and they are economically backward. They are exploited by the owners by making them work for considerably low wages and a meager remuneration and for long hours. In this context, the present study makes an attempt to understand the employment avenues for the women labourers and challenges faced by women labourers in Beedi, Cashew and Fisheries sector in Coastal Karnataka.

RESEARCH ON WOMEN LABOUR

Research on gender issues has gained importance in recent years, particularly on gender discrimination, women entrepreneurs, working women, and so on. A review of such research studies give an insight into the research gap existing on women studies.

The review of literature on women studies show that women and gender discrimination aspects have been much researched. Women entrepreneurship, women labour, progress, nature, and related programmes have been evaluated. Due to increased education and awareness of working outside to earn an income, the women workforce has increased in industries. However in this transition, it would be interesting to analyze the socio-economic background of women labourers working for industries. Also, it may be noticed that, the economic analysis of women labour is less researched. Hence, there is need to probe into the economics of women labour, which will be attempted in the present research.

STATEMENT OF RESEARCH PROBLEM

After reviewing the literature on woman studies, some of the research issues were identified. Most of the studies conducted were on the life and living of women workers, while some studies concentrated on female labour power. Moreover, studies dealing with women labour in industries are scanty. Very few studies have attempted this aspect

across other states of the country, while particularly no comprehensive research work has been conducted on these micro regions. Thus, it is obvious that a comprehensive study on women labour and related issues at the grassroot levels is required. Hence, the present study intends to examine the less researched issues in women labour.

Women are getting empowered and are engaged in several activities, deviating from their traditional domestic work. Education and entrepreneurial skills, managerial excellency, and the changed social system have created an environment for women to work outside. They are now employed in almost every sector of the economy.

Women labourers working in industries are not much educated and skilled. However, they are preferred to men for certain kinds of work in industries. In this context, the following research questions arise:

1. Why are women labourers preferred to men in some industrial works?
2. What is the social condition of women labourers?
3. What is the economic condition of women labourers?
4. Why are women labourers preferred in industries and what is the reason for their migration from traditional agriculture to industry?
5. What are the problems faced by women labourers at the workplace?

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The main aim of this research is to evaluate the nature, extent, and performance of women labourers working in industries in the Coastal Karnataka region, using economic variables.

The objectives of the present study are as follows:

1. To analyze the women labour force in India, Karnataka and Coastal Karnataka.
2. To study the socio-economic characteristics of women labourers, and factors influencing them in the study area.
3. To examine the nature of problems faced by women labourers, both at the workplace and at the household.
4. To study the awareness about the social security schemes for the welfare of women.
5. To provide policy implications for the welfare of women labourers in selected industries.

HYPOTHESES

H₁: The socio-economic characteristics of women labourers working for industries are at a lower level.

H₂: Need to earn for the family is a major drive for women to engage as labourers in industries.

H₃: All women labourers engage in both, industries and household.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The proposed research study on “Economic Analysis of Women Labour: A Study in Selected Industries in Coastal Karnataka” was carried out by evaluating the nature and extent of women labourers in beedi rolling, fisheries, and cashew industries. Further, the economic analysis of the work of the labourers was carried out by analyzing their nature of employment, work, working conditions, and income and expenditure pattern.

Study Area

The proposed study was taken up in Coastal Karnataka region, covering the Mangalore and Puttur towns in Dakshina Kannada (D.K.) district and Udupi and Kapu towns in Udupi district. These districts have several industries like cashew, beedi, and the fisheries, which employs women labourers to a large extent.

Sources of Data

The data for the proposed study was collected from both primary and secondary sources. The primary data was collected from the sample households of the women labourers by using a well-designed and pre-tested schedule, canvassed through personal visits. The data collection entailed two parts. The first part comprised the general features of the

sample households encompassing demographic particulars such as age, education, size and composition of family, occupation, etc. The second part related to detailed information about their work, earnings from their job, health related issues, etc. The secondary data was collected from various periodicals, journals, books, published and unpublished articles, research thesis and from publishing sources like the International Labour Organization Reports, District Statistical Reports, Census Reports, etc.

Sample Size

For an in-depth study, a two stage sampling method was followed in order to select the women labourers in the study area.

In the first stage, the main industry, from which the women labourers were selected. From each selected industry, the women labourers were selected at random.

A total sample of 320 women labourers selected, is given in table 1.1 methodologically, to arrive at the objectives of the research and their problems to be analyzed.

Table - 1.1: Sample size

(Numbers in the table represent the number of women labourers)

Region	Beedi	Cashew	Fishing	Toal
Udupi	21	45	79	145
D.K.	49	67	59	175
Total	70	112	138	320

Prior to my research study, the tool was pretested by making a pilot study taking into account, 30 samples respondents, 5 each from 3 industries i.e. Beedi, Cashew, fisheries, which amounts to total 15 each from the 2 districts of Udupi and D.K. which amounts to 10 percent of the total respondents considered. The pilot study revealed that most of the women labourers are deprived of economic privileges. After the study, it was felt that there is a need to have a closer observation over the issue. Further it was found that no much study was done about the issue, and therefore based upon results of pilot study, the research problem was developed. An attempt is made to answer to all questions raised in the reaserach.

In the second stage, the conditions of the women labourers are analyzed in terms of their impact on their standard of living and family life style. Further, improvement in their economic status, role of decision making, etc. are analyzed. Percentage, average, and other sample statistical techniques are used to analyze the data.

SCOPE AND LIMITATION OF THE STUDY

The study covers, various socio-economic and health related issues and economic analysis with respect to the women labourers. It is intended to provide policy suggestions for the further welfare of the women labourers in an effective manner. It is expected that the

academicians or researchers will get a clear vision of the empirical evidence to support their studies in future. Government agencies, Non-Government Organizations (NGOs), and other policy makers will benefit from this study to extend their support to the welfare of women workers.

CHAPTER DESIGN

The proposed study titled **“ECONOMIC ANALYSIS OF WOMEN LABOUR: A STUDY IN SELECTED INDUSTRIES IN COASTAL KARNATAKA”** is organized in seven chapters as below.

- CHAPTER 1** : **“INTRODUCTION”** includes statement of the research problem, relevance of the study, objectives, methodological framework sample size, study area, limitation and scope of the study, and chapter design.
- CHAPTER II** : **“THEORETICAL FOUNDATION AND REVIEW OF LITERATURE”** provides theoretical foundation and detailed literature on the subject reviewed and presented.
- CHAPTER III** : **“WOMEN LABOUR”** presents the Indian scenario and analyzes the status of women labour in India.

- CHAPTER IV : “PROFILE OF THE STUDY AREA AND SAMPLE”** gives an introduction of Karnataka state and the climatic, demographical, geographical features and socio-cultural and economic profile of the study area and industrial profile of the study area.
- CHAPTER V : “SOCIO- ECONOMIC CONDITIONS OF WOMEN LABOUR”** analyzes the nature and extent of women labour employed in industries in the study region and also their socio-economic conditions.
- CHAPTER VI : “ECONOMIC ANALYSIS OF WOMAN LABOUR”** analyses the work, nature of work, the income and expenditure pattern of the labourers and the problems at the work place.
- CHAPTER VII : “SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION”** presents a summary of the research results and of the discussion given in the earlier chapters and the important economic implications for enhancing the overall effectiveness of the development programmes. Finally, the chapter concludes by providing directions for further research in this field of knowledge.

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CHAPTER II

THEORETICAL FOUNDATION AND REVIEW OF LITERATURE

- **INTRODUCTION**
- **THEORETICAL FOUNDATION**
- **REVIEW OF LITERATURE**
- **CONCLUSION**

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter is to provide discussions on the theoretical foundation for the present research and study on “Economic Analysis of Women Labour: A Study in Selected Industries in Coastal Karnataka” related to woman labourers. Theoretically, women labourer’s economic conditions may be discussed against the background of labour economic theories and women empowerment theories. The basic concept related to women labourers and their economic conditions are reviewed here which was not done in earlier reasearch.

A number of literature, based on empirical studies, is available on the “Role Of Economic Analysis of Women Labour”. These studies of the socio-economic conditions of women labourers, and women participation and decision making in family has shown mixed results so far in India.

THEORETICAL FOUNDATION

Women labourers working in different industries have various implications. Their economic conditions may influence in terms of employment and income generation. They may be exploited by the employers. Hence, empowerment, exploitation, and other factors related to women labour becomes important.

The theoretical base for the above study in economics of women labour goes back to the **exploitation theory**, which was strongly

acknowledged by the **Austrian Economist, Eugen Von Bohm Bawerk.**

The exploitation theory is the cornerstone of attack on capitalism. The philosophy behind the classical economists is based on the principle of private property. The **idea of classical economists** such as labour theory of value, Iron law of wages are the original and primary form of income, from which profits, and all other non-wage incomes emerges as a deduction with the earning of businessmen and capitalists.

The **Exploitation theory** states that the institution of private property allows the privileged few to reap the benefits of the labour of others without needing to contribute anything by way of effort, ability or labour.

Exploitation plays the same role in Marxists' ideology that coercion plays in libertarianism. It is the ultimate evil that society must eradicate. As per the Marxian ideology, exploitation means an unfair advantage acquired by the privilege of private property. In general, exploitation refers to one person or a group, taking unfair advantage of another. The capitalists take the advantage of the hunger of workers. Exploitation is subjective in terms of quality and quantity. It has a psychological as well as economic component. The exploitation opposed by the working class gave rise to the birth of a new system called socialism.

Kuznets (1966) found that as economic development takes place, more people shift from agriculture to industry and then from industry to the service sector. This transfer of population from agriculture to industry must be accompanied by a rise in productivity in agricultural sector. This sector provides food and raw materials to the industrial sector.

Boserup E. (1970) observed that the economic activity among women follows a 'U' shaped curve along the course of development. In the initial stage of development, when there is agricultural economy, there is increased demand for female labourers, which leads to higher workforce participation of women.

Industrialization leads to greater demand for skilled labourers. It leads to displacement of women labourers and it is substituted by male labour. In the later stages of development, where there is expansion of tertiary sector, it again raises the demand for women labour.

The empowerment approach was developed in the mid-1980s in women and development discourse. Empowerment is related to power. Power means control over material assets, intellectual resources, and ideology. The empowerment approach comes from women groups who seek to empower themselves through greater self-reliance. The **Empowerment Theory** states that women need appropriate resources to be self- sufficient.

The Millennium Development Goals was adopted by the United Nations in the year 2000 to address the world's major development challenges, with health and its related areas as the prime focus. Eight goals were framed to achieve world's development challenges. The Millennium Development Goals on gender equality and women's empowerment was adopted to close the gender gap in all field such as education and at all levels such as in sports and thus to increase women's share of wage employment in the non agricultural sector and also to increase the proportion of seats held by women in national parliament.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Review of literature calls for deep knowledge and clear perspective of investigation. Information about what has already been done in that particular field is very essential for research. Research work on gender issue have gained importance in recently such as gender discrimination, women entrepreneurs, working women, and so on. A review of such research studies will give an insight into the research gap existing on women studies. Such an attempt has been made here.

Employment in the Construction Industry; Does It Have to Be So Unstable? questioned **S.N.Guha Thakurta (1917)** as the survey

indicates increased demand for construction during pre- and post-monsoon period. In fact, because of the climate and traditional custom, it has so far not been possible to undertake construction activities during monsoon, simply because construction activities are high in the summer season. The broad conclusion of the study is as follows. During depression, seasonal unemployment will be high in most countries. It is expected that a compensation scheme for these workers would involve less cost than that for those whose occupation-specificity is relatively more rigid if one month's leave with pay is added to a period of continuous employment.

Guru Prakash Singh (1961) article on Plight of Migrant Construction Workers, attempts to examine the conditions of construction workers and problems faced by them in Gandhinagar city. From the analysis, it is clear that the economic conditions of the workers have slightly improved, but demographic-social and working-living situations of the workers are extremely pathetic and vulnerable. The demand and supply of migrant workers is managed through the contract system. Contractors and sub-contractors play a crucial role in providing facilities and obtaining desired employment within a short time span. From the employment point of view, the industry is male dominant and preponderant and female workers are unskilled and remain unskilled during their entire life.

Anuradha G. and Eswara Prasad K. (1984) focused and highlighted the manner in which beedi workers are exploited, which according to them, is in-built in the production process and the way in which the beedi industry is organized. They feel that there is scope at every stage for the exploitation of the workers. Some of the typical problems related to exploitation refer to low wages, shortage of raw materials, improper counting of bundles of beedies, incorrect entries in the pass book, irregularity in work, and non-payment of bonus.

Surya Rao and Thangapandian (1985) in their study conducted in Trichy town show that beedi manufacturing was carried out for the past eighty years and in over 2000 places. The authors described the development of large-scale manufacturing and infrastructure sector and that the share of unorganized labour in the workplace had not changed.

Zarnia Bhatti (1987) in her study highlighted beedi making as a major industry, and provided information on the plight of women workers, specifically beedi rollers. The author argued that it has failed to gain the attention of the economists and policy makers to a large extent. She observed that their economic contribution had been neglected in the household economy and the unorganized sector, and concluded

that the beedi industry helps the women and children to be self-reliant and contribute to the income of the family.

Giriappa (1987) argues that the role of beedi rolling in rural development is an important activity after agriculture. Beedi rolling is a major rural activity and an intergrated rural development programme, which has been directed towards improving the living conditions of the rural poor.

Rohini Nayyar (1987) in *Female Participation Rates in Rural India* studied the issues related to female participation rates in rural India. Section I of the paper presents the alternative estimates of female participation rates for the period 1961-81. The problems of data collection with respect to women workers and the errors that may be inherent in estimates of female participation rates are highlighted. Section II attempts to analyze inter-state differences in female participation rates and to identify the possible causal factors underlying these differences. The question of wage differences between male and female workers and the imperfections of rural labour markets is considered in Section III. Section IV concludes with some general observations following the paper's analysis.

Arup Mitra and Swapna Mukhopadhyay (1989) in *a Study on Female Labour Absorption in Construction Sector*, identified cities with

high or rising rates of labour absorption in the construction sector and differentiated them from cities with low or falling rates of such absorption. The study also analyzed the gender differences in the pattern of labour use in the construction sector of urban India. An attempt was made to decompose the percentage changes in gender-specific labour used in construction into various component factors contributing to variations in such absorption across cities. The authors tried to identify the relative importance of the extent of male-female substitution within the construction sector as well as substitution between the construction sector as a whole and other sectors in terms of employment generation.

M.V. Shobana (1991) in a Study on condition of Women Workers in Madras, Madurai and Coimbatore conducted during the years between the first and second World Wars, especially considered women workers working in cotton mills. The study found distinct disparity between male and female workers as regards the kinds of work they were assigned. Women were given lowly paid jobs in the mills as reelers, winders, and wastepickers. Other work came rarely to them and the poor working conditions, health hazards, and long working conditions made the women mentally ill. The study also revealed that, by the end of the First World War, unionization of workers had begun. A number of union leaders stressed the need to unionize women in order to change their miserable conditions. The movement of the period under review,

demanding for better wages for women, special facilities of work time, and maternity benefits.

Rao (1992) observed that bad working conditions at home due to poverty caused women to suffer from fever, diarrhoea, and as the findings of the study says the workers commonly suffered from giddiness, backache, trachoma, etc. The author stated that the workers in Jabalpur organized co-operatives with the help of self-employed women's association as a measure against exploitation and started working as centralized workers.

Mohandas and Praveen Kumar (1992) stated that in 1969, the Government of Kerala decided to organize workers on a co-operative basis and the "Kerala Dinesh Beedi Workers Co-operative Society" was registered to eradicate the misery of the workers at the hands of employers. The authors highlighted how the plan took a new turn since with the factory-based system.

Women entrepreneurship development issues have been respected by several researchers. It is noticed that, extensive amount of information on various entrepreneurship and women's development programmes have been introduced in India. There is an assessment of the current position of women entrepreneurs, as well as of the existing support programmes such as credit, training, and marketing support for

women to establish their own enterprises. **Sharma (1996)** looks at the socio-cultural, educational and legal barriers to women's entrepreneurship in India. It also includes profile of most of the key agencies involved in promoting women's entrepreneurship and recommendations for policy makers aimed at enhancing the economic empowerment of women throughout the country.

Few studies are related to industries that describe that the system of making beedies in factories or workshops is non-existent. Only home-based work is the prevalent system. The beedi industry is able to gain profit with little input in infrastructure and comprehensive benefits to labour. **Gopal (1999)** also highlights the process of production, benefits to the labourers, exploitation of labourers, and variety of arbitrary practices by the contractors and sub-contractors. In the 1990s, the industry was enhanced with more commission shops, with non-recognized brands being paced along with regular brands were run by the sub-contractor. The shops run by these traders and the smaller contractors who sell the non recognized and imitation brands are known as fit fly by night shops. It also reveals that these commission shops indulge in a variety of arbitrary practices.

The author brings to light various types of rollers like main rollers, joint rollers, 'chittai' rollers, child labourers, assistant rollers, etc. and also the extent of exploitation in different ways. It also points to

the absence of strong unionization and lack of knowledge on the part of the women about the outside world. Illiteracy added to their inability. Discontinuity of beedi work at various levels was a common feature among the beedi workers. The author stressed that the subordinate position of women was built into the production process of the beedi industry.

Clara Greed (2000) studied the women in the construction professions: achieving critical mass, and found that that there have always been greater number of women at the soft end of the construction spectrum in housing that shows hard and soft dualism. The author also stated about bottom up and top down change agents and said that the most effective bottom up groups were likely to be those that have a foothold within the professional bodies such as the women led equal opportunities in construction work.

Azid, Astom, and Chaudhary (2001) observed that female labour force participation in industries has been proved in a number of studies seemed to be helpful in the process of reduction of poverty, especially in rural areas. Southern Punjab, especially its rural areas, are comparatively less prosperous than the other parts of Punjab. The study also observed that women's income of the rural areas of Southern Punjab was more likely to go towards meeting their family's needs than their male

partners'. These women spent most of the income on household food, clothing, and education of their children rather than reinvesting in their business.

Sudhir, Balakrishna, Anmol (2002) in their studies on women empowerment revealed that they address the issues and discuss the kinds of policy reforms and institutional changes required for the emancipation and empowerment of the rural female labour force. They opined that empowerment should aim at changing the nature and director of the power structures, which marginalized the women labourers.

Ram Lakhani (2004) investigated the Occupational Health of Women, Construction Workers in the Unorganised Sector. One thousand and fifty-two workers were selected by stratified random sampling, medically examined, and subject to relevant interviews, examinations, and investigations. About 76 per cent women reported gender-specific work stress factors such as sex discrimination, and balancing work and family demands, above and beyond the impact of general job stress such as job overload and skill underutilization. Discriminatory barriers to financial and career advancement were found to be linked to recurrent physical and psychological symptoms and more frequent visits to the doctor among women workers.

Economic globalization and the policies associated with it are resulting in the increasing informalization of work as representatives of working people, unions, and agencies alike are being further marginalized. **Pravin Sinha (2004)** in his article on representing labour in India discussed the background and current situation in general terms before presenting a case study of the National Centre for Labour (NCL), an apex body of labour organizations of all kinds working in the informal sector in India. Its members include unions and agencies active among workers in the construction industry, as well as in forestry, fishing, and domestic work. Such collaboration has not only enhanced the effectiveness of both the unions and the agencies, but has also increased the unions' representative character.

According to **Dev (2005)**, the role of workers in the organized and unorganized sector is such that the workers in the unorganized sector earn low and have poor working conditions. In the liberal market, the state has to provide them minimum social security. The article discusses about the bills related to the unorganized sector's workers' security. The writer points to the importance of public policy concern to ensure certain minimum measures of social security in the unorganized sector.

Jhabvala (2005) observed that organizations of workers have become unimportant in the Indian political and economic life. Besides,

Labour Laws and Social Security Acts, which were designed to protect workers, are becoming irrelevant for the unorganized sector. Hence, the Unorganized Workers Bill has become important to ensure a minimum level of protection to workers in the unorganized sector, and the Second National Commission had formulated a prototype bill and submitted it in 2002. This Bill was used as the basis for a considerably altered “Unorganized Sector (Protection and social security) Bill” prepared by the Labour Ministry. However, the success of the Unorganized Workers Act will depend much on how actively the workers themselves are able to participate in implementation.

Madheswaran et al. (2005) in their study indicated the problems of the beedi workers and industry in Karnataka. It presented the issues relating to the beedi workers. The study argued about the socio-economic conditions of the workers, health issues, etc.

Sirohi (2005) described the labour welfare and welfare measures available for three unorganized labourers like beedi rollers. The study revealed the labour legislations and different working facilities to different working groups, including beedi labourers.

Rajashekar and Anantha (2006) analyzed that as the beedi workers are unorganized, the role of the trade unions in ensuring the collection

bargaining of the workers will become either marginal or non-existent as trade unions would find it difficult to deal with this shortcomings.

Selvi (2006) highlights the beedi industry as labour intensive, weak capital base, and unorganized sector. Uneducated women are employed, as opportunity is limited in agriculture. In rural areas, it is an alternative economic activity as it requires no infrastructure.

Shivakumar (2006) discusses the significance of social security from a human development perspective and comments on some aspects of the National Commission for enterprises in the unorganized sector and proposes to introduce a social security bill for unorganized sector workers in India. He describes that millions of unorganized workers do not have a collective voice and say in influencing public decisions. He reveals that though both central and the state government has instituted schemes and welfare funds for women workers, the coverage has been uneven and small and the benefits are negligible. He highlights that the state should protect the livelihoods and promote employment and consider introducing a hand made Indian brand that establishes for products made by national workers and the unorganized workers.

In the study on Flexibility, Employment and Labour Market Reforms in India, the author **Alakh N. Sharma (2006)** opines that Indian labour laws are so numerous, complex and even ambiguous that they

promote litigation rather than the resolution of problems related to industrial relations. A comprehensive view on labour market reforms is required, one that addresses the needs of both employers and workers. The author recommends simplifying and rationalizing the complex and ambiguous extant pieces of labour legislation into a simple code that allows for labour adjustment with adequate social and income security for the workers.

Anurekhia Chari's (2006) paper on Guaranteed Employment and Gender Construction Women's Mobilisation in Maharashtra argues that it is not the presence of a large number of women as EGS workers that makes the scheme women-friendly, but the presence makes possible their mobilization by organizations that have leftist and feminist ideologies. Through this mobilization, not only "women-friendly" provisions such as equal wages, provision of creches, shelter, maternity benefits, and close proximity of EGS works get implemented, but women raise new concerns, which critique gender discrimination.

The author **Limbadi (2007)** analyzes the hindrance in the way of improvement of workers as envisaged by the relevant legislations. The empirical study highlights that the industry comprises only the poor, belonging to backward classes and very negligible number from forward

classes as workers. This study focuses on the fact that the policy makers should focus on the future of the large workforce in the industry.

Annette Barnabas et al. (2009) conducted a study on the Empowerment of Women Construction Workers as Masons in Tamil Nadu. For that, 440 male construction workers and 440 female construction workers and 51 building contractors were approached to find the reasons why women in the construction sector were not able to acquire skills for masonry work and how they could be trained to become masons. The findings of the study showed that there is an inherent gender bias against women and also shared general belief that women construction workers are unfit to be trained informally like men in the construction sector even though they have the necessary skills. The study also analyzes the methodology of training offered to men in the construction sector in India and proposes a new methodology of training that would qualify women construction workers to become masons and empower them economically.

Das (2010) observed that compared with other industries for women labourers, the cashew industry is quite good; some studies revealed that women are actually fit for the cashew industry because of their potential and effective work compared with men. The cashew

industry plays an important role in the rural areas. Now, there are more women in the cashew industry.

In a study conducted by **Vijaya Thakur (2012)**, the Indian handicrafts sector, one of the largest employment generating sectors in rural and semi-rural India, is passing through a very critical phase for the past four years. Other than the bleak global scenario, the Indian Handicrafts Industry is plagued with many factors that are hampering its growth. The government has taken various steps to boost up export, however, it still requires a deep analysis and immediate support to artisans to promote the art of their native areas. While India's cultural diversity provides for a rich variety of handicrafts, it lacks adequate infrastructure, innovation in product designing, and making art wares compatible to world demand.

Arundhati Chattopadhyaya (2012) found that conceptual frameworks for measuring women's empowerment at the aggregate/macro level are less developed compared with household level. The accepted and most commonly cited are Gender related Development Index and the Gender Empowerment Measure by UNDP (1995). A large number of factors contribute towards the empowerment of women in socially complex and tradition bound societies in India. It is almost impossible to track all of them in any one study. Despite the well-

known conceptual and empirical constraints, this study identified 32 socio-economic and political parameters that have direct or indirect bearing on the empowerment of women. Women empowerment strategies need to be prepared by judiciously identifying parameters responsible for women empowerment in a particular state and accordingly formulating required policy interventions.

Sushanta Kumar Kashyap (2012) observed that the traditional indigenous industries include handloom, handicrafts, bell metal, bamboo, traditional jewellery, indigenous medicines and other household industrial activities carried out in the rural parts of the state using locally available raw material, human skill and indigenous technology. Besides generating employment opportunities in rural areas, these industries make best possible use of unutilized or underutilized local resources.

The study conducted by **Indrani Mazumdar (2013)** reflects the status of the socio-economic conditions of women labour. It traced that more than 86 percent of the female population is today completely economically or financially dependent and without any employment or income. Such evidence of the widening gap between male and female employment has however, failed to attract the attention it deserves from policy makers and is yet to become an issue of any major public debate.

The issues and discussions that the economic growth which started after independence took momentum after economic reforms were introduced in the economy. Now India is recognized as the second fastest growing country after China and is emerging as a superpower in the years to come. GDP and per capita income is growing, but employment is not growing in the ratio of the GDP. There are growing income differences among different income groups. Hence, the concentration of economic power is growing in the country which is a challenge for equitable growth to be undertaken. Efforts need to be made to reduce the difference in income groups (**Mahendranathpandey and Chitranjan ojha - 2013**)

Entrepreneurship in small enterprises is an option for women either individually or through SHGs. It is observed that socio-economic characteristics do have influence on entrepreneurship. Individually, women of upper caste with sound economic conditions and good social backgrounds are engaged in entrepreneurship with family support. (**Munakalyani and Bibhiti Bhussan Lenka-2013**)

There are indications of positive interventions in the women entrepreneurship process due to the training of EDP in Tirunelveli district. In the study, the respondents strongly agree that they have

gained the optimistic outlook about business, need based innovation production and product formation through EDPs and it is the main reason for the successful business. Many factors influence SHG women in entrepreneurship activities. The optimistic outlook team work risk taking, has been major level of attitudes gained by SHG women entrepreneurs through EDPs.(**A.AngelAnila 2013**)

The power loom units in the study area are facing a number of problems in the process of entrepreneurship development. But the researchers have considered the production and product related problem faced by the power loom entrepreneurs in the process of entrepreneurship development. The power loom has high rate of electricity and shortage of electricity. It is very difficult to get adequate labour especially in case of large scale looms. Underutilization of capacity, is another major constraint faced by the textile industry; the workers employed in the power loom industry are almost unskilled and technically untrained. Due to this productivity is affected and therefore the power loom service centre, technical institutions and textile department should conduct special technical training programs for workers.(**Meenaxi S. Madiwalar and S.S. Hugar 2013**)

The dairy units advertise the products at local and regional level. They advertise the products regularly in various media. The most

preferred media include radio, newspapers, local TV channels and point of purchase advertisements. The advertising budget is decided on the basis of affordability method. The survey shows that, the dairy units have developed a good brand image and the sales force is utilized to persuade the distributors and retailers to push the sales of specific dairy unit. They adopt timely delivery and marketing assistance to the distributors. There is need for better distribution of network in Junagadh district, after assessing the existing situation. **(Rajkumar Tapandasani 2013)**

The missing labour force in India, the recent fluctuations in the labour participation of women is probably due to short term shifts in activities responding to favorable economic conditions. Such fluctuations need to be placed in the context of a structural change in labour participation where the share of women in the labour force as well as labour participation has been declining for the last quarter of a century. Upward social mobility in Indian patriarchal society in the wake of growing incomes is probably symbolized by women's withdrawal from paid labour and their confinement to unpaid domestic activities. Even under such adverse conditions, employment of women is not stagnant. Those who do enter and remain in the labour market are women from the most vulnerable households, as marginalised informal paid labour, thus

feminizing the precarious forms of labour in the country. **(Vinoj Abraham 2013).**

It is noticed that, in a multi religious country like India, social exclusion process is quite an evident issue from decades. Even though India is having several minority groups, muslims among them are worst hit by the situation. Muslims constitute one of the largest minorities in India, with the low level socio-economic stratum and social exclusion in the form of education. Employment and access to the resource is quite unbridled among the Muslims working in the Beedi Industry. Muslim people who are involved in this work are extremely poor and do not get right wages, and other facilities. It is found that 14 percent of Muslim women in the city are working in the beedi industry. Their socio-economic status is quite pathetic. **(Nanjunda-2013)**

In their work on “Migration and Gender in India”, they presented a sketch of the key findings of a three year research project on Gender and Migration at the centre for women’s Development Studies (CWDS). A macro – picture of the sectoral composition of male and female labour migration is first presented, based on the 2007-08 migration survey by the National sample survey office (NSSO). The centrepiece of the paper, however, summarised presentation of the new primary level data that was generated by a series of micro survey conducted between 2009 and

2011 by CWDS across 20 states. They have been consolidated to present a mesolevel view of types of migration number of female labour migration, conditions of work place and life of women migrant workers.(**Azumdar, N Neetha, Induagnihotri 2013**)

Selvaraj N., Alagukanna A.S., and Suganya M. (2015) in their research article, “Impact of Micro Credit on Household Income of Women in Madurai District, Tamil Nadu”, stated that the household income represents the total income of the family members through all sources. When the family members earn, it is a supporting source of income for the respondent. Higher family income indicates a better standard of living and a better family environment. The Anova test was used for the analysis.

A study by **Dr.Radhakrishna (2015)** pertaining to “Employment Generation in informal sector : A case study in coastal Karnataka” reveals that the informal sector is facing competition by large industries in the region and large number of manufactural goods are posing a threat to the existence of good older traditional informal sector activities. Further, the study reveals that the modern informal sector activities are gaining importance in recent years. These activities have become a major course of employment avenues in the study region of Coastal Karnataka. The author stated the measures to be adopted by the

government to protect traditional activities by giving them incentives like subsidies and tax exemption, so that the tradition of the region would be safeguarded.

Rina Agarwala (2017) in the article on “Resistance and Compliance in the Age of Globalization: India Women and Labour Organizations” summarized the findings obtained through an ethnographic research conducted in three states of India between 2002 and 2004. On the basis of interviews with more than three hundred labour leaders, government officials, and working women, the author reports on the efforts of informal workers in construction and tobacco manufacturing to organize and improve their conditions of life. Contrary to mobilization in the formal sector, those workers do not make direct demands on their employers. Instead they appeal to the state to obtain welfare benefits. The study shows that neoliberal reform has surprisingly opened up new channels for informal workers to constitute themselves as a class. This represents an amendment to an earlier analysis that focused exclusively on the mobilizing capacity of workers in the formal sector.

CONCLUSION

These findings arguably pose the need for reorientation away from the present conceptual dominance of a permanent settlement paradigm in the official macro-surveys and greater recognition of different types of

temporary migration in the concepts and definitions adopted. The micro level underestimation of short-term and circular labour migration is a significant factor in the long standing failure to identify key macro features of particularly women labour migration in India that has so restricted analysis of its developmental implications. Similarly, without distinction between medium-term and long-term migration, the temporary nature of the employment regime that is driving much of migration in contemporary times and its developmental implications remains hidden from view in the macro data.

The review of literature on women studies shows that women and gender discrimination aspects have been much researched. Women entrepreneurship and women labourers, progress, nature and related programmes have been evaluated. Due to increased education, and awareness of working outside and to earn an income, women workforce in industries has increased. However in this transition, it would be interesting to analyze the socio-economic background of women labourers working for industries. Also, it may be noticed that economic analysis of women labour are less researched. Hence, there is need to probe into the economics of women labour, which will be attempted in the present research.

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CHAPTER III

WOMEN LABOUR : INDIAN SCENARIO

- **INTRODUCTION**
- **LABOUR FORCE**
- **WOMEN LABOUR PARTICIPATION**
- **WOMEN LABOUR IN INDIA**
- **WOMEN LABOUR IN KARNATAKA**
- **CONCLUSION**

INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, an attempt is made to provide a general picture of women labour in India. It also presents the scenario of women labour participation in India and in Karnataka. Further, issues of cashew workers in Karnataka, fisheries in Karnataka and women beedi workers in Karnataka are also analyzed in this chapter.

In the workforce of India, female labour is an important segment. Women's productive role assumes new dimensions with the changing socio-economic scenario. The observance of the International Women's Year in the last quarter of the 20th century was a historic landmark in the calendar of women's progress. It was in recognition of crucial importance of women's participation that has always been necessary for the success of social and economic development. Over the years, the main objective of the policies of the Government of India with regard to female labour has been to remove the handicapped situations under which they work, to strengthen their bargaining capacity, to improve their wages and working conditions, to augment their skills and to open up better employment facilities for them. It is hoped that female labour in India will be well discussed about and would receive good attention in various academic circles.

The status of women in India has seen many ups and downs. The 20th century has seen many changes in the global arena, economic, scientific and social. Noteworthy strides have been made in all aspects of life of which the most exemplary one would be in the social sphere. Women are being given

equal opportunities to compete with men and one another. In the last century and the early 20th century, women were mostly relegated to the home and kitchen. The 20th century has witnessed a great deal of independence and autonomy for many countries. Women have been fighting for equality and for freedom. They have demanded for and received equality in education and there lies the secret of their success. Education and the awareness that comes with it have enabled this gender to fight their cause. They have emerged out of their kitchens and taken their places along with the men in becoming supplementary breadwinners. For now they are “Managers” of their home and family as well as part of the workforce. They have penetrated almost all spheres of activity and figure prominently in all walks of life, be it education, health, politics, science, social work or law. Today women are joint partners in the world scheme. Indian women have their place in the police, army, and now the first batch of pilots have also emerged.

India has always accorded respect to its women, as can be seen in history such as Rani of Jhansi, Mumtaz Mahal, Indira Gandhi etc., who have been acknowledged as leaders and thinkers of our society. In spite of these great women, the larger part of the female species are not accorded their basic rights. It was only the pioneering efforts of Mahatma Gandhi that led to the emancipation of Indian women. As of today there are still a large percentage of women, especially in the rural areas who need to understand their rights and advantages. India is striving to provide women equal status in

society. Today, women can be proud of the fact that along with being a homemaker she is also an equal partner to the progress of society.

Indian society is undergoing a process of social change. Increasing social awareness due to liberal opportunities and facilities in the field of education, social legislation, and healthy and active participation in a democratic political system have changed the socio-cultural values in general. This is aptly observed by Jain (1988), who traces the relative change in the socio-cultural values between pre-independence and post independence periods.

The observation of Jain that the change is a basic metamorphosis is relevant, valid and significant in the sense that it throws a good deal of light on the changes that are taking place in India. The twentieth century will go into the pages of the history of human civilization as one of the great epochs of human progress. The British regime and the post-independence have brought many social changes in India. The old order has changed, yielding place to the new, thus bringing a perceptible transformation in society. The transformation has brought both prospects and problems. With the advancement of science and technology, new technologies have come into the daily routine and new wants have increased. Gone are the days when people thought that outside work was meant for men, while women were simply content with their household chores. Women's emancipation gained momentum and they were considered equal, if not superior to men. But when all is said and done, the status of women in India had been a fluctuating one,

sometimes encouraging and sometimes discouraging. However, the present status of women in society is quite encouraging and deserves careful study. While it is true that the known present cannot always be explained in terms of historical origins, it is almost certain that it is impossible to study the present without reference to the past. For this reason, a discussion of the historical background of the Indian women will be rewarding and helpful.

LABOUR FORCE

The labour force comprises people aged 15 years and above who supply labour for the production of goods and services during a specified period. It includes people who are currently employed and people who are unemployed but seeking work as well as first-time job-seekers. Not everyone who work is included, however. Unpaid workers, family workers, and students are often omitted, and some countries do not count members of the armed forces. Labour force size tends to vary during the year as seasonal workers enter and leave.

Female labour force participation is a driver of growth and therefore, participation rates indicate the potential for a country to grow more rapidly. However, the relationship between women's engagement in the labour market and broader development outcomes is complex.

The participation of women in the labour force varies considerably across developing countries and emerging economies, far more than in the case of men. In the Middle East, North Africa, and South Asia, less than

one-third of women of working-age participate, while the proportion reaches around two-thirds in East Asia and sub-Saharan Africa. This variation is driven by a wide variety of economic and social factors including economic growth, increasing educational attainment, falling fertility rates, and social norms. Besides labour market, gender gaps are more pronounced in developing countries, and disparity is highest in South Asian countries.

Table 3.1: Trend in Workforce Participation Rate

Year	Rural Female	Rural Male	Urban Female	Urban Male
2000-2001	28.7	54.4	14.0	53.1
2001-2002	31.4	54.6	13.9	55.3
2002	28.1	54.6	14.0	53.4
2004-05	32.7	54.6	16.6	54.9
2005-06	31.0	54.9	14.3	54.0
2007-08	28.9	54.8	13.8	55.4
2009-10	26.1	54.7	13.8	54.3
2011-12	24.8	54.3	14.7	54.6

Source: National Sample Survey Office.

(Figures in the table represent percentage)

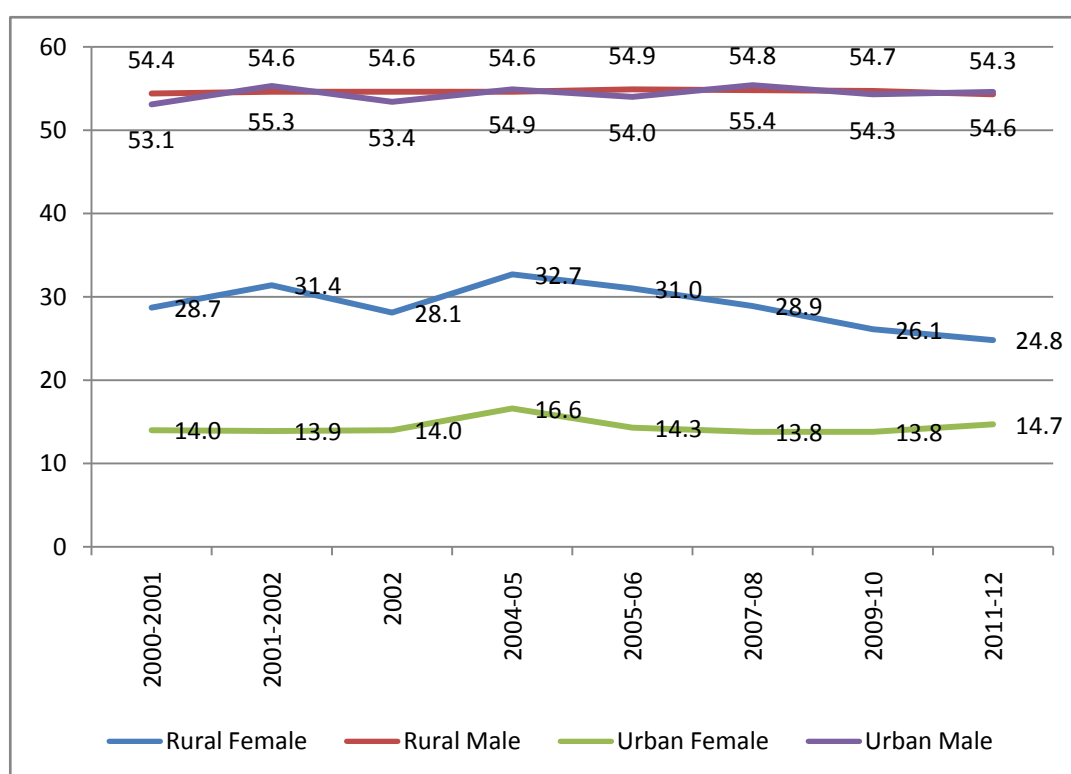


Fig.1: Trend in Workforce Participation

Source: National Sample Survey Office.

Table 3.1 and Fig.1 exhibit trends in workforce participation as per NSS 2011-12. The Worker Population Ratio for females is higher in rural areas (24.8) than urban areas (14.7). For males, the ratios in rural and urban areas are 54.3 and 54.6, respectively. Thus, considerable gender gap exists in both rural and urban areas and the gap is higher in urban areas.

Table 3.2: State-wise Female Workforce Participation Rate from 1993-94 to 2011-12

States/ Rounds	Urban Females					Rural Females				
	50th	55th	61 st	66th	68th	50th	55th	61 st	66th	68th
Andhra Pradesh	19.9	17.8	22.4	17.6	24	52.1	47.8	48.3	44.3	62.2
Assam	9.2	11.2	10.9	9.3	12.2	15.9	15.1	20.9	15.8	17.8
Bihar	6.9	7.5	6.5	4.7	7.1	17.2	17.3	13.8	6.5	8.5

Gujarat	14.2	13.5	15.1	14.3	19.3	39.6	41.3	42.7	32	40.3
Haryana	15.2	9.8	13.2	13	14.4	27.1	20.2	31.7	25	23.4
Karnataka	18.1	17.8	18.1	17	23.5	43	38	45.9	37	40.6
Kerala	20.3	20.3	20	19.4	27.8	23.8	23.8	25.6	21.8	30.8
Madhya Pradesh	14.2	13.4	15.4	13.1	17	41	38.2	36.6	28.2	38
Maharashtra	16.9	13.7	19	15.9	23.6	47.7	43.4	47.4	39.6	56.5
Orissa	15.1	14.5	14.8	11.9	21.6	31.7	29.9	42.2	24.3	36.1
Punjab	9.3	12.5	13.3	12.4	19.4	22	28	32.2	24	32.9
Rajasthan	16.3	13.8	18.2	12	20.6	45.7	38.8	40.7	35.7	53
Tamil Nadu	23	21.5	24.1	19.1	27.9	47.8	43	46.1	40.5	51.9
Uttar Pradesh	10.2	9.4	11.7	8	14.5	21.9	20.1	24	17.4	28.1
West Bengal	14.3	11.7	15.5	14.1	23.8	18.5	16	17.8	15.2	27.9
All India	15.5	13.9	16.6	13.8	21	32.8	29.9	32.7	26.1	37.2

Source: Employment and Unemployment Surveys of NSS

(Figures in the table represent percentage)

Table 3.2 shows urban female WPR in different states from 1993-94 to 2011-12. Among the major states, Tamil Nadu, Andhra, Kerala, Rajasthan, and Maharashtra show higher than all-India average participation rates for urban females. On the other hand, Assam, Bihar, Uttar Pradesh, Gujarat, Haryana, Punjab and M.P. have female WPR lower than the national average. West Bengal and Orissa WPR coincide with the all-India average. Only three states of Andhra, Kerala, and Tamil Nadu have female WPR higher than the level of 20 percent. Almost all states have experienced a fall in urban female WPR during 66th round of 2009-10. The reason for this fall at the state-level and national-level needs detailed examination. Except Bihar, Assam, and Kerala, all the states experienced an increase in the urban female WPR in the 55th round. The WPR of both rural and urban females

declined between 61st and 66th round. However, this trend was reversed in the subsequent 68th round.

Female workers have much lower participation rates than their male counterparts and hence, comprise a marginalized section. The share of rural women in the workforce is much higher than those in urban. However, women in rural India are clearly in an inferior position in the labour market vis-à-vis their urban counterparts. This is evident from the fact that most of the rural women are casually employed and are engaged in low-paying agricultural work. During 2011-12, more than 35 percent of rural women were casually employed, while this figure stood at less than 15 per cent for urban women. This implies that most rural women work long hours in poor working conditions. Moreover, most of the rural women are predominantly engaged in agriculture, where earning opportunities are low. On the other hand, the proportion of urban women engaged in agriculture has been declining rapidly, and most urban women are finding work in the 'services' sector. The wage differentials between rural and urban women is also striking. Rural women earn considerably lower wages than urban women, and the disparities have not shown any tendency to decline. It has been observed that both in urban and rural areas, WPR are higher for illiterate females than for females with higher levels of education in general. This implies that a lesser number of educated and skilled women are participating than earlier, and most of them are getting work in low paying unskilled jobs.

State-wise female WPR reveals that southern states like Tamil Nadu, Andhra Pradesh, Karnataka, Maharashtra, and Kerala have participation rates higher than the all-India level. Wide interstate disparities are observed with respect to female WPR for rural and urban females. Several important policy implications emerge out of the above analysis which is discussed in the chapter VII. There is an urgent need to provide education, training and skill development programmes for women that would help in raising their productive potential. It is also important to focus on the provision of secondary and higher education that would ensure that women workers find high quality regular employment.

Table 3.3: Labour Force Participation Rate for Persons aged 15 years and above (State-wise) (2015-16)

State/Union Territory	Rural			Urban			Total		
	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total
A & N Islands	39.0	86.7	63.2	29.9	82.0	57.9	36.2	85.2	61.5
Andhra Pradesh	59.0	82.4	70.9	22.2	67.9	44.9	48.8	78.5	63.8
Arunachal Pradesh	58.5	77.4	68.2	20.1	63.6	42.2	53.2	75.5	64.6
Assam	27.5	75.3	53.1	22.1	75.6	50.1	26.7	75.3	52.7
Bihar	19.6	78.6	51.4	8.3	73.6	43.5	18.5	78.1	50.7
Chandigarh	6.9	76.3	45.9	8.3	62.8	38.2	8.2	63.2	38.4
Chhattisgarh	62.6	83.1	73.0	22.2	72.1	48.5	54.8	80.9	68.2
Dadra and Nagar Haveli	21.6	74.9	50.2	12.0	66.5	42.4	17.4	71.0	46.7
Daman & Diu	16.4	74.7	47.6	15.3	83.2	51.0	15.5	81.2	50.2
Delhi	21.8	76.0	51.2	12.3	66.7	41.8	12.6	67.0	42.1
Goa	24.6	80.8	51.9	25.3	71.3	47.4	25.0	75.0	49.1
Gujarat	25.4	79.1	53.3	10.3	71.5	42.1	20.0	76.4	49.3
Haryana	22.9	71.7	48.3	12.6	68.2	41.5	19.7	70.6	46.2
Himachal Pradesh	18.2	72.9	45.7	16.9	69.4	44.1	18.0	72.6	45.5
Jammu & Kashmir	10.1	65.7	39.2	12.2	65.2	39.7	10.6	65.6	39.3

Jharkhand	59.2	84.4	72.7	14.9	73.2	45.6	49.0	82.0	66.6
Karnataka	38.1	79.3	59.3	26.5	74.3	50.8	33.9	77.5	55.2
Kerala	31.9	72.6	51.2	30.9	70.5	49.6	31.4	71.7	50.5
Lakshadweep	24.5	34.0	29.0	15.8	62.3	37.3	16.9	58.3	36.2
Madhya Pradesh	21.5	73.0	48.6	9.0	66.1	39.0	18.3	71.2	46.2
Maharashtra	46.9	76.5	61.9	12.9	64.4	39.8	33.4	71.5	53.0
Manipur	58.2	74.7	66.6	31.1	79.8	54.2	47.7	76.5	62.0
Meghalaya	54.8	78.2	66.8	49.1	71.8	60.2	53.6	77.0	65.5
Mizoram	70.6	79.3	75.0	50.2	74.2	61.3	60.4	77.0	68.4
Nagaland	64.8	75.7	70.6	45.5	69.6	57.9	59.6	74.1	67.2
Odisha	27.4	80.0	54.7	14.2	72.9	44.7	25.4	78.9	53.2
Puducherry	36.4	82.4	57.6	27.9	74.3	50.9	31.3	77.3	53.4
Punjab	11.5	72.6	43.0	11.8	69.2	41.9	11.6	71.5	42.7
Rajasthan	39.2	77.6	59.3	9.9	67.6	40.0	32.8	75.4	55.1
Sikkim	59.5	78.6	69.5	40.3	76.4	59.9	55.6	78.1	67.4
Tamil Nadu	55.2	81.2	68.2	25.0	69.1	46.8	41.5	75.8	58.5
Telangana	53.7	72.3	63.0	26.7	70.2	49.1	44.5	71.6	58.1
Tripura	59.1	82.9	71.0	36.2	84.7	59.4	54.4	83.3	68.7
Uttar Pradesh	15.6	77.5	48.5	7.8	65.1	38.1	14.0	75.0	48.4
Uttarakhand	26.0	72.6	49.9	11.6	65.5	40.5	22.5	70.7	47.5
West Bengal	24.4	83.7	55.1	16.2	75.2	46.3	22.0	81.3	52.5
India	31.7	78.0	55.8	16.6	69.1	43.7	27.4	75.5	52.4

Source: Fifth Annual Employment-Unemployment Survey, Labour Bureau,
Ministry of Labour & Employment (2015-16)

Note: 1. The rate is according to the Usual Principal & Subsidiary Status

Approach (ps+ss)

2. Total includes transgender.

Table 3.3 shows the labour force participation rate for persons aged 15 years and above in different states during 2015-16. It was found from the data that the labour force participation is highest in Mizoram with 70.6 in case of females, while it is lowest in Chandigarh with 6.9 among rural

population. It is found that even in urban population, labour participation is highest in Mizoram with 50.2. It is lowest in Uttar Pradesh with 7.8 in case of females.

WOMEN LABOUR PARTICIPATION

Enhancing women's participation in economic activities is critical not only for achieving poverty reduction and economic development, but also for the overall social development. Reducing gender gap in participation of economic activities contributes towards many other benefits of economic prosperity such as improvement in child survival, overall family health, reduction in fertility, etc.

Participation of women in economic activities in formal sectors of industries, services and agricultural sector is measurable, but activities of women in informal sectors such as housework, training and education of children, and household services are still not measured.

Women constitute roughly half the economically active population, but their contribution to economic activity is far below the potential. Unlocking this large potential could work as catalyst in achieving goals set under the Sustainable Development Goals of the UN.

Table 3.4: Trends in Population

(Population in Millions)

Year	Rural population			Urban population			Total population		
	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total
1951	146.66	151.98	298.64	28.87	33.57	62.44	175.54	185.55	361.09
1961	176.79	183.51	360.30	36.15	42.79	78.94	212.94	226.29	439.23
1971	213.73	225.32	439.05	50.38	58.73	109.11	264.11	284.05	548.16
1981	255.37	268.50	523.87	74.59	84.87	159.46	329.96	353.37	683.33
1991	304.41	324.45	628.86	102.65	114.91	217.56	407.06	439.36	846.42
2001	360.95	381.67	742.62	135.57	150.55	286.12	496.45	532.16	1028.61
2011	405.83	427.63	833.46	181.62	195.49	377.11	587.45	623.12	1210.57

Source: Office of the Registrar General (ORGI), India

The trend of population in India is presented in Table 3.4. The table shows that the proportion of female population in India has increased from 1951 to 2011 in urban as well as rural areas.

Table 3.5: Share of Population in India

Year	Rural population		Urban population		Total population	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
1951	49.11	50.89	46.24	53.76	48.61	51.39
1961	49.07	50.93	45.79	54.21	48.48	51.52
1971	48.68	51.32	46.17	53.83	48.18	51.82
1981	48.75	51.25	46.78	53.22	48.29	51.71
1991	48.41	51.59	47.18	52.82	48.09	51.91
2001	48.60	51.40	47.38	52.62	48.26	51.74
2011	48.69	51.31	48.16	51.84	48.53	51.47

Source: Office of the Registrar General (ORGI), India

The share of population in India is presented in Table 3.5. The table shows that the proportion of female population in India is roughly the same for the period of 1951 to 2011 (48 per cent). It is clear from the table that the

share of female population in rural area is slightly higher compared with the urban area.

Table 3.6: Work Participation Rate by Sex in Indian States and UTs (1981-2011)

States	1981		1991		2001		2011	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
A.P.	57.12	27.02	55.5	34.3	56.2	35.1	56.98	36.16
Arunachal Pradesh	NA	NA	53.8	37.5	50.6	36.5	49.06	35.44
Bihar	49.19	9.06	47.6	11.8	47.4	18.8	46.47	19.07
Chattisgarh	NA	NA	54.3	41.1	52.8	40.0	56	39.7
Goa	NA	NA	46.6	20.5	54.6	22.4	56.76	21.92
Gujarat	52.19	11.03	53.6	26.0	54.9	27.9	57.16	23.38
Haryana	48.94	4.69	48.5	10.8	50.3	57.2	50.44	17.70
Himachal Pradesh	NA	NA	50.6	34.8	54.6	43.7	58.69	44.82
Karnataka	53.19	18.95	54.1	29.4	56.6	32.0	59	31.87
Kerala	41.04	12.77	47.6	15.8	50.2	15.	52.73	18.23
M.P.	53.52	22.35	51.6	29.6	51.5	32.2	53.51	32.64
Maharashtra	52.51	23.98	52.2	33.1	53.3	30.8	56	31.06
Manipur	NA	NA	45.3	39.9	48.1	39.9	51.58	38.56
Meghalaya	NA	NA	50.1	34.9	48.3	35.1	47.17	32.67
Mizoram	NA	NA	53.9	43.5	57.3	47.5	52.35	36.16
Nagaland	NA	NA	46.9	38.0	46.7	38.1	53.42	36.16
Orissa	54.38	10.17	53.8	20.8	52.5	24.7	56.11	27.16
Punjab	53.14	2.27	54.2	4.4	53.6	19.1	55.15	13.91
Rajasthan	49.92	9.32	49.3	27.4	50.0	33.5	51.47	35.12
Sikkim	NA	NA	51.3	30.6	57.4	38.6	60.16	39.6
Tamil Nadu	55.85	22.36	56.6	29.9	57.6	31.5	59.31	31.8
Tripura	NA	NA	47.5	13.8	50.6	21.1	55.77	23.57
Uttar Pradesh	50.31	5.39	49.7	11.3	46.8	16.5	47.71	16.75
West Bengal	48.71	5.81	51.4	11.2	54.0	18.3	57.07	18.08
Jammu & Kashmir	NA	NA	NA	NA	50.0	22.5	48.11	19.11
Assam	NA	NA	49.4	21.6	49.9	20.7	53.59	22.46
Jharkhand	NA	NA	48.8	23.8	48.0	26.4	49.76	29.12
Uttaranchal	NA	NA	48.8	30.5	46.1	27.3	49.67	26.68
Union Territories								
Andaman Nicobar	NA	NA	53.3	13.3	56.6	16.6	60.0	17.81

Chandigarh	NA	NA	54.3	10.4	56.1	14.2	56.51	16.70
Dadra & Nagar Haveli	NA	NA	57.5	48.8	62.3	38.7	61.57	25.20
Delhi	NA	NA	51.7	7.4	52.1	9.4	53.0	10.58
Daman Diu	NA	NA	51.6	23.2	65.5	18.6	71.48	14.89
Lakshadweep	NA	NA	44.2	7.6	42.4	7.3	46.25	10.96
Pondicherry	NA	NA	50.6	15.2	53.1	17.2	54.36	17.63

Source:

1. India. Ministry of Home Affairs, Office of Registrar General and Census Commissioner: Analysis of Work Force in India. Occasional Paper No. 8 of 1988. New Delhi, Publication Division, 1988, pp. 53-58.
2. India. Ministry of Home Affairs: Census of India, 2001: Workers and Non-Workers, An Analysis based on 2001 Census. New Delhi, Controller of Publications, 2008, p.22.
3. India. Ministry of Home Affairs: Census of India 2011; Provisional Population Totals, New Delhi, Ministry of Home Affairs, 2012, p.39.

Table 3.6 presents the work participation rate in the Indian states and Union Territories by gender from 1991 to 2011. The data shows that the work participation rate in 1981 was highest in Andhra Pradesh with 57.12 per cent and lowest in Kerala with 41.0 per cent in case of males. In the year 1981, Andhra Pradesh had the highest work participation rate with 27.02 per cent, while Punjab had lowest work participation with only 2.27 per cent in case of females.

The data also indicates that the work participation rate in Tamil Nadu was highest in 1991 in case of males with 56.6 per cent, while it was lowest

in the state of Manipur with 45.3 per cent in the same year. In the same year, in case of females, Mizoram had the highest work participation rate, while it was lowest in Punjab with only 4.4 per cent.

In the work participation in the year 2001, Tamil Nadu topped with 57.6 per cent in case of males and it was lowest in Uttaranchal with 46.1 per cent. In the same year, in case of females, Mizoram had topped in the work participation rate with 47.5 per cent and it was lowest in Kerala with 15.4 per cent only.

It is found from the data that, there is an increasing trend in work participation rate among females in several states from 1991 to 2001. It is more in the case of Haryana and Punjab. When compared with the 2001 Census, there is a declining trend in female participation rate in most of the states. The decrease is highest in Mizoram with 11.34 per cent and it is lowest in Chattisgarh with 0.03 per cent. In Union Territories, Dadra and Nagar Haveli had the highest decline in 2011 compared with 2001.

Table 3.7: Work Participation Rate (2011)

State/Union Territory	Rural			Urban			Total		
	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total
Andaman & Nicobar Islands	17.9	59.1	39.8	17.7	60.35	40.47	17.81	59.59	40.08
Andhra Pradesh	44.6	68.4	51.5	19.1	51.14	36.75	36.16	56.98	46.61
Arunachal Pradesh	39.5	48.5	44.1	21.3	50.91	36.97	35.44	49.06	42.47
Assam	23.7	53.1	38.7	14.9	6.79	36.41	22.46	53.59	38.36
Bihar	29.2	46.7	34.0	10.4	44.90	28.62	19.07	46.47	33.36
Chandigarh	14.2	62.2	42.6	16.0	56.34	38.17	16.00	56.51	38.29
Chattisgarh	46.3	56.4	51.3	17.4	53.09	35.66	39.70	55.59	47.68
Dadra & Nagar Haveli	33.4	56.8	45.9	14.7	66.51	45.48	25.25	61.57	45.73
Daman & Diu	15.9	58.2	38.6	14.5	75.12	53.58	14.89	71.48	49.86

Delhi	9.7	49.3	31.1	10.6	53.08	33.34	10.58	52.99	33.28
Goa	22.6	55.5	39.1	21.5	57.48	39.89	21.92	56.76	39.58
Gujarat	32.0	57.1	44.9	11.4	57.18	35.73	23.38	57.16	40.98
Haryana	20.8	50.1	36.4	12.1	51.15	32.95	17.79	50.44	35.17
Himachal Pradesh	47.4	59.0	53.3	19.9	55.72	39.22	44.82	58.69	51.85
Jammu & Kashmir	20.8	46.3	34.2	14.5	52.68	35.23	19.11	48.11	34.47
Jharkhand	35.0	50.8	43.0	10.1	46.72	29.26	29.10	49.76	39.71
Karnataka	38.8	59.8	49.4	20.8	57.81	39.66	31.87	59.00	45.62
Kerala	20.2	53.6	36.3	16.0	51.76	33.12	18.23	52.73	34.78
Lakshadweep	12.6	52.3	32.9	10.5	44.56	28.01	10.96	46.25	29.09
Madhya Pradesh	39.3	54.3	47.0	15.1	51.66	34.18	32.64	53.56	43.47
Maharashtra	42.5	56.7	49.8	16.8	55.16	36.95	31.06	56.00	43.99
Manipur	41.2	52.4	46.9	33.2	49.87	41.41	38.56	51.58	45.09
Meghalaya	35.0	47.0	41.0	23.6	47.68	35.63	32.67	47.17	39.96
Mizoram	41.9	53.9	48.0	31.1	50.89	40.98	36.16	52.35	44.36
Nagaland	52.3	55.7	54.0	25.9	47.95	37.44	44.74	53.42	49.24
Odisha	29.7	58.5	43.2	14.1	54.08	34.81	27.16	56.11	41.79
Puducherry	21.1	54.2	37.4	16.1	54.41	34.84	17.63	54.36	35.66
Punjab	14.3	54.9	35.6	13.2	55.51	35.75	13.91	55.15	35.67
Rajasthan	42.7	51.7	47.3	12.0	50.75	32.27	35.12	51.47	43.60
Sikkim	44.6	61.0	53.3	24.8	57.52	41.90	39.57	60.16	50.47
Tamil Nadu	41.2	60.0	50.7	21.8	58.54	40.16	31.80	59.31	45.58
Tripura	26.3	55.3	41.1	16.0	56.97	36.76	23.57	55.77	40.00
Uttar Pradesh	18.3	47.4	33.4	11.3	48.94	31.16	16.75	47.71	32.94
Uttarakhand	32.9	49.1	41.0	11.3	50.98	32.36	26.68	49.67	38.39
West Bengal	19.4	57.2	38.7	15.4	56.84	36.69	18.08	57.07	38.08
India	30.0	53.0	41.8	15.4	53.76	35.31	25.51	53.26	39.79

Source: Census 2011, Office of the Registrar General, India

(Figures in the table represent percentage)

In almost all states, the male participation rates are significantly higher than females. Women participation rates in employment are almost half compared with men. Table 3.7 shows that at the all-India level, male WPR is 53.26 percent compared with females, i.e., 25.51 per cent, which is less than half the male work participation rate (2011 Census). It is evident

from Table 3.4, that the share of women participation rate is less than 50 per cent of the share of women population.

Table 3.8 : Work Participation Rate in Informal Sector from 1991 to 2011

Year	Total Population			Work Force (in Lakhs)			Work Participation Rate		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
1991	299.34	193.14	492.48	104.4	57.14	161.54	54.6	25.3	40%
2001	339.62	330.36	669.98	135.2	75.84	211.04	54.1	29.3	42%
2011	369.67	369.89	739.56	163.8	96.59	257.39	56.9	31.9	45%

Source: Census Reports, GOK

Table 3.8 indicates that the work participation rate is increasing in both men and women; 40 per cent in 1991, 42 per cent in 2001 and 45 per cent in 2011. It is also evident from the table that the workforce has also increased from 161.54 to 257.39 from 1991 to 2011. It is also seen that the population is increasing year by year. An upward trend in the female work participation rate can also be seen

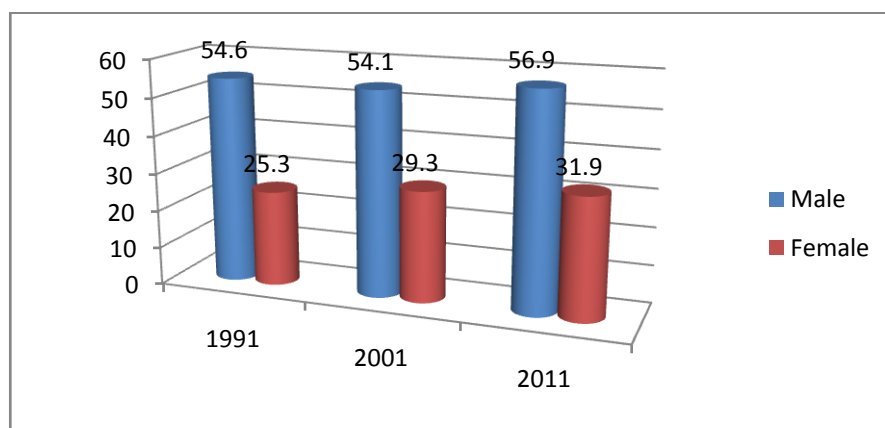


Fig. 2 : Work Participation Rate in Informal Sector (1991 to 2011)

Figure 2 indicates the work participation rate in the informal sector from 1991 to 2011. It can be seen that the work participation rate of males in the informal sector was 54.6 in 1991 and slightly increased in 2011, while the increase is more in case of females, which was 25.3 in 1991, 29.3 in 2001, and 31.9 in 2011.

WOMEN LABOUR IN INDIA

Women form an integral part of the Indian workforce. As per Census 2011, the total number of female workers in India was 149.8 million and female workers in rural and urban areas were 121.8 and 28.0 million, respectively. Out of total 149.8 million female workers, 35.9 million females are working as cultivators and another 61.5 million are agricultural labourers. Of the remaining females workers, 8.5 million are in the household industry and 43.7 million are classified as other workers.

In addition, the work participation rate for women is 25.51 percent compared with 25.63 per cent in 2001. The work participation rate of women had reduced marginally in 2011, but there was an improvement from 22.27 per cent in 1991 and 19.67 per cent in 1981. The work participation rate for women in rural areas was 30.02 per cent compared with 15.44 per cent in the urban areas.

As far as the organized sector is concerned, in March 2011, women workers constituted 20.5 percent of the total employment in the organized sector in the country, which was higher by 0.1 percent compared with the

preceding year. As per the last Employment Review by Directorate General of Employment & Training (DGE&T), on 31st March 2011, about 59.54 lakh women workers were employed in the organized sector (Public and Private Sector). Of this, nearly 32.14 lakh women were employed in the community, social, and personal service sector.

Table 3.9: Women Workers in India

Total Women Workers	148.0
Female Work Participation	32.0
Percentage of Regular Women Workers	8.9
Percentage of Self – employment Women Workers	61.1
Percentage Informal Women Workers	96.0
Percentage of Women Workers in Agriculture and Allied Activities	72.8
Percentage of Non agriculture Workers	70.0
Life Expectancy	64.0
Literacy Rate	57.45
GER (Gross Environmental Ratio)	88.0

Source: Development Report, 2011.

Table 3.9 provides the data on women workers in India. It shows female work participation as 32.0 per cent. It can be seen that the percentage of women workers in the informal sector is higher (96.0), followed by percentage of women workers in agriculture and allied activities (72.8). The percentage of regular women workers is very low (8.9) compared with women workers in other sectors.

Percentage Distribution of Workers According to Broad Employment Status(2011-12) is presented in Table 3.10. The data from the table 3.10 also

shows that in most states, females are more self-employed, both in rural as well as urban areas.

It can be seen that Nagaland has more self-employed workers (94.9) in rural and Manipur in urban area (84.6). The data show that male workers dominate in case of regular and salaried employees, both in rural and urban areas. Even in case of casual labour, in most of the states, male workers are high compared with female workers.

Table3.10: Percentage Distribution of Workers According to Broad Employment Status (2011-12)

States/ UTs	Rural						Urban					
	Self -employed		Regular Salaried		Casual Labour		Self -employed		Regular Salaried		Casual Labour	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
A&N Islands	55.9	41.9	34.9	41.2	9.2	17.1	11.5	20.9	58.0	58.3	30.5	20.8
Andhra Pradesh	44.7	48.3	3.1	11.8	52.1	39.9	44.7	35.4	37.6	49.5	18.2	15.2
Arunachal Pradesh	89.6	78.1	5.8	15.3	4.7	6.6	48.8	32.2	38.6	56.7	11.8	11.2
Assam	63.9	71.1	17.2	10.4	18.0	18.5	46.7	55.0	44.4	35.2	7.3	9.8
Bihar	41.5	52.9	5.7	3.8	50.9	43.3	53.3	61.0	26.7	21.9	17.8	17.1
Chandigarh	27.7	20.1	74.5	58.4	0	21.5	39.7	36.7	60.3	55	0.0	8.2
Chattisgarh	58.1	58.0	1.9	5.6	39.8	36.3	33.3	35.9	35.8	36.3	30.8	27.8
D&N Haveli	52.8	34.4	39.8	50.6	6.8	15.0	7.0	18.1	88.7	80.2	4.3	1.6
Daman&Diu	0.0	10.1	91.2	88.9	11.8	1.0	43.9	33.1	35.1	59.2	21.6	7.7
Delhi	0.0	23.9	99.3	75.3	0.7	0.8	23.1	36.8	74.0	59.4	1.9	4.0
Goa	20.0	31.4	49.0	58.0	31	10.6	12.7	32.5	82.8	60.1	4.5	7.4
Gujarat	58.6	56.6	5.0	12.5	36.7	31.1	48.1	40.3	36.8	51.9	15.0	7.8
Haryana	75.3	58.3	4.3	16.6	20.4	25.3	27.8	42.6	67.0	46.3	5.2	11.1
Himachal Pradesh	88.0	54.7	5.9	22.0	6.1	23.3	35.8	28.5	59.0	61	5.2	10.5
Jammu& Kashmir	90.2	51.0	5.9	19.6	3.9	29.4	42.7	49.9	50.4	39.1	6.0	11.1
Jharkhand	82.8	63.6	2.5	4.7	14.6	31.7	33.3	45.0	45.5	37.1	21.2	17.7
Karnataka	49.9	52.9	84	13.4	42.2	33.7	30.1	41.6	53.4	42.7	16.6	15.7
Kerala	36.7	38.9	23.1	15.3	40.7	45.7	36.1	36.4	46.6	31.5	17.3	32.1
Lakshadweep	7.6	19.2	32.4	43.8	60	37.0	39.7	34.5	59.5	39.3	0.9	26.0
Madhya Pradesh	57.3	61.0	2.5	5.7	39.7	33.2	48.7	48.3	35.7	34.6	15.7	17.3
Maharashtra	53.4	53.8	3.1	12.3	43.3	33.9	33.1	36.8	54.2	54.6	12.0	8.6

Manipur	50.4	73.1	4.6	15.7	45	11.2	84.6	68.6	13.7	25.2	1.6	6.1
Meghalaya	75.4	67.6	9.0	11.4	15.6	21.1	43.6	32.2	48.5	50.7	8.4	17.1
Mizoram	81.2	83.2	4.3	12.5	14.5	4.2	72.3	41.9	25.7	47.2	2.0	10.7
Nagaland	94.9	80.2	2.9	18.8	2.2	1.0	64.6	36.2	35.4	60	0.0	3.9
Odisha	65.9	60.6	3.3	8.3	30.5	31.1	58.1	49.6	27.1	36.4	14.8	14.0
Puducherry	24.0	28.4	24.0	33.1	51.6	38.7	19.7	24.8	66.7	52	13.6	23.2
Punjab	77.8	45.9	8.5	20.1	13.7	33.9	41.2	45.3	54.4	46.5	4.4	8.2
Rajasthan	76.4	61.8	2.6	9.7	21	28.7	60.3	41.8	27.0	41.8	12.8	16.5
Sikkim	90.1	70.9	6.8	22.6	3.1	6.6	46.5	35.0	53.5	59.9	0.0	5.1
Tamil Nadu	27.8	31.4	9.5	17.0	62.7	51.4	39.8	32.4	41.8	43.6	18.4	23.9
Tripura	27.2	46.4	8.3	8.0	64.5	45.4	20.4	43.4	66.4	39.8	13.3	16.8
Uttar Pradesh	80.8	62.3	4.0	6.7	15.3	31.0	67.6	52.1	21.6	29.9	10.8	18.0
Uttarakhand	92.5	61.9	3.2	16.6	4.5	21.5	53.5	51.2	43.0	39.3	4.7	9.5
West Bengal	57.7	43.2	10.6	8.2	32.3	48.6	46.0	44.9	40.2	37.5	13.2	17.8
India	59.3	54.5	5.6	10.0	35.1	35.5	42.8	41.7	42.8	43.4	14.3	14.9

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

Notes: 1. Figures relate to usual status principal and subsidiary (all) workers.

2. Figures represent sized workforce as percentage of population.

Cashew Workers in India

Cashew is an important agro-processing industry in India. It is a good foreign exchange earner, and also provides employment opportunities in cashew production, procurement, processing, and marketing. The industry has a very special nature of absorbing female labourers, especially from the socially and economically weaker strata of the population. The cultivation of cashew nuts is ecologically friendly and cashew trees have relatively better capacity to thrive in degraded land arresting soil erosion and checking wind erosion, water erosion, and over exploitation from cattle. Kanyakumari district is also noted for its long history of the cashew industry and its employment and foreign exchange earning potential. Cultivation of cashew trees have tremendous potentiality in the country, especially in degraded

lands. It is estimated that in India about half of its total land mass is under one or other type of degradation, and unless otherwise checked, it is likely to worsen the agricultural and ecological system of the country. Cultivation of cashew trees can play a major role in such lands, and thereby, the soil fertility of the presently degraded land can be improved. Until recently, cultivation of cashew was considered as an economically non-profitable activity. Presently, the trend has changed and farmers are coming forward for cultivating cashew trees. The trend can be further accentuated if the productivity of the crop can be increased through the adoption of high yielding variety of trees and by using improved package input practices. In such a context, the cultivation of cashew trees draws increasing attention from policy planners, developmental agencies, and cashew processors. Moreover, increasing the indigenous production of cashew will also draw added attention because of the declining trend in the availability of raw cashewnuts through import. As a result of the inadequate availability of raw cashewnuts from traditional sources of supply, India's position in the cashew kernel market is also under threat from competitors. To sustain the present status, more raw cashewnuts should be produced within the country. This would also help in checking the drain on foreign exchange through raw cashewnut import.

India's cashew kernels are considered to be the best in the world market. This quality can be maintained through strict international quality standard adherence and also through the skill of the cashew processing

labour. In spite of the mechanisation introduced by India's competitors, India still enjoys cost advantage with regard to processing, and the quality of the kernel is also rated high compared with the products from mechanized processing units. Thus, there are obvious advantages in the world market; and, if the market potential is fully tapped, India's cashew industry can be developed manifold. This would add to the scope of generating additional employment opportunities in on-farm activities and in the factory sector also. The labour intensive nature of the cashew industry allows it to be organized in rural areas, where raw cashewnuts and labour are available in plenty. As the processing technology is simple and less capital intensive, it can be easily organized by rural entrepreneurs. This would help to absorb the surplus labour from agriculture and in reducing unemployment. Considering the vast potential of the cashew sector in on-farm and factory level developments, the present study was undertaken with the objective of critically examining all the major aspects related to the cultivation and processing of cashewnuts.

Cashewnut production in Karnataka

Cashewnut is an important dry fruit grown in the state of Karnataka. Cashewnuts need to be processed before selling to the ultimate consumers. Therefore, cashew processing units play an important role in the procurement of cashew from farmers.

- Presently, there are 175 cashew manufacturing units in Karnataka employing over 40,000 women in the coastal districts of South Canara, Udupi.
- Karnataka has initiated massive efforts in conjunction with the industry and farmers to emerge as the largest producer of raw cashewnuts in the country. The state is taking measures to expand the area under cultivation and achieve a four-fold rise in productivity.
- The industry has set a target of producing 1,50,000 metric tonnes (MTs) from the present 40,000 MTs annually, while the area under cultivation is expected to be doubled to 1.20 lakh hectare.
- According to a vision document prepared and presented to the state government by the Karnataka Cashew Manufacturers Association (KCMA), the Mangalore-based trade association representing the cashew interests in the state, presently the area under cashewnut cultivation is estimated to be 60,000 to 70,000 hectares.
- At present, Karnataka's cashewnut production is a ninth of the conservative estimate of 3,60,000 MTs produced in India, said GiridharPrabhu, Coordinator, National Steering Committee on Cashew under the Union Ministry of Agriculture.
- Karnataka hopes to attain the number one status in the production of cashewnut by focusing on cultivating high yielding varieties as well as bringing more area under cultivation.

- The state government has taken steps to grow cashewnut in the districts of Kolar, eastern Uttara Kannada, eastern Belagavi, eastern Dharwad, Mysuru, Shivamogga, Hassan, and Kodagu in a big way.
- India imports 5,60,000 metric tonnes of cashew from over 15 countries in the world. The industry hopes that the same quantity will come in this year too. Processing units have already taken up a good portion of the West African materials and will soon be shopping in Indonesia and East Africa for the 2006 crop.
- The matter assumes importance as the Karnataka cashew industry has been growing at a rapid pace and is now racing to have 10 per cent of the nation's exports as against 3 per cent just five years ago. This was possible due to the maturity of the exporting community, prominently in Udupi District in the west coast, where units in rural areas are churning out cashew kernels out of 100,000 metric tones of cashew.
- Prakash Kalbavi, President, KCMA, said the cashew industry wants growers in the state to aggressively take on cashew cultivation through modern scientific means. "The immediate need is to have a mindset for cultivating cashew orchards," he said. This is a major change compared to just planting cashew trees or grafts.
- Scientists have developed over 20 varieties, which are validated by the Indian Council for Agriculture Research (ICAR). These can produce over 10 kilos per tree as against conventional seedling varieties

producing one kilo per tree. "We aim to increase the yield from 800 kgs per hectare to 2 tonnes per hectare by 2021," Kalbavi said.

- The production of 1,50,000 MTs of cashewnuts in 2021 even at current prices will amount to a total output of Rs. 525 crores. The value addition will be Rs. 200 crores or higher. Therefore, the total shipped value can be around Rs. 725 crore.
- The net returns for farmers will be around Rs. 350 crores, and Rs. 175 crores will be the value of inputs and labour that go into the production effort, the vision document stated.
- The facilities provided by the New Mangalore Port Trust (NMPT) and regular container services now make Karnataka competitive in the import and export activity.
- The international market rules steady at 230 cents per lb for W-320 grade cashew kernels and dips in June and July due to accumulation of stocks. September to December are peak consumption months for cashew, both in the domestic and international markets.

Table3.11: Area, Production, and Yield of Cashew in India

Year-wise Area, Production and Yield of Cashew in India States	Area (‘000 ha)	Production (‘000 MT)
Andhra Pradesh	185.57 (18)	111.39 (14)
Karnataka	126.71 (12.6)	85.15 (10.9)
Kerala	87.29 (8.30)	83.98 (10.7)
Maharashtra	186.2 (18)	256.61 (32.4)

Orissa	182.91 (17.6)	93.5 (11.8)
Other States	266.81 (25.5)	148.71 (20.2)
Total (India)	1035.49	779.34

Source: Horticulture at a glance(2017)

Note :Figures in parenthesis indicates percent.

Table 3.11 shows that the area and production under cashewnut among major producing states. It may be observed that Maharashtra (1.86 lakh ha) was the leading producer of cashewnut, followed by Andhra Pradesh (1.85 lakh ha), Orissa (1.82 lakh ha), Karnataka (1.26 lakh ha), and Kerala (0.87 lakh ha). India produces 7.79 lakh MT of cashew nut spread across more than 6 states.

WOMEN LABOUR IN KARNATAKA

Women Workers in Fishery

It is well-known that women have always been involved in various aspects of the fishing industry. There are instances where women have traditionally been equal partners to their menfolk even in fishing. They also participate in the construction of sea-going crafts. The norm, however, is that there is a gender-based division of labour in this industry. Although it is likely that such a division of labour has evolved historically (a certain amount of specialization eventually becoming gender-specific), there are other reasons too (not so logical, however) that have contributed to this. Women in Kerala are not allowed to step into the sea because they are

considered "impure" and thus would "contaminate" it. Similar taboos and myths are seen in other countries too. Among Muslim communities, women are confined to the house. In addition to taboos, physical force, usually under the spell of intoxication, has also often been used by men to deny women equal partnership.

Women play their role in the system generally by marketing the fish or by making nets. Unfortunately such division of labour invariably implies that the women's contribution is less worthy. However, as Alice Schlegel (Ed. *Sexual Stratification: A Cross cultural Study*. Columbia University Press, New York, 1977) says, "under conditions of subsistence, the interdependence and complementarity of the separate male and female domains of work is the characteristic mode, based on diversity, not inequality". Much stress has lately been put on the need for women's participation in the process of development. Invariably this means finding some niche suitable for employment of women. In this context, it must be remembered that as a woman's work within the house fetches no remuneration, it is common practice not to take it into consideration, despite the time and labour involved.

In India, in the marine sector alone, fisherwomen number about 11 lakh, inhabiting about 2500 coastal villages (CMFRI, 1980). The common feature among these women is the hardships, mainly economic in nature, that they face. Even such of those fisherwomen, who are fortunate to be engaged in some economic activity, generally face a host of problems. For example,

there is little protection of wages or employment, as small-scale fisheries are usually managed based on unwritten rules. The perishable nature of fish, poor and costly transport facilities which do not permit them to buy fish directly from the landing centres, and competition from the organized sector add to the problems of the fisherwomen.

The annual income of a typical fishing household in India ranges from Rs. 2500 to Rs.3500 of which 80 per cent is spent on food. Earnings are determined by type of fishing, access to market, existence of supplementary sources of income, and extent of indebtedness. Fishing villages are often remote and inaccessible, and with unproductive lands that are also subject to sea erosion. Housing is inadequate. Basic facilities such as hygienic drinking water and health services are often lacking.

Since women-folk usually bear the brunt of these deprivations, fisherwomen have lately received much attention in developing countries and among international agencies, supporting development efforts. A detailed profile of the Indian fisherwomen is given below:

a) Demographic indicators: The 1981 Census shows a sex ratio of 933 females to 1000 males in the general population of the country. Kerala is the only state where the ratio is in favour of females. However, even in Kerala, the sex ratio is balanced in favour of males in the case of fisher folk, with a ratio of 972 females (marine sector) and 956 females (inland) to 1000 males

(Anon., 1982). These imbalances can be attributed in some measure to the indifference towards women's health.

b) Literacy: A good index of human resource development is the female literacy rate in rural areas. According to the 1981 Census, the literacy rate was 17 per cent and 47 per cent for rural and urban women, respectively. Among fisher folk, the literacy levels of the women is even lower (Anon., 1982; Anon., 1987).

c) Employment status: Along with being engaged in household chores from dawn to dusk, fisherwomen play an important role in retailing, auctioning, curing and drying, prawn peeling and collection of seaweed, apart from hand-braiding and repair of nets. Nevertheless, they suffer from a high degree of casualization and marginalization. It is estimated that even during the fishing season only about 25 percent of the women obtain a regular income of about Rs.60 per week after working for six hours a day (Srinath, 1986; Anon., 1987). Development programmes have unfortunately had little impact as they either were not meant specifically for the fisherwoman or they required her to be credit-worthy.

d) Health: Nutrition is a crucial factor determining health. Fisher folk in India generally suffer from malnutrition and dietary imbalances. Cereals and fish comprise the major portion of the diet, and hence only 75 per cent of the

calorie and 50 per cent of the protein needs are met (Srinath, 1987). Commonly seen disorders are malnutrition and vitamin A and B complex deficiency (Devadas and Nirmala Murty, 1979), apart from ailments like gastroenteritis and allergic bronchitis. Women are the worst affected and this is reflected by the imbalance in the sex ratio and their lower life expectancy.

e) Impact of technology: While the introduction of mechanization in the fishing industry seems to have benefited fisherwomen in some areas, as reported by Gulati (1979), it has had an adverse effect in many other parts of the country. For example, the introduction of mechanized fishing in Vypeen Island (Srinath, 1986) and the introduction of automation in net making (Vivekanandan, 1988) have reduced employment opportunities for fisherwomen considerably.

Fishing in India is a major industry in its coastal states, employing over 14 million people. In 2016-17, the country exported 11,34,948 metric tonnes of seafood worth US\$ 5.78 billion (37,870.90 crore), frozen shrimp being the top item of export.^[11] According to the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) of the United Nations, fish production has increased more than tenfold since 1947 and doubled between 1990 and 2010.

India has 8,129 kilometres (5,051 mi) of marine coastline, 3,827 fishing villages, and 1,914 traditional fish landing centres. India's fresh water resources consist of 195,210 kilometres (121,300 mi) of rivers and canals, 2.9 million hectares of minor and major reservoirs, 2.4 million hectares of

ponds and lakes, and about 0.8 million hectares of flood plain wetlands and water bodies. As of 2010, the marine and freshwater resources offered a combined sustainable fishing catch potential of over 4 million metric tonnes of fish. In addition, India's water and natural resources offer a tenfold growth potential in (farm fishing) from 2010 harvest levels of 3.9 million metric tonnes of fish, if India were to adopt fishing knowledge, regulatory reforms, and sustainability policies.

Fisheries in Karnataka

Fisheries in the national economy have gained importance both as a foreign exchange earner and as a generator of employment. In addition, this sector has assumed the characteristics of an industrial enterprise. Fish is the cheapest source of protein available for human diet. The Department of Fisheries was established in the year 1957 with an object to give fillip for production of fish by utilizing the rich resources in marine and inland sector.

Karnataka has about 5.93 lakh ha of inland water resources, 8000 ha of brackish water, and 320 km of coastline with 27,000 sq.km of continental shelf. The Department is implementing several schemes for the better utilization of the resources and for the welfare of fishermen in particular, and the public in general.

The fish production in Karnataka was around 2.0 lakh tonnes in early eighties and reached a peak of over 3.0 lakh tonnes in mid-nineties. The average fish production in the last 5 years was about 5.65 lakh tonnes with

the contribution of the marine sector being 66 percent and the inland sector 34 percent. The fish production from the state contributed about 5.86 percent of India's total fish production for the year 2013-14. The current level of per-capita fish availability in the state is around 6.8 kg. The contribution of the fisheries sector to GSDP at current prices during 1993-94 was Rs. 16,316 lakhs and increased to Rs. 286273 lakhs in 2012-13.

- Karnataka State has vast potential for fish production. It has 5.65 lakh ha. of freshwater sources consisting of 2.93 lakh ha. of ponds and tanks and 2.72 lakh ha. of reservoirs. In addition, the State has 8,000 ha. of brackish water resources and 320 km coastline with a continental shelf area of 27,000 sq. km.
- The marine fish production during 2017-18 was 4.14 lakh metric tonnes. Presently, 4434 mechanized boats, 8434 motorized boats, and 8997 traditional crafts are operating along the coast. More than 85 percent of the total fish catch of the State is caught through mechanized fishing boats.
- About 1,26,592 MT of marine products worth Rs.1589.00 crore was exported from the State during 2016-17.
- The Government has sanctioned the construction of 3000 houses to fishermen families under 'Matsya Ashraya' Scheme. The sanction has been accorded to take up the construction of these houses through the Rajiv Gandhi Housing Corporation, Bangalore and Rs.20.70 crores has been released.

- The Central Government has accorded approval for the construction of a fishing harbour at Kulai at an estimated cost of Rs.196.61 crore with the financial assistance of the Ministry of Shipping (50 percent), New Mangalore Port Trust (45 per cent), and State Government (5 per cent) and has released Rs.28.91 crore.
- Administrative sanction has been accorded for the construction of breakwaters at the Thengingundi Fish Landing Centre at an estimated cost of Rs.86.08 crore.
- Administrative sanction has been accorded for the re-construction of breakwaters at the Bhatkal Fishing Harbour Centre at an estimated cost of Rs.5 crore.
- Administrative sanction has been accorded for dredging works at Honnavar estuary at an estimated cost of Rs.4 crore.
- Administrative approval has been accorded for extension of jetty upto 75 m and other facilities at an estimated cost of Rs.5. crore and the work is under progress.
- Under the “Matsya Krishi Asha Kirana” scheme, to increase fish production and to encourage fish culture in an area of 2,500 hectare in major tanks across the state, a new scheme has been formulated to give 50 per cent of the unit cost upto a maximum of Rs.27,000 as subsidy to purchase 4,000 fingerlings and 2 tonnes of artificial feed per ha. Under this scheme, 151 tanks with a water

spread area of 2506 hectare area has been developed by stocking 111.96 lakh fingerlings. About Rs.411.09 lakh has been spent.

- The credit co-operative societies have made a scheme which provides 75 percent subsidy to fishermen by sanctioning Rs.10 lakhs for the construction of Market Building of 500 sq ft. at their own site with water and for fish collection. Sanction has been accorded for the construction of 24 handling and marketing centres through Fishermen Co-operative Societies.
- The subsidy on electricity used by ice plants has been increased to Rs.1.75 per unit from the existing Rs.1.5 per unit, and the ceiling to Rs.3.5 lakh from the existing 3 lakh per plant per year.
- Fishery requisite kits worth Rs.10,000 and fibre glass coracle worth Rs.10,000 are being distributed to inland fishermen. At the time of study, 1765 fishermen have availed the benefits at a cost of Rs.148.62 lakh.
- In order to increase the fishery wealth of reservoirs, 24 reservoirs have been stocked with 150 lakh fingerlings at a cost of Rs.150.00 lakh.

Women in Beedi Industry

The beedi industry is one of the biggest cottage industries in Karnataka today. The manufacturing process is very simple, it is labour oriented, and is second only to agriculture. Apart from giving employment to

millions of men, women, handicapped persons, children, and aged or senior citizens, it supports subsidiary businesses such as tendu leaves, tobacco, charcoal, gunny bags, and tamarind powder used in the manufacture of beedies.

The beedi industry has an advantage over agriculture in its employment generating potentiality. The workers need not work full-time and need not go outdoors. Though the earnings may be very low, it is a supplementary source of income to the poorer sections of society. Further, beedi rolling is easy to learn as no expert skill is required.

Srinivasulu observes that the beedi industry is one of the biggest and major source of employment for the weaker sections of society, particularly women and children, who form 90 per cent of the workforce.

Table3.12: Beedi Workers in Indian States(1997 and 2001)

State	1997			2001		
	Total No. of beedi workers	No. of ID cards holders	Percentage share of each state	Total No. of beedi workers	No. of ID cards holders	Percentage share of each state
Madhya Pradesh	7,50,000	6,92,014	17.1	7,50,000	7,00,000	17.0
Tamil Nadu	6,21,000	6,00,580	14.2	6,21,000	6,04,949	14.1
Andhra Pradesh	6,00,000	5,11,908	13.7	6,25,000	5,18,954	14.2
West Bengal	4,87,000	4,85,461	11.1	4,97,758	4,97,758	11.3
Uttar Pradesh	4,50,000	2,21,484	10.3	4,50,000	2,39,672	10.2
Bihar	3,91,000	2,44,847	8.9	3,91,000	2,44,847	8.9
Karnataka	3,60,876	2,91,007	8.2	3,60,876	2,98,395	8.2
Maharashtra	2,56,000	1,96,329	5.9	2,56,000	2,02,435	5.8
Odisha	1,60,000	1,24,4423	3.7	1,60,000	1,47,274	3.6

Kerala	1,36,419	1,12,768	3.1	1,36,416	1,12,887	3.1
Rajasthan	1,00,000	70,513	2.3	1,00,000	70,930	2.3
Gujarat	50,000	47,119	1.1	50,000	48,396	1.1
Assam	7,725	5,636	0.2	7,725	5,791	0.2
Tripura	5,000	4,585	0.1	5,000	4,814	0.1
Total	43,75,020	36,08,674	100.0	44,10,775	36,97,102	100.0

Source : 1) Statement furnished in reply to Parliament (Lok Sabha-Starred).

Question No. 445 dated May 1997.

2) Annual Report 2000-2001, Ministry of Labour, New Delhi.

State-wise number of beedi workers has been shown in Table 3.12, wherein Madhya Pradesh accounts for the highest share of employment (17 per cent), followed by Tamil Nadu (14 per cent), Andhra Pradesh (14 per cent), West Bengal (11 per cent), Uttar Pradesh (10 per cent), Bihar (9 per cent), and Karnataka (8 per cent). These states accounted for 83 per cent share of the total employment. Other states have less than 8 per cent share of employment each. Beedi tobacco is mainly concentrated in Gujarat, Karnataka, and Maharashtra, although it is grown to some extent in Odisha and Andhra Pradesh. The bulk of leaves used to wrap beedies are grown in Madhya Pradesh, Odisha, Maharashtra, Andhra Pradesh, and Bihar. Beedi manufacturing units are mostly located in Madhya Pradesh, Tamil Nadu, Andhra Pradesh, West Bengal, Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, and Karnataka. The location of the manufacturing units is decided, inter alia, taking into consideration, the availability of beedi tobacco, tendu leaves, and cheap labour. According to the data provided by the Central Government, there are 44,10,775 beedi workers in India, of whom, 3,60,876 (8.2 per cent) are found

in Karnataka. In this case, the yardstick used in the identification of workers is not clear. A presentation made by the Government of Karnataka shows that there were 2,80,822 workers in 1996 and with fluctuations, the number declined to 2,27,608 in 2000. The number again gradually increased to 2,93,978 in 2003 (Tables 3.3 and 3.4). The figures provided by the state government were based on registration. What is interesting here is that the state government figures do not match with that provided by the central government. Industry representative Parameshwara Mayya (Beedi Manufactures Association Secretary in Karnataka) from Dakshina Kannada (2001) noted that ‘around 6 lakh persons are engaged in the beedi and its allied activities in Karnataka state. Nearly 2.5 lakhs are from the erstwhile district of Dakshina Kannada.

The representatives of workers, like trade unions, etc. put the figure of persons undertaking beedi work at a much higher level. Trade union leaders noted that in 13 districts (out of 27) of Karnataka, there are an estimated 9 lakh beedi workers, of whom more than 90 per cent are women. Out of these 9 lakhs, Udupi and Dakshina Kannada districts account for over 4 lakh beedi workers. Contrary to the view held by the industry, the beedi industry has been stated to be the primary source of livelihood for these workers. Unlike the number of beedi workers, there has not been much disagreement on the composition of the workforce. It is generally found that women form a large proportion of the workforce, followed by men and children. However, there

is some disagreement on what exactly is the composition. This again is due to lack of clear criteria on the identification of workers.

WOMEN LABOUR IN KARNATAKA

As far as employment of women is concerned, it is observed that over the last twenty years more and more women are entering the labour market. Though there has been an increase in their number, yet their share in the total employment is still very low. In this sector, it is noted that employment of women is restricted to certain fields of employment, and they are usually employed only in a few occupations along with men. Also, women are mostly engaged in low-skill jobs. To this day, it is found that male workers have monopoly in a majority of the occupations, where the skill requirement is high. Organized sector is a highly productive segment of the labour market. Majority of the women are still employed in the unorganized sector of the economy, mostly inhome-based enterprises and caste-based operations.

Table 3.13: Beedi Establishment and Registered Workers in Karnataka

Year	No. of Registered Beedi Works	No. of Workers	Identity Card Issued
1996	670	2,80,822	2,80,822
1997	660	2,91,966	2,73,141
1998	724	2,83,146	2,63,896
1999	535	2,87,872	2,68,405
2000	355	2,27,608	2,14,229
2001	441	2,78,713	2,68,429
2002	373	2,77,236	2,64,506
2003	338	2,93,978	2,68,436

Table 3.13 shows the establishment and registered beedi workers in Karnataka State. About 724 beedi workers registered in the year 1998 and 2,93,978 in the year of 2003 in Karnataka state. Around 2,8,822 identity cards were issued in the year 1996. Around 338 beedi workers registered in the financial year of 2003 and 2,27,608 in the year 2000. Around 2,14,229 cards were issued in the same financial year 2000.

Table3.14: Women Employment (Zone-wise) (Organized Sector – India)

Zone	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Northern	607 (12.2)	612.1 (12.4)	614.8 (12.3)	619.6 (12.5)	626.8 (12.4)	661.5 (12.9)	675.7 (12.7)	698.04 (12.6)	711.9 (12.7)	78.3 (12.6)
Central	433.3 (8.7)	435 (8.8)	433 (8.7)	434.8 (8.8)	440.3 (8.7)	450 (8.7)	454.4 (8.5)	464.7 (8.4)	469.5 (8.4)	487.8 (8.3)
North East	443.4 (8.9)	416.3 (8.4)	407.6 (8.2)	422.7 (8.5)	456.6 (9.1)	478.2 (9.3)	481.4 (9.06)	502.7 (9.1)	454.9 (8.1)	460.5 (7.8)
East	459.3 (9.2)	450.2 (9.1)	450.9 (9.07)	423.1 (8.5)	435.7 (8.6)	475.1 (9.2)	474.9 (8.9)	481.05 (8.7)	490.9 (8.7)	500.2 (8.5)
West	797.7 (16.1)	774.7 (15.6)	792.1 (15.9)	790 (16.0)	831.5 (16.5)	867.3 (16.9)	906.8 (17.07)	927.8 (16.9)	997.1 (17.8)	1184.2 (20.2)
South	2206.2 (44.5)	2241.3 (45.4)	2264.2 (45.5)	2238.4 (45.3)	2219.4 (44.2)	2181.9 (42.8)	2311.8 (43.5)	2430.6 (44.0)	2447.5 (43.8)	2479.5 (42.3)
Andaman & Nicobar	5.5 (0.1)	5.7 (0.1)	5.8 (0.1)	5.9 (0.1)	5.9 (0.1)	6.6 (0.1)	6.6 (0.1)	7.13 (0.1)	7.8 (0.1)	7.7 (0.1)
Total	4949.3	4935.4	4968.4	4934.4	5016.2	5120.5	5311.9	5512.2	5579.9	5858.6

Source: Statistical Profile(2010)

Zone-wise Women Employment in India is presented in Table 3.14.

The table indicates the percentage of women involved in organised employment in Andaman & Nicobar Islands is 0.1 per cent and it is highest in the south zone, more than 44 per cent.

Table 3.15: Women Employment (Industry-wise) in India (in `000s)

Industry	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Agriculture	466.5 (9.3)	458.7 (9.2)	484.1 (9.6)	498 (9.7)	490.6 (9.3)	510.2 (9.3)	468.4 (8.4)	476.8 (8.1)
Mining and Quarrying	60.9 (1.2)	73.3 (1.4)	77.4 (1.5)	85.5 (1.6)	83.7 (1.5)	84.1 (1.5)	82.7 (1.4)	110.5 (1.8)
Manufacturing	1009.8 (20.3)	949.3 (19.2)	939.3 (18.7)	893 (17.4)	944.7 (17.9)	1010.4 (18.5)	989.6 (17.9)	1030.1 (17.6)
Electricity and Gas	47.7 (0.96)	52.1 (1.05)	53 (1.05)	53.7 (1.04)	53.2 (1.01)	49.4 (0.90)	54.1 (0.97)	61.01 (1.04)
Construction	64.1 (1.2)	66 (1.3)	67 (1.3)	67.4 (1.3)	65.4 (1.2)	64.8 (1.1)	66.3 (1.1)	74.8 (1.2)
Wholesale and Retail	44.5 (0.89)	46 (0.98)	49.6 (0.98)	48.6 (0.94)	51.6 (0.98)	63.2 (1.16)	67.7 (1.2)	73.4 (1.2)
Transport	189 (3.8)	189.4 (3.8)	191.6 (3.8)	192 (3.7)	194.9 (3.7)	199.7 (3.6)	207.1 (3.7)	214.7 (3.6)
Finance and Insurance	274.3 (5.5)	287.3 (5.08)	302.2 (6.02)	331.5 (6.4)	412.4 (7.8)	476.6 (8.7)	541.7 (9.8)	597.8 (10.2)
Commercial, Social, and Personal	2811.6 (56.5)	2812.3 (57.01)	2852.1 (56.8)	2950.8 (57.6)	2960.9 (56.3)	2979.7 (54.7)	3049.3 (55.1)	3200.9 (54.8)
Total	4968	4934.4	5016.2	5120.5	5257.7	5438.9	5527.2	5840.2

Source: Labour Bureau Statistics

Industry-wise Women Employment in India is presented in Table 3.15. The table indicates the percentage of women involved in Commercial, Social, and Personal sector as more than 50 per cent, followed by the Manufacturing industry by 17 to 20 per cent. The proportion of workers involved in Electricity, Gas, Wholesale and Retail industry is least compared with workers in other industries.

Occupation Diversification of Women Labour in India

Even after independence, Indian society has agriculture as its main occupation. The men of the family work in the landlord's fields and farms and the women work in the landlord's home to assist their husbands to make a living.

After some time, when education started spreading in the villages, people started sending their children to school. The rural lifestyle gradually started changing. Day-by-day, more people who were in agriculture started to send their children to school.

The next generation went on higher education, availing whatever facility that came their way. At this time, women discontinued their field work. Meanwhile, beedi rolling was another occupation in the urban and the rural areas. Maximum women in the urban areas were rolling beedis. In 1976, the Central Government passed the "Land Ceiling Act", as a result of which, a part of the land in which they worked came in to the tenant's possession. This Act brought several changes in occupation, education, and traditional lifestyle. It was a big turning point for women. Some women started to work in their own farms, but some people migrated to urban areas. But even in urban areas, the living condition was not good and women started to work in factories and industries, while some started their life as housemaids in the cities. Industries like cashew kernel processing units, handloom units, fishing industries, and some other home industries were filled by rural women. This broke the connectivity of the rural people with

their earlier rural life and place. Women are now in the police and the military. They are revered in many fields such as sports. There are many government programmes, which have helped women to showcase their skill in various fields. Women also in rural areas are taking to politics and have become popular. Earlier there were no strong laws to protect the interests of women but now there are. Now there are many women entrepreneurs

CONCLUSION

The work participation rates for women is considerably lower than men in Karnataka (KHDR,1999). There is a strong gender bias in the labour market, both in the formal and informal sectors. The proportion of female workers in the informal sector is higher, followed by percentage of women workers in agriculture and allied activities. The percentage of regular women workers is very low compared with women workers in other sectors.

Though women's participation in economic activities in the formal sectors of industries has increased, it has not in the agricultural sector. Women's participation in formal activities has to be increased. Though women constitute nearly half of the economically active population, their contribution is below the potential.

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CHAPTER IV

PROFILE OF THE STUDY AREA

- **INTRODUCTION**
- **HISTORY OF DAKSHINA KANNADA**
- **PHYSICAL AND GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES**
- **DEMOGRAPHY**
- **AGRICULTURE**
- **INDUSTRY**
- **SERVICE SECTOR**
- **CULTURE AND EDUCATION**
- **CUISINE**
- **CONCLUSION**

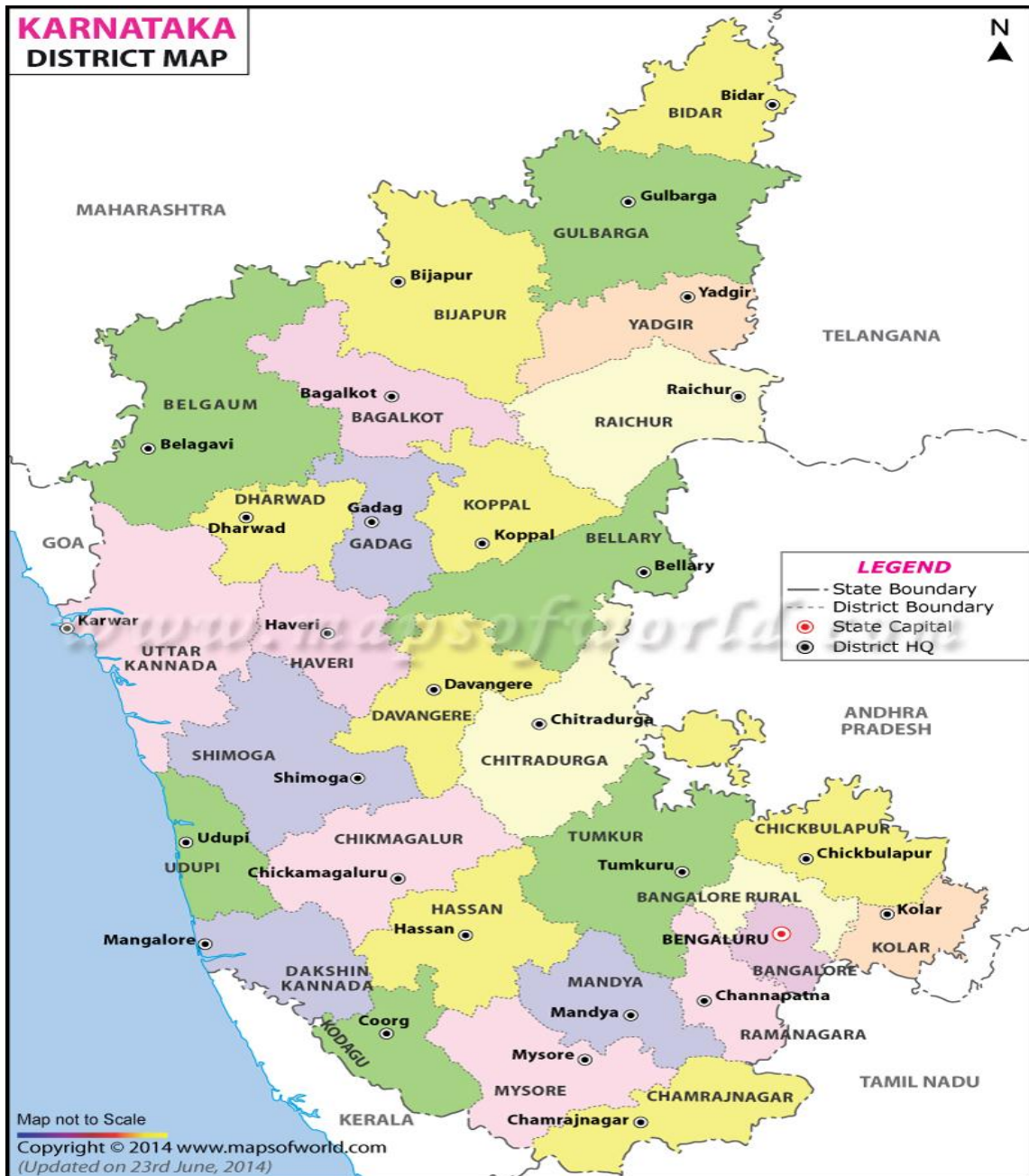
INTRODUCTION

This chapter gives an introduction of the Karnataka state and then goes on to provide a profile of the study area of the two districts of Dakshina Kannada(D.K.) and the Udupi districts, the coastal districts of Karnataka State. A brief history of the districts are presented, followed by their physical, geographical, demographic features. This will be helpful in understanding the context in which the present research has been undertaken. Later, a profile of the sample co-operative institutions and the sample co-operative member farmers is presented.

Karnataka state was formed on 1 November 1956, with the passage of the States Reorganisation Act. The States Reorganisation Act, 1956 was a major reform of the boundaries of India's states and territories, organising them along linguistic lines. Originally known as the State of Mysore, it was renamed *Karnataka* in 1973. It is the eighth largest state in India with a geographical land area of 1,91,791 sq. km. The administrative units of the State as per the 2011 Census consists of 30 districts, 176 sub-districts (talukus), 29,340 villages (including 1,943 un-inhabited villages), and 347 towns including 127 census towns and 220 statutory towns. The State has 1,33,57,027 households as per 2011 Census. The number of households has registered a growth rate of 28.41 percent. According to the 2011 Census, Karnataka with a population of 61,095,297 (sixty-one million, ninety-five thousand, two hundred ninety-seven) retains ninth

rank in population size among all the and accounts for 5.05 percent of the country's population. Of the 6,10,95,297 persons enumerated in the State, 30,966,657 are males and 30,128,640 are females. Karnataka ranks 23rd in the literacy level and it occupies 20th place in density of population.

Map of Karnataka



Source: www.google.com

Karnataka is a state with the Arabian Sea coastline. Bengaluru is the capital of Karnataka. It is broadly classified into 4 divisions-North Karnataka, South Karnataka, Central Karnataka, and Coastal Karnataka. Coastal Karnataka,

comprises of three districts namely, Dakshina Kannada (South Canara), Udupi, and Uttara Kannada(North Canara).

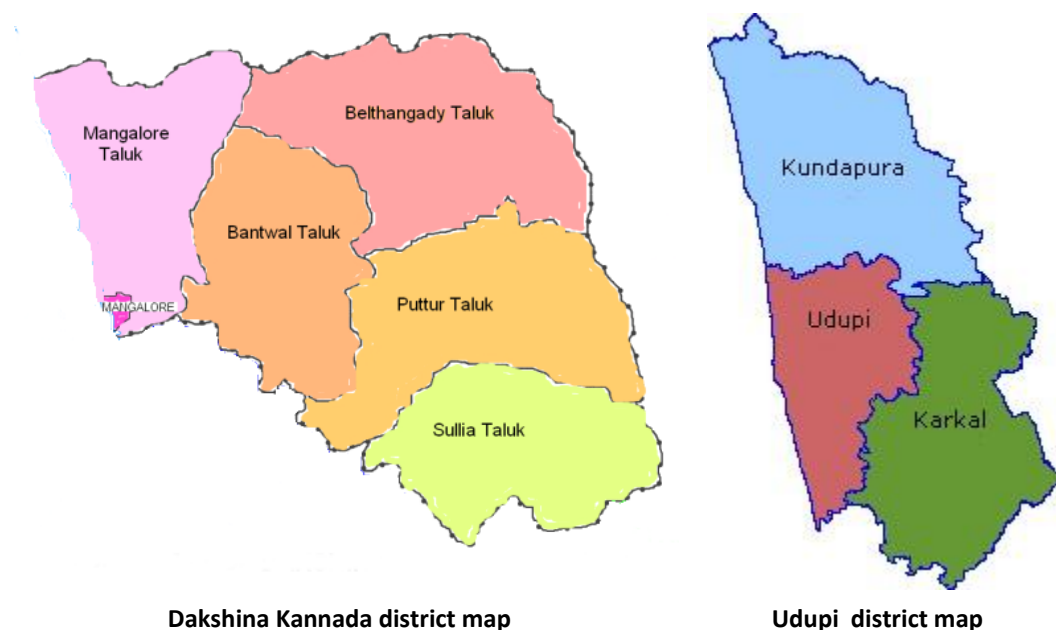
North Karnataka consists Belagavi, Vijayapura, Bagalkot, Bidar, Bellary, Kalaburagi, Yadagiri, Raichur, Gadag, Dharwad, Haveri, and Koppal districts.

These districts are famous for oilseeds, cotton, and varieties of grains. A major part of these districts are used for growing oilseeds like groundnuts, sunflower and sesame etc. The other occupations in the said districts are manufacturing of pure cotton cloth, including sarees and other dress materials. Khadi material is produced in North Karnataka, especially in Dharwad ranking first in the international level for its quality. Davangere district produces the maximum portion of rice in Karnataka. Lingayats, Kurubas, Gollas (yadava), Banajiga, and Lammbhanis are the major communities in the district. Along with them, the Schedule Castes and Muslims are also in considerable numbers. Vijaya Nagara, Harihara, Hampi, Vijayapura, and Ihole-Badami are some of the famous places for tourism having religious backgrounds.

In South Karnataka, the major communities are Vakkaliga and Kurubas and small portions of other communities. The main crops of this region are rice, sugarcane, and fruit plantations like bananas, grapes, etc. Belur, Halebidu, Srirangapatnam, and Melukote are some of the places in this region are some of the tourist places. The world famous palace which belongs to the king of Mysore attracts crores of people every year. The famous Dussera festival is

the main attraction of this region. Malai Mahadeshwara hills and Chamundi hills are other two places having their own fame.

Map of Coastal Karnataka Districts of Dakshina Kannada and Udupi (Study Area)



Source: www.google.com

Coastal Karnataka consists of three districts, namely, Uttara Kannada, Udupi, and Dakshina Kannada of which Dakshina Kannada and Udupi districts are the study area and of which the maps are given above. The main occupations in these regions are agriculture, fishing, beedi rolling cashew processing, tile manufacturing, brick manufacturing, etc. The major community in these districts, according to the census report, is the Billava community, followed by Bunts, Muslims, Christians, and other communities like G.S.B., Ganiga, Kulal, Devadiga, Karvi, Bovi, Mogaveera, Brahmins(Shivalli and Nayaka),

Gowda, Vakkaliga Gowdas, Jains, and others. Koragas, Siddis, Kudubi, and Holakki are considered as tribals having their own culture and tradition. Coastal Karnataka people are generally known as very peaceful and devotion oriented. Large number of temples, churches, mosques, and Jain basidis can be found in these areas.

Bhoota Aaradhane, another form of worship in this region has a history of about 1000 years. Annappa panjurli, Kordabbu, Tanni Maniga, Jaarandaya, Nagabrahma, Brahmabaiderkala, and Kotee-Chennaya are the main daivas of this region. If any untoward happens in a family or in the society, people pray to diavas for deliverance. Bhoota aradhane is a very powerful and traditional culture of these regions.

Through Yakshagana, the stories of mythology are enacted in rural areas with the traditional dancing by the drama artist to the tune of a classical singer(bhagavata). Korida katta (Cock fight) and Kambla (buffalo race) are the traditional games. There are other festivals like Krishnashtami in which people try to reach an earthen pot and break it. The pot is tied to a pole with money in it, and there is a traditional tiger dance locally called as pilivesha, which are performed on trucks on occasions like the famous Dussera festivals and also at other festive occasions.

Tulu, Konkani, Byari, and Kannada are the major languages spoken. Along with them, local urdu, Arebhashe, are some of the other languages spoken by the people.

There are many famous temples situated in this region. Kadri Majunateshwara Temple, Mangaladevi Temple, Sharavu Mahaganapathi Temple, Kollur Sri Mookambika Temple, Dharmasthala Sri Manjunatha Temple, Kukke Shri Subramanya Temple, Polali Shri Rajarajeshwari Temple, Bappanadu Shri Durga Parameshwari Temple, Kudroli Sri Gokarnanateshwara Temple, Venkataramana Temple Car Street, Sri Raghavendra Temple Carstreet, and Udupi Sri Krishna Temple are among them. There are also other temples like, Murudeshwara Temple, Aanegudde Ganapathi Temple, Kumbashi Temple, Koteshwara Temple, Hebri Anantha Padhmanabha Temple, Sautadka Temple, Kodyadka Temple, etc. Lord Ganapathi and Durga Devi have a prominent place in worship. Nagaaradhane is another one of the major worship belief of these regions. In spite of these temples, Catholics and Muslims also constitute a major population in this district. Some of the churches and mosques are very famous at the international level. For eg., the oil paintings adorning the ceiling of St. Aloysius Chapel, Milagres Church, Rozario Cathedral, and Attur St. Lawrence Church of Karkala. The famous Ullala Darga is famous for the celebration of “Uroos”. In Belthangady taluk, there is another famous mosque, generally known as Kajoor Darga. Christmas, Deepavali, Dassera, and Bakrid are the main celebrations in these regions. Lakshadeepotsava in Dharmasthala during Deepavali sees a major gathering of people. The other major festival is the Mangalore Dussera. More than 50 lakh people visit

Mangalore during this period. Kudroli Sri Gokarnanateshwara is famous for its Dussera.

Both vegetarian and non-vegetarian food are consumed by the people. Fish and rice are the staple food of the coastal people. Rasam, dal thove, potato ingavu, cashew nut sukka, chicken sukka as lunch and veg pakodas, vade, ambade, Idli, neerdose, and golibaje as snacks are consumed by the people of these regions.

The people of coastal Karnataka benefit from staying near the seashore by getting fresh air from the sea and bright sunshine which provides essential Vitamin D. Visiting sea side also gives a calming effect to the mind which boosts up health. Mangalore and Karvar in coastal karnataka consists of two major ports, the New Mangalore Port at Panambur in Managlore and the Karavar port at Karvar. There are other 3 major fishing ports situated in these regions, the Mangalore fishing port, Malpe fishing port, and the Bhatkal fishing port.

Crores of rupees get generated through these fishing ports. Coastal Karnataka has an industrial structure around Mangalore and Udupi. Mangalore Oil Refinery, Mangalore Chemicals and Fertilizers, Kudremukha Iron Ore Company, and UPCL in Padubidri are some of the major factories of these regions. The Kaiga automatic thermal plant is situated in Karvar and is very important in supplying electricity. The biggest naval yard called Seabird is situated in Karvar. This region even has railway and air traffic.

The Mangalore International Airport and Konkan Railway are the two crowns of this region.

These regions are rich in education with six medical colleges, more than 20 engineering colleges, hundreds of first grade colleges, thousands of PU colleges, and high schools and primary schools. The National Institute of Technology (NITK) is situated in Surathkal. It is the biggest milestone in the educational field. For this reason, the people of coastal Karnataka have a rich background of education. Mostly all are educated now and there is a trend of getting educated, and there is competition in education. The coastal people are very hygienic and health conscious people. This region consists of major and minor hospitals too. Ankola, Bhatkal, Honnavara, Karwara and Kumta taluks come under the coastal region of Uttara Kannada district. Rivers such as Kali, Gangavathi, Aghanasini, and Sharavati flow in the coastal region of Uttara Kannada district.

HISTORY OF DAKSHINA KANNADA

Dakshina Kannada district was popularly known as tulunadu in the ancient times and it included the now separated Udupi district. So when an account is given about Dakshina Kannada, it also relates to the Udupi district. The english version is South Canara. Tulu, being the language spoken by the majority of the people, the name Tulunadu prevails even today since almost two-third of district speak Tulu, though for official purposes, it uses English and Kannada. In the 6th century, when the

Portuguese and other Europeans arrived in this region, they called the entire area as Canara. Literally, Canara (anglicized) denotes Kannada as they observed the people of regions speaking Kannada.

From a historical point of view, Dakshina kannada is rich in museums, temples churches & mosques. The Alupa dynasty ruled Dakshina Kannada from the beginning of the Christian era to about the middle of the 14th century. In AD 1020, Rajaraja Chola occupied the district for a short time; in AD 1336, Vijayanagara Empire was founded and in 1340, Dakshina Kannada came under the empire. In 1565, after the battle of Talikota, the Vijayanagara Empire was defeated and the district came under the Nayaks of Ikkeri. When there was a dispute regarding the succession to the throne in 1761, Hyder Ali succeeded in getting the Mangalore port and in 1763, the whole district. Tippu Sultan succeeded his father Hyder Ali and in 1799, when British defeated Tippu, the district came under British rule. The Udupi district in the Karnataka state of India was created in August 1997. The three northern Taluks Udupi, Kundapur and Karkala, were separated from Dakshina Kannada District to form Udupi district.

PHYSICAL AND GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES

The districts consists of seashore in the West and Western Ghats in the East, and can be divided into two agro-climatic regions as coastal region and Malenad region. The coastal region consists of Mangaluru, and the Malenad regions consists of Belthangady, Puttur, Sulya, and Bantwal taluk.

The then Dakshina Kannada district included three taluks of Udupi, Kundapur and Karkala but in August 1997, they were carved out from the Dakshina kannada district to form a seperate Udupi District. The important rivers of Dakshina Kannada district are Suvarnanadi, Shambavi (Mulki), Gurpura, Nethravathi, Pavanje and Nandini. Besides these, there are many other rivers with perennial flow of water and a number of streams all running from east to west. The length of the coastline, broken at numerous point by rivers, rivulets, creeks, and bays is 140.8 kilometres. The district lies between 12° 27' and 13° 58' north latitude and 74° 35' and 75° 40' east latitude. It is about 177 kilometres in length, and about 80 kilometres wide. In several respects, it shares the geographical and economical characteristics of its contiguous districts of Coorg, Shivamogga, Chikmagalur, etc.

Climate and Rainfall

The climate of Dakshina Kannada and Udupi district shares the wider climatic pattern of the other west coast districts of India. It is characterized

by excessive humidity (78 per cent) in the greater part of the year and shoots up to 89 per cent in July. There are four seasons, viz., four wet months of June, July, August, and September when the districts encounter strong winds, high humidity, heavy showers, and a slight fall in temperature; two warm and damp months of October and November, when the south-west monsoon retreats; three cool months of December, January, and February when generally dry conditions prevail, and three hot months of March, April, and May, which is the period of rising temperature. The climate in the district is generally equable. However, it is colder in the interior than on the coast.

DEMOGRAPHY

Dakshina Kannada district of Karnataka, which is coastal Karnataka has a total population of 2,089,649 as per Census 2011, out of which, 1,034,714 are males and 1,054,935 are females. In 2011, there were 439,733 families residing in Dakshina Kannada district. As per Census 2011, out of total population, 47.7 percent lived in urban areas while 52.3 percent lived in rural areas. The average literacy rate in urban areas is 92.1 percent, while that in rural areas, it is 85.3 percent. The sex ratio of Dakshina Kannada district was classified into rural and urban ratio of 10:20 as per the 2011 Census.

Udupi district has a total population of 11,77,361 of which 562131 constitute male and 615230 constitute female. The population of Udupi district constitutes 1.93 per cent of the total population of the state. Unlike

in the whole Karnataka State, the female population is more than the male population.

Rural-Urban Population

Rural population is more in proportion than Urban Population in the study area. The rural and the urban areas percentage distribution of population of the coastal districts is show in Table 4.1

Table 4.1 Rural-urban population (2011)

State/district	Rural	Urban
Karnataka	61.33	38.67
Dakshina Kannada	52.33	47.67
Udupi	71.63	28.37
Uttara Kannada	70.85	29.15

Source: Census Report – 2011

(Figures in the table indicate percentage)

Table 4.1 shows that the urban population constitute 38.67 per cent of the total population of Karnataka. Udupi and Uttara kannada districts have 28.37 and 29.15 per cent urban population respectively which is less than the state average. In Dakshina Kannada district, urban population constitute 47.67 per cent of the total population.

Density of population

Density of population indicates the average number of people per square km of geographical area. The density of population in coastal Karnataka is shown in table 4.2

Table 4.2 : Density of Population during 2001 and 2011

State/district	2001	2011
Karnataka	276	319
Dakshina Kannada	390	430
Udupi	311	329
Uttara Kannada	132	140

Source: Census Report – 2011

Table 4.2 shows that there is an increase in the density of population in Karnataka state between 2001 to 2011 from 276 to 319. Dakshina kannada and Udupi districts have shown a density of 430 and 329 persons respectively during 2011 which is greater than the state average of 319. Uttara kannada district has a lower density of population compared to dakshina kannada and Udupi in 2011 i.e. 140

Sex Ratio

Sex ratio measures total number of female population per thousand male population of an area. The sex ratio of Karnataka and districts of coastal karnataka during 2001 and 2011 is shown in table 4.3

Table 4.3 Sex ratio in study region during 2001 and 2011

State/district	Sex Ratio in 2001			Sex Ratio in 2011		
	Total	Rural	Urban	Total	Rural	Urban
Karnataka	965	977	942	973	979	963
Dakshina kannada	1022	1033	1005	1020	1020	1020
Udupi	1130	1151	1040	1094	1114	1046
Uttara Kannada	971	971	969	979	977	982

Source: Census report 2011

Sex ratio in Karnataka and utara kannada has gone up from 2001 to 2011 from 965 to 973 and 971 to 979 respectively and it has fallen in Dakshina kannada and Udupi district of coastal karnatka from 2001 to 2011 from 1022 to 1020 and 1130 to 1094 respectively.

Workers and work participation

The work participation rate is defined as the proportion of total workers (i.e Main workers and marginal workers) to total population. The total Workforce and the work participation rate in the study region during 2011 are shown in table-4.4

Table-4.4: Work force and work participation rate by residence 2011(persons)

State/ District	Total workers in 2011			Workers participated rate in 2011		
	Total	Rural	Urban	Total	Rural	Urban
Karnataka	27872597	18502230	9370367	45.62	49.38	39.66
D.K.	997721	568551	429170	47.75	51.99	43.09
Udupi	513241	376475	436766	43.59	44.64	40.94

Source : Census Report 2011

Of the total population of Karnataka shown in table 4.4, 61095297 in 2011, total workforce constitutes 27872597 persons, which is the 45.62 per cent of the total population of Karnataka state. The workforce in D.K. district constitutes 47.75 per cent of the total population; it is 43.59 per cent in Udupi district. Urban work force is smaller than the rural workforce in Karnataka state as well as the Coastal Karnataka districts.

Main workers constitute the work force which had worked for major part of the reference period i.e. six months or more. The main workers are classified into four categories such as cultivators, agricultural labourers, household industry workers and other workers. The number of main workers and their percentages in the study region is shown in the table 4.5.

Table 4.5 : Main workers and their percentage to total workers (2011)

State/ District	Main workers 2011			Percentage of main workers to total workers -2011		
	Total	Rural	Urban	Total	Rural	Urban
Karnataka	23397181	15060905	8336276	83.94	81.4	88.96
D.K.	914476	512709	401767	91.66	90.18	93.61
Udupi	459446	333571	125875	89.52	88.6	92.04

Source : Census Report – 2011

In table 4.5, main workers in Karnataka state constitute 23397181 persons, which is 83.94 per cent of the total work force in Karnataka. Of the total rural workforce in Karnataka, 81.40 per cent constitute the main workers. Likewise, 88.96 percent constitute the urban main workforce in Karnataka. Among the districts of Coastal Karnataka, main workers form the major share of the total workforce 91.66 per cent of the total work force in Dakshina Kannada district constitute main workers, 89.52 per cent in Udupi district.

Marginal workers are those who had not worked for the major part of the reference period i.e. less than six months. Marginal workers and their percentage to total workers by residence in the study region is shown in table-4.6.

Table 4.6 : Marginal worker and percentage to total workers by residence – 2011

State/ District	Marginal workers 2011			Percentage of marginal workers to total workers -2011		
	Total	Rural	Urban	Total	Rural	Urban
Karnataka	4475416	3441325	1034091	16.06	18.6	11.04
D.K.	83245	55842	27403	8.34	9.82	6.39
Udupi	53795	42904	10891	10.48	11.4	7.96

Source : Census Report 2011

As per the census report of 2011 shown in table 4.6, the marginal workers constitute 16.06 per cent of the total workforce in Karnataka. 18.60 per cent of the total rural workforce and 11.04 per cent of the total urban workforce constitute the marginal workers in Karnataka. 8.34 per cent in Dakshina Kannada district, 10.48 per cent in Udupi district constitute the marginal workers.

Agricultural labourers

Agricultural labourers form an important segment of the main workers. Agricultural labourers and their percentage to total workers by residence in study region is shown in Table 4.7.

Table 4-7 Agricultural labourers in Coastal Karnataka district - 2011

State/ District	Total	Percentage	Males	Percentage	Female	Percentage
Karnataka	7155963	25.67	3283279	17.97	3872684	40.33
D,K,	29274	2.93	21384	3.44	7890	2.09
Udupi	63390	12.35	31.32	9.25	32358	18.19

Source: Census Report - 2011

Agricultural labourers in Karnataka as per the census of 2011 constitute 7155963 i.e. 25.67 per cent of the total workers. Agricultural male workers in Karnataka constitute 3283279, which is 17.97 per cent of the total male workers in Karnataka. Likewise, female agricultural labourers constitute about 3872614 i.e. 40.33 per cent of the total female workers. The number of agricultural labourers Coastal Karnataka is less than the state averages. In Dakshina Kannada district total number of agriculture labourers constitutes 29274, which is only 2.93 percent of the total agricultural labourers in the state. Of them male labourers constitute 21384, i.e 3.44 per cent of the total male agricultural labourers and female labourers constitute 7890 i.e. 2.09 per cent of the total female agricultural labourers. The total number of agricultural labourers in Udupi district constitute 63390 i.e. 12.35 per cent of the total workers in the state. Of them male agricultural workers are 31032 and female agricultural workers are 32358 which constitutes 9.25 percent and 8.19 percent of the total male and female workers respectively.

AGRICULTURE

Agriculture, which was once a major occupation of the people of Dakshina Kannada and Udupi districts, which falls under Coastal Karnataka, has now taken a back seat because of the influx of money from natives settled in other cities, states, and countries. A significant number of people from this district work in the Gulf (Middle East) countries and other states of India. Farms and fields are being converted into residential plots and commercial (shopping) complexes. Horticulture

though has made some strides, and measures are being taken to improve the fruit plantation sector. The main crops of Dakshina Kannada are Paddy, Coconut, Arecanut, Black Pepper, Cashew, and Cocoa. Rubber, Banana, and Vanilla crops are also cultivated in Sullia taluk. Rice is generally cultivated three seasons in a year, in Karthika or Yenel (May-October), Suggi (October-January), and Kolake (January to April). Urad or Black gram is grown in some areas during the season of Suggi. The Karnataka Milk Federation has a milk processing plant at Kulshekar in Mangaluru. This plant processes milk procured from cattle owned by the farmers of the district.

Land utilization pattern in Coastal Karnataka

Total geographical area under forest and the total cropped area is coastal Karnataka shown in table 4.8

Table 4.8: Land utilization pattern in Coastal Karnataka districts (Area in hectares)

Sl. No.	Particulars	Karnataka	D.K.	Udupi
1	Total geographical area	19049836	477149	356446
2	Area under forest	3071833 (16.13)	128476 (26.93)	100102 (28.08)
3	Land not available for cultivation			
	a. Land put to non-agricultural use	1432956 (7.52)	65509 (13.73)	39876 (11.19)

	b. Barren and uncultivated land	786621 (4.13)	58780 (12.32)	11595 (3.25)
4	Cultivable waste land	413284 (2.17)	30554 (6.40)	38528 (10.81)
5	Uncultivable land excluding fallow land			
	a. Permanent pastures and other grazing land	908393 (4.77)	19027 (3.98)	10625 (2.98)
	b. Trees, groves etc	285013 (1.5)	31652 (6.63)	46763 (13.12)
6	Fallow land			
	a. Current fallow	1671787 (8.78)	6288 (1.32)	269 (0.08)
	b. Other fallow Land	53850 (2.82)	5417 (1.14)	8560 (2.40)
7	Net area Sown	9941399 (52.18)	131446 (27.55)	100128 (28.09)
8	Total cropped area	12059367	157683	117884
9	Area shown more than once	2117968	26237	17756

Source: Annual season and crop report 2011-2012, DE and S, Bangalore

Total geographical area in Karnataka is 19049836 hectares of which, 3071833 hectares (16.13 per cent) constitutes forest area. Total cropped area in Karnataka constitutes 12059367 hectares which includes net sown area of

9941399 hectares (52.18 per cent) and 2117968 hectares of area sown more than once. In Dakshina Kannada district, of the total geographical area of 477149 hectares 128476 hectares (26.93 per cent) is covered by forest. Net sown area constitutes 133446 hectares (27.55 per cent) and area sown more than once, constitute 26237 hectares. Hence the total cropped area includes 157683 hectares. Udupi district has geographical area of 356446 hectares in which 100102 hectares (28.08 per cent) is covered under forest. 100128 hectares (28.09 per cent) constitute net sown area and 117884 hectares constitute total cropped area in Udupi district .17756 hectares constitute area sown more than once in Udupi district.

Agricultural land holding

Farmers of coastal Karnataka are classified into five categories which include Marginal farmers with land holdings of less than one hectare. Small farmers with land holdings of one to two hectares, Semi- medium farmers with land holding of two to four hectares. Medium farmers with four to 10 hectares of land holdings and large farmers with land holdings of more than 10 hectares. Agricultural land holding and operated area in coastal Karnataka is shown in table 4.9.

Table 4.9: Agriculturral land holding and operated area in Coastal Karnataka.

Types of farmers	Karnataka	D.K.	Udupi
Marginal farmers			
Number of farmers	3655882	155528	153980
Area of land	1651491	57482	49477
Small farmers			
Number of farmers	2013198	37523	25761
Area of land	2875807	52036	35981
Semi medium farmers			
Number of farmers	1278210	14587	12619
Area of Land	3468133	39343	34196
Medium farmers			
Number of farmers	554128	4988	4544
Area of land	3206228	28118	25757
Large farmers			
Number of farmers	79455	678	497
Area of land	1183062	16206	9293
Total	7580873	213304	197401
Number of farmers	12384721	193185	154704
Area of Land			

Source : 2010-11. Agricultural Census.

Table 4.9 shows that total number of farmers in Karnataka as per the agricultural census for the year 2010-11 was 7580873, which covers the agricultural land area of about 12384721 hectares. Total number of marginal farmers is more than the other category of farmers in the state. But their land holdings are less than any other category of farmers. The total number of farmers in Dakshina kannada district was 213304 with land area of 193185 hectares. Marginal farmers constitute around 155528 with land area of 57482 hectares. Among the districts of Coastal Karnataka, Udupi district has got less number of farmers. There are 197401 farmers with land area of 154704 hectares in Udupi district. Total number of marginal farmers in Udupi District was around 153980 with land area of 49477 hectares.

INDUSTRY

The Dakshina Kannada district along with Udupi district is known as "The Cradle of Indian banking". Major nationalized banks of India such as Canara Bank, Corporation Bank, Syndicate Bank, Vijaya Bank, and the private sector Karnataka Bank have evolved from these two districts.

Red clay tile (Mangalore Tiles), cashew processing factories, and beedi industry once flourished in these districts. The service sector is booming with the setting-up of professional education institutes and information technology related services (IT & ITES).

Dakshina Kannada district has a per capita income of Rs.2,18,580 which is second only to Bengaluru Urban district. Despite ranking 8th in the list of most populous districts in Karnataka, the district is the second largest contributor to the state's Gross State Domestic Product, with a contribution of 5.8 percent. In other words, despite a low population share of 3.4 percent, the district's share in state Gross State Domestic Product stands at 5.8 percent.

As the district is on the shore of the Arabian Sea, fishing is one of the major occupation of many people. The major fishing places are Bunder (Old harbour), Panambur, Surathkal, Kotekar, and Sashihitlu.

The major industries in Dakshina Kannada concentrated around Mangaluru are Mangalore Chemical and Fertilizers Ltd. (MCF), Kudremukh Iron Ore Company Ltd. (KIOCL), The Canara Workshops Limited (manufacturers of Canara Springs), Mangalore Refinery and Petrochemicals Ltd. (MRPL), BASF, TOTAL GAZ, Bharati Shipyard Limited (BSL), etc. There is a chocolate manufacturing plant at Puttur run by CAMPCO.

Major information technology and outsourcing companies have located their facilities in Mangaluru, namely, Infosys, Lasersoft Infosystems Ltd., Mphasis BPO, etc. Karnataka government is planning to develop IT parks across the state including Mangaluru. Two such parks are under construction, the Export Promotion Industrial Park (EPIP) at Ganjimutt and the IT Special Economic Zone near Mangalore

University, while a third IT Special Economic Zone is being proposed at Ganjimutt. The Oil and Natural Gas Corporation (ONGC) plans to set up a multiproduct SEZ (Special Economic Zone) with an investment of over Rs.35,000 crore. Another IT Special Economic Zone of 2 million square feet (180,000 m²) is under construction at Thumbe by the BA group. This will include a business centre, convention centre, mall, and helipad facility. Details of factories and workers are shown in table 4.10

Table 4.10: Number of factories and employees – 2014 (in numbers)

Factories	Karnataka	D.K.	Udupi
Readymade Garments			
Factories	951	Nil	1
Male	118914	Nil	190
Female	203302	Nil	294
Textiles			
Factories	1061	Nil	2
Male	60635	Nil	52
Female	23398	Nil	22
Chemicals			
Factories	1767	33	5
Male	110237	6736	124
Female	42730	531	31
Engineering			
Factories	1982	58	5
Male	164383	2707	1575
Female	42008	211	31
Others			
Factories	8333	529	390
Male	579656	16954	12061
Female	159284	10691	16065
Total			
Factories	14094	620	401
Male	1033828	26397	13950
Female	470722	11433	16421

Source: Departments of factories and Boilers

Table 4.10 shows that there were 14094 factories in Karnataka during 2014, comprising of 1033828 male and 470722 female employees. Among the district of costal Karnataka, Dakshina Kannada district has got 620 factories comprising 26397 male and 11433 female employees. In Udupi district there were 401 factories comprising 13950 male and 16421 female employees.

SERVICE SECTOR

The service sector contributes equally to the development of an economy. The service sector includes trade, transport, communication, banks and other government and non-government services. The development of educational institutions, banks, financial infrastructure helps in the development of a particular region. The generation of employment opportunities, growth of agriculture industrial activities and so on depends on the development service sector.

Literacy and education levels in the study region

Literacy level in the districts of costal Karnataka was more than the state average of 75.36 per cent during 2011. All the districts of coastal Karnataka achieved higher progress in the literacy level. The literates and literacy rate in the study region as per the 2011 census is shown in table 4.11.

Table-4.11: Literates and literacy rate in study region during 2001 and 2011

State/district	Literates in 2011			Literacy rate					
				2001			2011		
	Total	Rural	Urban	Total	Rural	Urban	Total	Rural	Urban
Karnataka	40647322	22649176	17998146	66.64	59.33	80.58	75.36	68.73	85.78
D.K.	1666323	838316	828007	83.35	79.72	89.1	88.57	85.33	92.12
Udupi	926429	645246	281183	81.25	79.35	89.47	86.24	83.91	92.13

Source: Census Report - 2011

Literacy level as well as literacy rates have shown a marked improvement in all the districts of costal Karnataka between 2001 and 2011.Both rural as well as urban literacy has shown improvement between 2001 and 2011 in all the districts of coastal Karnataka.

The provision of basic and higher education is an essential requirement for the development of the informal sector activities. The number if general and technical education institution has been developed in the study region which directly and indirectly helped in the growth of the region. A detailed account of the schools and colleges in the study region is discussed below.

Table-4.12 Numbers of lower primary schools and students-2013-14

State/ District	Number of Schools	Lower Primery Schools Total Enrollment		
		Boys	Girls	Total
Karnataka	26058	528903	498703	1027606
D.K.	339 (1.30)	7112 (1.34)	6578 (1.32)	13690 (1.33)
Udupi	273 (1.05)	4212 (0.80)	4021 (0.81)	8233 (0.80)

Source:DISE,2013-14,According to DISE LPS=1-5.(District information system for Education)

Table 4.12 shows that there were 26058 lower primary schools in Karnataka as on 30-09-2013. Total number of enrolment during the year 2013-14 was 1027606 students. It includes 528903 boys and 498703 girls. Dakshina Kannada district has got 339 lower primary schools with 13690 enrolments comprising of 7112 males and 6578 females during 2013-14. There were 273 lower primary schools in Udupi district with 8233 enrolment comprising of 4212 boys and 4021 girls.

Table -4.13: Number of higher primary schools and students-2013-14

State/ District	Number of Scholls	Upper Primery Schools Total Enrollment		
		Boys	Girls	Total
Karnataka	34427	3271686	3060802	6332488
D.K.	1130 (3.28)	108163 (3.31)	101458 (3.31)	209621 (3.31)
Udupi	687 (1.99)	52472 (1.60)	49121 (1.60)	101593 (1.60)

Source:DISE,2013-14,HPS=6-7.(Figures in parenthesis are share in percentages)

Table 4.13 shows that total number of higher primary schools in Karnataka was 34427 with the total enrolment of 6332488 students which comprises of 3271686 boys and 3060802 girls as on 30-09-2013. There were 1130 higher primary schools in D.K district with the total enrolment of 209621 students. In Udupi district 687 higher primary schools were functioning with the total enrolment of 101593 students.

Table -4.14: Number of high schools and students-2013-14

State/ District	Number of Scholls	High school students Total Enrolment		
		Boys	Girls	Total
Karnataka	14469	1377203	1269641	2646844
D.K.	518 (3.58)	55095 (4.00)	51221 (4.03)	106316 (4.02)
Udupi	288 (1.99)	27042 (1.96)	25285 (1.99)	52327 (1.98)

Source:DISE,According to DISE HS=8-10.(Figures in parenthesis are share in percentages)

Table 4.14 shows that the total numbers of high schools in Karnataka is 14469 with 2646844 students as on 30-09-2013. It comprises of 1377203 enrolled boys and 1269641 girls. There were 518 high schools in D.K district, 228 in Udupi district, 288 in Udupi district.

Table -4.15: Number of PU Colleges, students and lecturers – 2013-14 (in Nos)

State/ District	Number of Schools	No. of Lecturers (2013-14)		Lower Primary Schools Total Enrollment		
		Men	Women	Boys	Girls	Total
Karnataka	26058	19999	10985	515140	551629	1066769
D.K.	339 (1.30)	736 (3.68)	1124 (10.23)	8837 (1.72)	11027 (1.99)	19864 (1.86)
Udupi	273 (1.05)	519 (2.59)	482 (4.39)	10414 (2.02)	9278 (1.68)	19692 (1.85)

Source: Directorate of the Pre-University Colleges (Figures in parethesis are share in percentage)

Table 4.15 shows that there were 4321 Pre- University Colleges comprising of 1066769 student in Karnataka during 2013-14. In Dakshina

Kannada there were 186 Colleges with 19864 students. Total number of girls was more than boys in Dakshina Kannada district. 11027 girls and 8837 boys were enrolled in PU Colleges of Dakshina Kannada district during 2013-14. In Udupi district, there were 105 Pre University colleges with 19692 students.

Table:4.16: Number of Degree Colleges providing general education and workers -2013-14 (in Nos)

State/ District	Degree Colleges Government				Degree Colleges Private Aided			
	No of Institutions	First Year			No of Institutions	First Year		
		Male	Female	Total		Male	Female	Total
Karnataka	362	131926	156845	288771	314	109078	122512	231590
Dakshina Kannada	16 (4.42)	2778 (2.11)	6197 (3.95)	8976 (3.11)	19 (6.05)	3559 (3.26)	6240 (5.09)	628 (4.15)
Udupi	11 (3.04)	3388 (2.57)	6565 (4.19)	9953 (3.45)	13 (4.14)	2828 (2.59)	3498 (2.86)	6326 (2.73)

Source: Collegiate Education (Figures in paranthesis are share in percentages)

Table 4.16 shows 362 Government degree colleges with total of 288771 students and 314 Aided Colleges with 231590 students were present in the State during 2013-14. In addition, a large number of Private colleges are also found in the State. 16 Government Colleges and 196 Aided Colleges were present in the D.K. District. 11 Government colleges and 13 aided colleges were present in Udupi District.

Table-4.17: Number of Polytechnic Colleges and Students – 2013-14 (in Nos)

State/ District	Polytechnic Government				Polytechnic Private			
	No of Institutions	First Year			No of Institution	First Year		
		Male	Female	Total		Male	Female	Total
Karnataka	81	12118	6670	18788	225	29999	15137	45136
Dakshina Kannada	03 (3.70)	495 (4.08)	384 (5.76)	879 (4.68)	08 (3.56)	1472 (4.91)	628 (4.15)	2100 (4.65)
Udupi	02 (2.47)	190 (1.57)	32 (0.48)	222 (1.18)	04 (1.78)	629 (2.10)	261 (1.72)	890 (1.97)

Source: Technical Education

In table 4.17, 81 Government Polytechnic College and 225 private Polytechnic Colleges were providing technical education to the students in the State during 2013-14. A total number of 63924 students were enrolled for the first year in the Polytechnic Colleges of Karnataka. 42117 boys and 21807 girls were enrolled for the first year. Number of enrolled boys was more than the number of enrolled girls, it indicates that a large number of boys are attracted towards technical education.

Banking

Total number of reported offices, aggregate deposits and gross bank credit of all scheduled commercial banks - December 2013 in Coastal Karnataka is shown in table 4.18.

Table 4.18: Number offices, aggregate deposits and gross bank credit of all scheduled commercial banks (2013)

Banks	Karnataka	D.K.	Udupi
Private sector Banks			
Offices	5260	390	245
Deposits	3398531	207348	109497
Credits	2458539	99846	50466
Foreign Banks			
Offices	17	—	—
Deposits	325716	—	—
Credits	260339	—	—
R ---Rural Banks			
Offices	1456	61	24
Deposits	183185	45615	14805
Credits	168199	20573	7795
Private Sector Banks			
Offices	2836	329	221
Deposits	1522888	161733	94692
Credits	920170	79273	42671

Note: 1. Public Sector Banks include state bank of India and its Associated and Nationalized Banks 2. Private sector Banks include old and new.

Source: Quarterly Statistics on Deposits and Credits of Scheduled Commercial Banks – RBI December 2013.

Table 4.18 shows that the public sector banks play a very important role in Karnataka. There were a total of around 5260 public sector bank offices in Karnataka with the mobilization of 3398531 million deposits and 2458539 million credits. Regional rural banks and private commercial banks also play an important role in the state as well as in the districts of Coastal Karnataka. Among the three districts of Coastal Karnataka, Dakshina Kannada district has got a larger number of bank offices. Deposit

mobilisation and credit expansion is also higher in Dakshina Kannada district.

The policy of liberalization privatization and globalization has reduced the importance of small scale and cottage industries. Hence, labour intensive industries find themselves hard to remain in the market. It aggravated the problem of unemployment. On the other hand agricultural sector is already wxperiencing surplus labour. In this context service sector activities gained momentum. Thus, informal sector which provided service activities became popular. When major sectors (like industry) fails to provide employment for growing labour force, searching for new avenus of employment on the basis of local and self employment becomes important . It has led to the development of informal sector activities. Informal sector activities are characterized as regional, low technical, less skill based, indigenous and occupation based activities.

Transport

In Dakshina Kannada, bus services are run by private players and the state-run Karnataka State Road Transport Corporation. The district had public limited (public listed) companies running transport business even before the independence of India in 1947.

The district has four national highways connecting parts of Karnataka and India. National Highway-17 (now NH-66) connects the district with Udupi, Karwar, Mumbai, Goa, and Kochi. National Highway-13 (now NH-52) connects Sholapur in Maharashtra with Dakshina Kannada. National Highway-48 (now NH-75) connects the district with Bengaluru, Kunigal, Hassan, and Sakleshpura. Recently, the state highway connecting Mangaluru to Mudigere was declared National Highway- 234. The National Highway-234 connects Mangaluru to Viluppuram in Tamil Nadu via Charmadi, Mudigere, Belur, Halebeedu, Chintamani, and Vellore. Major ghat sections in Dakshina Kannada include Shiradi Ghat (Nelyadi to Sakleshpura), Charmadi Ghat (Charmadi to Kottigehara), Sampaje Ghat (Sampaje to Madikeri), and Bisle Ghat (Subramanya to Sakleshpura, popularly known as Green Route by trekkers). State Highway-88 (SH-88) connects Dakshina Kannada to Mysuru. It starts at Mani and passes through the towns of Puttur, Sullia, Madikeri, Kushalnagar, and Hunsur. It ends at Mysuru spanning a total length of 220 kilometres (140 mi).

In 1907, the Southern Railway connected Mangaluru with Calicut (Kozhikode) along the coastline. This railway line helped connect the district with other places of the Madras Presidency during the colonial rule. The Konkan Railway (1998) connects Dakshina Kannada with Maharashtra, Goa, Gujarat, Delhi, Rajasthan, and Kerala by train. There are direct trains from Mangaluru to Mumbai, Thane, Chennai, Goa and Trivandrum. Train services operate daily to Bengaluru via Hassan and Kukke Subramanya after the conversion from metre gauge to broad gauge track.

Dakshina Kannada district has a seaport at Panambur named New Mangalore Port. This seaport handles cargo, timber, petroleum, and coffee exports. It is one of the major seaports of India.

The district is connected by air through the Mangalore International Airport at Bajpe. Airlines such as Jet Airways (now defunct), Air India, and SpiceJet offer daily flights to national and international destinations.

CULTURE AND EDUCATION

Even today, most people of the district follow traditions, customs, and rituals. The district has many temples, which are ancient and have deep spiritualism attached to them. The people of Dakshina Kannada worship the serpent god (Subramanya). According to legend, the district was reclaimed by Parashurama from the sea. Nagaradhane or Snake

worship is practiced according to the popular belief of the Naga Devatha. Rituals such as Bhuta Kola are performed to satisfy the spirits. Kambla, a form of buffalo race, is organized in 16 sites across the district. Cock fight (Korida Katta in Tulu) is another pastime of the rural agrarian people.

Yakshagana is the popular folk art of this district. It is a night-long dance and drama performance practiced in Tulu Nadu with great fanfare. Pilivesha (Tiger dance) is a unique form of folk dance in the region fascinating the young and the old alike, which is performed during Dasara and Krishna Janmashtami. Karadi Vesha (Bear Dance) is another popular dance performed during Dasara. The people of Dakshina Kannada also celebrate traditional Hindu festivals like Yugadi (Ugadi), Krishna Janmashtami, Ganesha Chaturthi, Navaratri (Dasara), Deepavali, Aati, Hunime, etc.

In Dakshina Kannada, primary and secondary education has reached every section of the society. A host of educational institutes offering courses in Medicine, Engineering, Pharmacy, Nursing, Hotel and Catering, Law and Management are located in this district. Dakshina Kannada is home to the National Institute of Technology Karnataka (NITK) Surathkal, one of India's top engineering colleges. The College of Fisheries is located at Yekkur near Kankanady. Mangalore University is a public university in Konaje near Mangaluru. It has jurisdiction over the districts of Dakshina Kannada, Udupi, and Kodagu. The district is

home to research institutes such as the Directorate of Cashew Research at Puttur. The Central Plantation Crops Research Institute is situated at Vitla in Bantwal taluk.

The various engineering colleges in the district include St. Joseph Engineering College, KVG College of Engineering, Mangalore Institute of Technology & Engineering, Canara Engineering College, P.A. College of Engineering, Srinivas Institute of Technology, Srinivas School of Engineering, Vivekananda College of Engineering and Technology, Shree Devi Institute of Technology, Alvas Institute of Engineering and Technology, Karavali Institute of Technology, Sahyadri College of Engineering and Management, M.V. Shetty Institute of Technology, SDM Institute of Technology, Bearys Institute of Technology, and Prasanna College of Engineering and Technology.

The various medical colleges in the district include A. J. Institute of Medical Science, Father Muller's Medical College, K.S. Hegde Medical Academy, Kasturba Medical College, Srinivas Institute of Medical Sciences and Research Centre, Yenepoya Medical College and Research Institute, and KVG Medical College. Manipal College of Dental Sciences Mangalore, A.B. Shetty Memorial Institute of Dental Sciences, A.J. Institute of Dental Sciences, Yenepoya Dental College and Research Institute, and Srinivas Institute of Dental Sciences are some of the dental colleges.

CUISINE

Some of the well-known dishes in the Dakshina Kannada and Udupi district include Kori Rotti (dry rice flakes dipped in chicken gravy), Bangude Pulimunchi (spicy sour silver-grey mackerels) with rice, fish fries of all available fish in the district, Beeja-Manoli Upkari, Neerdosa, Boothai Gasi, Kadubu, Malpuri, and Patrode. In Coastal Karnataka, the Mangalorean Fish Curry is a popular dish. The Konkani community's specialities include Daalithoy, Bibbe-upkari (cashew based), Val val, Avnasambesam, Kadgichakko, Paagilapodi, and Chane gashi. Mangalore bajji, also known as Golibaje, is a popular snack made from maida, curd, rice flour, chopped onion, coriander leaves, coconut, jeera, green chillies, and salt. Vegetarian cuisine in Mangaluru, popularly known as Udupi cuisine, is known and liked throughout the state and the coastal region. Being a coastal district, fish forms the staple diet of most people. Mangalorean Catholics' Sanna-Dukra Maas ("Sanna" means Idli fluffed with toddy or yeast and "Dukra Maas" means Pork), Pork Bafat, and Sorpotel, and the Mutton Biryani of Muslims are well-known. Accompaniments such as happala, sandige, are unique to Mangaluru.

CONCLUSION

Scanning through, we can come to the conclusion Karnataka has a rich heritage and Dakshina Kannada and Udupi districts of Coastal Karnataka houses many banks and is rich in educational institutions. Also there are known companies like MRPL, MCF and the like. The culture is rich and the cuisine. The climate is humid and is moderate with no extremities. Urban areas are more populated than rural areas. There are varieties of soil and it is rich in forests.

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CHAPTER V

SOCIO-ECONOMIC CONDITIONS OF WOMEN LABOUR

- **INTRODUCTION**
- **PROFILE OF THE SAMPLE RESPONDENTS**
- **SOCIAL BACKGROUND AND ECONOMIC
CONDITIONS OF THE SAMPLE RESPONDENTS**
- **CONCLUSION**

INTRODUCTION

The present study is an attempt to study the economic conditions of the women labour in selected industries of Beedi, Cashew and fisheries in Coastal Karnataka. Udupi and Dakshina Kannada are the districts selected for the study to analyze women labour. A total 320 sample respondents were selected from two places in Dakshina Kannada district and from two in Udupi district through simple random sampling method to ensure representation from the selected places. While selecting the sample, social, cultural, political, economical, and geographical variations were given due consideration.

This study is to know the socio-economic conditions in the study area, and the working conditions of the women labourers/workers in industries like fisheries, beedi, and cashew.

PROFILE OF THE SAMPLE RESPONDENTS

Women labour study has been undertaken in Udupi and Dakshina Kannada districts of Coastal Karnataka. For this purpose, primary data has been collected from Mangalore and Puttur from Dakshina Kannada district and Udupi and Kapu from Udupi district. In Udupi district, the number of respondents in beedi rolling is 21, Cashew labour is 45, and fishing industries is 79. Total 145 women labourers were selected at random. In Dakshina Kannada region, 175 women labourers from each

industry were selected, 49 from Beedi Industries, 67 from Cashew industries, and 59 from Fishing industries.

Table 5.1 Number of Sample Respondents in the three sectors of Beedi, Cashew and Fisheries industries

Occupation	Dakshina Kannada District		Udupi District		Total
	Mangalore	Puttur	Udupi	Kapu	
Beedi Rolling	27 (13.20)	22 (28.94)	14 (17.5)	7 (10.76)	70 (21.8)
Fisheries	41 (14.4)	18 (23.68)	46 (57.05)	33 (50.76)	138 (43.1)
Cashew Workers	31 (31.31)	36 (47.36)	20 (25)	25 (38.46)	112 (35)
Total	99 (30.93)	76 (23.75)	80 (25)	65 (20.31)	320 (100.00)

Source:Primary data collected from field survey

Note: Figure in brackets represent percentage

According to Table 5.1, majority of 138 respondents in the study area are dependent on fisheries. Around 112 respondents are engaged in cashew industries and 70 are involved in beedi industries.

The general profile of the respondents was determined in terms of age, marital status, gender, education level, employment, income, assets, profit, and so on.

Age

Age is an important indicator of labour productivity. The sample respondents were classified into five groups i.e. 18 to 30 years, 31 to 40 years, 41 to 50 years, 51 to 60 years and 60 years and above. This classification helps us to know that whether the younger generation is interested in these three sectors or has it remained as a tradition that is to say whether it has remained an age old activity. The ages of the respondents of the three sectors are given in table 5.1

Table 5.2: Age wise classification of the Sample Respondents in Beedi, Cashew and Fisheries

Age group (inyears)	Dakshina Kannada District		Udupi District		Total
	Mangalore	Puttur	Udupi	Kapu	
18-30	16 (16.16)	21 (27.63)	13 (16.25)	10 (15.38)	60 (18.75)
31-40	27 (27.27)	19 (25.00)	12 (15.00)	25 (38.46)	83 (25.93)
41-50	32 (32.32)	20 (26.31)	29 (36.20)	16 (24.61)	97 (30.31)
51-60	15 (15.15)	11 (14.47)	18 (22.50)	10 (15.38)	54 (16.87)
Above 60	9 (9.09)	5 (6.57)	8 (10.00)	4 (6.15)	26 (8.12)
Total	99 (30.93)	76 (23.75)	80 (25.00)	65 (20.31)	320 (100.00)

Source:Primary data collected from field survey

Note: Figure in brackets represent percentage

In Table 5.2, it is evident that among the total 320 female sample respondents from Udupi and D.K. districts, 97 were in the age group of 41-50 years, 83 in the age group of 31-40 years, 60 were in the age group of 18-30 years, 54 were in the age group of 51-60 years, and 26 respondents were more than 60 years old. The maximum respondents in these three sectors are of 41-50 age group. Above 60 years are the least engaged in these sectors.

Marital Status

Marital status is a status of a person's marriage, whether the person is married, single or divorced. Table 5.3 shows the marital status of the sample respondents. Among 320 sample respondents, majority 220 respondents are married, 60 respondents are unmarried, 31 sample respondents are widowed women and only 9 respondents were divorced/separated in the study area. This comes to a conclusion that the maximum respondents are married followed by unmarried, widow and divorced.

Table 5.3: Marital Status of the Respondents of Beedi, Cashew and Fisheries

Marital status	Dakshina Kannada District		Udupi District		Total
	Mangalore	Puttur	Udupi	Kapu	
Married	66 (66.66)	47 (61.84)	62 (77.5)	45 (69.23)	220 (68.75)

Unmarried	14 (14.14)	19 (25)	12 (15)	15 (23.07)	60 (18.75)
Widow	13 (13.13)	8 (10.52)	6 (7.5)	4 (6.15)	31 (9.68)
Divorced/Separated	6 (6.06)	2 (2.63)	-	1 (1.53)	9 (2.81)
Total	99 (30.93)	76 (23.75)	80 (25.0)	65 (20.31)	320 (100.00)

Source: Primary data collected from field survey

Note: Figure in brackets represent percentage

Educational Level

Education refers to formal education through schools, colleges and educational institutions which confer certificates and degrees to its students. Educational level shows the literacy rate of the population in the study area.

Table 5.4 shows the educational qualification of the respondents in the study area. Majority of 117 respondents are high school educated, 80 respondents have secondary school education, 48 respondents have completed their PU education, 43 respondents have primary education, and 32 respondents have completed degree.

With the above explanation, it can be observed that in Udupi and D.K. districts, the maximum respondents have only completed their high school and only 32 respondents are graduates. The fact that the graduates work in these sectors are for the reason of unemployment being very high.

Table 5.4: Literacy Status and Educational Level of the Respondents of Beedi, Cashew and Fisheries

Educational Qualification	Dakshina Kannada District		Udupi District		Total
	Mangalore	Puttur	Udupi	Kapu	
Primary Education	13 (13.13)	9 (11.84)	6 (7.5)	15 (23.07)	43 (13.43)
Secondary Education	22 (22.22)	17 (22.36)	30 (37.50)	11 (16.92)	80 (25.00)
High School	36 (36.36)	23 (30.26)	26 (32.50)	32 (49.23)	117 (36.56)
PUC	18 (18.18)	15 (19.73)	10 (12.5)	5 (7.69)	48 (15.00)
Degree	10 (10.10)	12 (15.78)	8 (10.00)	2 (3.07)	32 (10.00)
Illiterate	-	-	-	-	-
Total	99 (30.93)	76 (23.75)	80 (25.00)	65 (20.31)	320 (100.00)

Source: Primary data collected from field survey

Note: Figure in brackets represent percentage

Nature of Work

Nature of work indicates the type of work involved in a series of work. For eg. While manufacturing a car, the work involves many things such as planning of the engineering, implementing the idea into hardware which includes moulding the car into shape, fitting it with the necessary accessories and then painting at the final stage and testing. All this work includes different nature in the same work like building the hardware, painting, and testing.

Table 5.5 shows the nature of work of the respondents in the study area. Among the 320 respondents, 75 are engaged in fish marketing; 38 in fish cleaning and cutting (Fish industry); 48 in beedi rolling at home; 34 in packing and labelling of beedies, etc, 47 in cashew cutting, 53 in cashew peeling and 25 in cashew grading.

Thus it can be understood that majority of the respondent women are engaged in fisheries activities like marketing of fish, fish cleaning, and fish cutting work followed by cashew and beedi.

Table 5.5: Nature of Work of the Respondents of Beedi, Cashew and Fisheries

Occupation	Dakshina Kannada District		Udupi District		Total
	Mangalore	Puttur	Udupi	Kapu	
Working in fish industry, Fish Cleaning, and cutting	10 (10.10)	7 (9.21)	11 (13.75)	10 (15.38)	38 (11.87)
Fish Marketing	21 (21.21)	10 (13.15)	23 (28.7)	21 (32.30)	75 (23.43)
Beedi rolling at Home	18 (18.18)	15 (19.73)	10 (12.5)	5 (7.69)	48 (15)
Packing and labelling the Beedi in industry	14 (14.14)	9 (11.84)	8 (10)	3 (4.61)	34 (10.62)
Cashew Cutting workers	13 (13.13)	15 (19.73)	10 (12.5)	9 (13.84)	47 (14.68)
Cashew Peeling workers	15 (15.15)	13 (17.10)	13 (16.25)	12 (18.46)	53 (16.56)
Cashew Grading workers	8 (8.08)	7 (9.21)	5 (6.25)	5 (7.69)	25 (7.81)
Total	99 (30.93)	76 (23.75)	80 (25)	65 (20.31)	320 (100.00)

Source:Primary data collected from field survey

Note: Figure in brackets represent percentage

Nature of Housing

Nature of house indicates the type of house, the respondents live in i.e. Own house, rented house, Government sponsored house.

Table 5.6 shows the type of house of the respondents. Among the total respondents, majority 192 have their own house, 94 stay in houses sponsored by the Government, and 34 respondents stay in rented houses. The table highlights the fact that majority of them have their own houses followed by govt sponsored houses and rented houses.

Table 5.6: Type of House of the Respondents in Beedi, Cashew and fisheries.

Type of House	Dakshina Kannada District		Udupi District		Total
	Mangalore	Puttur	Udupi	Kapu	
Own House	55 (55.55)	48 (63.15)	53 (66.25)	36 (55.38)	192 (60)
Rented House	7 (7.07)	5 (6.57)	12 (15)	10 (15.38)	34 (10.62)
Govt. sponsored House	37 (37.37)	23 (30.26)	15 (18.75)	19 (29.23)	94 (29.37)
Total	99 (30.93)	76 (23.75)	80 (25)	65 (20.31)	320 (100.00)

Source: Primary data collected from field survey

Note: Figure in brackets represent percentage

SOCIAL BACKGROUND AND ECONOMIC CONDITIONS OF THE SAMPLE RESPONDENTS

The social background and economic conditions can be in short called the socio-economic background. Socio-economic background relates to a combination of an individual's income, occupation and social background. Here the caste of the respondents is taken into consideration which reflects their background. Their type of ration card is also taken into consideration which reflects their economic conditions and also their holding of bank accounts is considered which also gives an insight into their economic background.

Caste Composition

Caste is the each of the hereditary classes of the Hindu society distinguished by related degrees of ritual purity and the social status classified by their old professions according to their abilities.

Table 5.7 shows the caste composition of the sample respondents in the study area. Majority of 146 sample respondents in the study area belong to Other Backward Community, 52 respondents are from tribal (STs) families, 97 respondents belong to SC category. Rest 25 respondents belong to General category. Here it can be observed that maximum respondents fall in the OBC category and least fall in the general category.

Table 5.7: Caste Composition of the Respondents of Beedi, Cashew and Fisheries industries in the Study Area

Caste of the sample respondents	Dakshina Kannada District		Udupi District		Total
	Mangalore	Puttur	Udupi	Kapu	
OBC	49 (49.49)	35 (46.05)	37 (46.25)	25 (38.46)	146 (45.60)
ST	18 (18.18)	15 (19.73)	12 (15)	7 (10.76)	52 (16.25)
SC	25 (25.25)	23 (30.26)	21 (26.25)	28 (43.03)	97 (30.31)
General	7 (7.07)	3 (3.94)	10 (12.5)	5 (7.69)	25 (7.81)
Total	99 (30.93)	76 (23.75)	80 (25.00)	65 (20.31)	320 (100.00)

Source: Primary data collected from field survey

Note: Figure in brackets represent percentage

Ration Card

Ration card is an official document entitling the holder to rations like food, cooking oil, kerosene and other such basic necessities of life which are given at subsidised rates by the government. Ration card is important for proof of identity of the family members and to get government benefits. Ration card holders are eligible to subsidized food grains through fair price shops under public distribution systems (PDS). There are 3 types of ration cards: Above poverty line (APL), Below poverty line (BPL), and Anthyodaya ration cards; they have been catergorized and considered as very poor families.

Table 5.8: Type of Ration Card held by the Respondents of Beedi, Cashew and Fisheries.

Type of Ration Card	Dakshina Kannada District		Udupi District		Total
	Mangalore	Puttur	Udupi	Kapu	
Anthyodaya	26 (26.26)	37 (48.68)	16 (20)	20 (30.76)	99 (30.93)
BPL	45 (45.45)	33 (43.42)	39 (48.75)	29 (44.61)	146 (45.62)
APL	28 (28.28)	6 (7.89)	25 (31.25)	16 (24.61)	75 (23.43)
Total	99 (30.93)	76 (23.75)	80 (25)	65 (20.31)	320 (100.00)

Source: Primary data collected from field survey

Note: Figure in brackets represent percentage

Table 5.8 shows the respondents as having Anthyodaya ration card, BPL (Below Poverty Line) ration card, and APL (Above Poverty Line) ration cards. Among the 320 sample respondents, majority 146 have BPL ration cards, 99 have Anthyodaya ration cards as these families are in very poor economic conditions, and 75 have APL ration card and are middle class families. So one can observe that the maximum respondents are the BPL card holders.

Bank Account

In banking terminology, the term ‘bank account’ refers to the financial arrangement between a depositor and a bank. Bank accounts are usually of various types of deposit like FD (Fixed Deposit account), SB account (Savings Bank Account), Current account (usually held by a firm and business houses) and loan accounts. In the present study, most of the women workers have saving bank accounts in the study area.

Table 5.9: Bank Account of the Respondents of Beedi, Cashew and Fisheries

Bank name	Dakshina Kannada District		Udupi District		Total
	Mangalore	Puttur	Udupi	Kapu	
SBI	32 (32.32)	15 (19.73)	36 (45)	28 (43.07)	111 (34.68)
Vijaya Bank	10 (10.10)	18 (23.68)	14 (17.5)	6 (9.23)	48 (15)
Canara Bank	6 (6.06)	11 (14.47)	10 (12.5)	8 (12.30)	35 (10.93)
Karnataka Bank	20 (20.20)	15 (19.73)	5 (6.25)	14 (21.50)	54 (16.87)
SCDCC	31 (31.31)	17 (22.36)	15 (18.75)	9 (13.84)	72 (22.50)
Total	99 (30.93)	76 (23.75)	80 (25)	65 (20.31)	320 (100.00)

Source: Primary data collected from field survey

Table 5.9 shows the Savings Bank accounts held by the respondents in different banks in the study area. Among the total respondents, 111 hold an account in SBI (State Bank of India), 72 in SCDCC Bank, 48 in Karnataka Bank and 35 in Canara Bank. The table shows that all of them hold an account in some or the other banks. The maximum of them have an account in SBI bank followed by SCDCC, Karnataka Bank, Vijaya Bank and Canara Bank.

CONCLUSION

This chapter started with introduction to the women labourers of the three industries viz Beedi, Cashew and Fisheries and went on to discuss about the primary data collected from the study area of the Udupi and Dakshina Kannada districts of Coastal Karnataka, the age group in the three sectors, their marital status, caste, their literacy level, their holding of bank accounts and ration cards, their nature of work and the types of housing they live in.

CHAPTER VI

ECONOMIC ANALYSIS OF WOMEN LABOUR

- **INTRODUCTION**
- **WORK AND NATURE OF WORK**
- **INCOME PATTERN**
- **EXPENDITURE PATTERN**
- **PROBLEMS AT WORKPLACE**
- **PROBLEMS FACED BY WOMEN LABOURERS**
- **CONCLUSION**

INTRODUCTION

Throughout the world, men are more likely to participate in labour markets than women. Nevertheless, this difference in gender in participation rates have been slimming substantially in recent decades.

Women also nowadays are engaged in labour like men. Though women work, they are regarded as economically inactive. But the fact is also that the participation of females/women in labour tends to maintain equality with men. The income pattern of the women respondents and their work phase are compared between the industries like fishing, beedi and cashew. It also analyses the condition in which they work, the job hours and the income they earn out of these.

WORK AND NATURE OF WORK

The wage payment considering gender, agricultural status, employment, female work force and rights for women, all give an idea about the work and nature of work of women labourers. In India, which is a developing country, the nature of women's participation in economic activities involves a substantial and significant amount of unpaid labour. Here, the nature of work of women labourers of the three industries viz, beedi, cashew and fisheries from the two districts of coastal Karnataka i.e. Udupi and D.K. districts are taken into account.

Agriculture Status of the Labourers

Agriculture is the main occupation in regions of the Karnataka state and also the most essential attribute of the economy of Karnataka. The climate and soil greatly influence the agricultural activities. Majority of the labourers depend on agriculture in D.K. and Udupi districts of coastal Karnataka. But unfertile and barren agricultural land becomes a burden to the labourers from the marginalised communities.

Table 6.1: Classification of Beedi, Cashew and Fisheries Respondents according to Agriculture Landholding

Agricultural landholdings of Beedi, Cashew and Fisheries labourers.	Dakshina Kannada District		Udupi District		Total
	Mangalore	Puttur	Udupi	Kapu	
Landless labourers	53 (53.53)	25 (32.80)	47 (58.75)	34 (52.30)	159 (49.68)
Labourers owning marginal amount of land (0-1 Hectares)	27 (27.27)	10 (13.15)	19 (23.75)	11 (16.92)	67 (20.93)
Labourers owning small amount of land (1- 2 Hectares)	12 (12.12)	29 (38.15)	14 (17.5)	18 (27.69)	73 (22.81)
Labourers owning Medium amount of land (2 – 5 Hectares)	7 (7.7)	12 (15.78)	-	2 (3.07)	21 (6.56)
Large farmers (5 – 10 Hectares)	-	-	-	-	-
Total	99 (30.93)	76 (23.75)	80 (25)	65 (20.31)	320 (100.00)

Source: Primary data collected from field survey

Note : Figure in bracket represent percentage

Table 6.1 show the classification of the respondents of the two districts of the D.K. and Udupi according to their agricultural landholdings. Among the total 159 respondents, 53 and 25 respondents from Mangalore and Puttur of D.K. district are landless and 47 and 34 from Udupi and Kapu from Udupi district are landless. Out of the 67 respondents, 27 respondents from Mangalore and 10 respondents from Puttur of D.K. district are the labourers holding a marginal amount of land, not exceeding 1 hectare. 19 and 11 respondents from Udupi district are the labourers holding a marginal amount of land, not exceeding 1 hectare. Out of the 73 respondents, 12, 29, 14, and 18 respondents respectively from Mangalore, Puttur, Udupi and Kapu of D.K. and Udupi districts of coastal Karnataka are the respondents who own a small amount of land not exceeding 2 hectares. The respondents who own a medium amount of land i.e 2 to 5 hectares total to 21, the bifurcation being 7 and 12 from Mangalore and Puttur of D.K. district and 2 from Kapu of Udupi district of coastal Karnataka. None are there in this category found in the Udupi city of Udupi district of coastal Karnataka. No labourers are found having land more than 5 hectares.

Wage Payment of Labourers

Wage payment helps the workers to access their day-to-day needs. Wages are paid in different ways. In some cases, wages are paid daily, some are paid for a week, still some get paid for a fortnight. In still other

cases, the remuneration given is a monthly salary. There is still another category of payment in which the payment is one for the amount of work done, not taking the time into consideration. The poor people find it difficult to cope with the day to day needs if they get paid for a month which is a long wait considering their unhealthy financial conditions and hence most of the labourers are daily or weekly earners.

Table 6.2: Mode of Wage Payment of Respondents

Mode of payment	Dhakshina Kannada District		Udupi District		Total
	Mangalore	Puttur	Udupi	Kapu	
Daily	59 (59.59)	44 (57.89)	50 (62.5)	32 (49.23)	185 (57.81)
Weekly	34 (34.34)	28 (36.84)	26 (32.5)	30 (46.15)	118 (36.87)
Fortnightly	-	-	-	-	-
Monthly	6 (6.06)	4 (5.26)	4 (5)	3 (4.61)	17 (5.31)
Total	99 (30.93)	76 (23.75)	80 (25)	65 (20.31)	320 (100.00)

Source:Primary data collected from field survey

Table 6.2 shows the mode of payment to the respondents get in the study area of D.K. and Udupi districts of coastal Karnatka. Among the total 320 sample respondents, majority of 185 respondents get the

remuneration as daily wages i.e. 59.59 and 57.89 per cent respectively from Mangalore and Puttur of D.K. district and 62.5 and 49.23 per cent respectively from Udupi and Kapu of Udupi district. 34.34 and 36.84 percent of workers from Mangalore and Puttur respectively of D.K. district get their remuneration as weekly wages. 32.5 and 46.15 respondents from Udupi and Kapu of Udupi district get paid weekly. 6.06 and 5.26 per cent of respondents from Mangalore and Puttur respectively of D.K. district and 5 and 4.61 per cent of respondents from Udupi and Kapu of Udupi district get a monthly salary. There is no fortnight payment among the study done. The table reveals the fact that the monthly salary payment mode is the least compared to the other modes of payment.

Seasonal Variation in employment and activities

Seasonal variation in employments means the variation of the labourers getting engaged in employment depending on all the three Indian seasons viz rainy, winter and summer seasons. The variation in the fishing industries is the maximum compared to the other two sectors of beedi and cashew. This is due to the fact that there are restrictions of the government in the rainy season over venturing into the sea.

Table 6.3: Seasonal Variation of the Beedi Workers

Seasonal variation	D.K.	Udupi	Total
Rainy season	20 (40.81)	9 (42.8)	29 (41.00)
Winter season	18 (36.73)	9 (42.80)	27 (38.00)
Summer season	11 (22.44)	3 (14.28)	14 (20.00)
Total	49.00 (70.00)	21.00 (30.00)	70.00 (100.00)

Source: *Primary data collected from field survey*

Note: *Figure in brackets represent percentage*

Table 6.3 shows the seasonal variation of the respondents at work in the study area of D.K and Udupi districts. In Rainy season, only 40.81 and 42.8 percent of labourers from D.k and Udupi districts respectively of coastal Karnataka are active in the beedi rolling activities. In the winter season, only 36.73 percent from D.K district and 42.80 percent of workers from Udupi districts in the beedi industry are employed. The summer season sees 22.44 percent of labourers from D.K district and 14.28 percent of labourers in Udupi district getting engaged in the beedi rolling work. The table reflects the fact that ,employment is the lowest in the summer season, the next lowest being the winter season followed by the rainy season.

Table 6.4: Seasonal Variation of the Cashew Workers

Seasonal variation	D.K.	Udupi	Total
Rainy season	21 (31.34)	15 (33.33)	36 (32.14)
Winter season	30 (44.77)	20 (44.44)	50 (44.64)
Summer season	16 (23.88)	10 (22.22)	26 (23.21)
Total	67 (59.82)	45 (40.17)	112 (100.00)

Source: *Primary data collected from field survey*

Note: *Figure in brackets represent percentage*

Table 6.4 puts light on the seasonal variations in employment of the cashew workers. In the rainy season, 31.34 per cent respondents from D.K. district and 33.33 per cent from Udupi district of coastal Karnataka only are employed. Winter season sees an employment percentage of 44.77 from D.K. district and 44.44 per cent from Udupi district. During the summer season, only 23.88 and 22.22 per cent of labourers from D.K. and Udupi district of coastal Karnataka are employed. The table illustrates that winter is the season with the highest employment followed by rainy and summer seasons.

Table 6.5: Seasonal Variation of the Fisheries' Workers

Seasonal variation	D.K.	Udupi	Total
Rainy season	10 (16.94)	8 (10.12)	18 (13.04)
Winter season	23 (38.98)	38 (48.10)	61 (44.20)
Summer Season	26 (44.06)	33 (41.77)	59 (42.75)
Total	59 (42.75)	79 (57.24)	138 (100.00)

Source: *Primary data collected from field survey*

Note: *Figure in brackets represent percentage*

Table 6.5 shows the seasonal variations in the employment of the fisheries workers. 16.94 per cent workers from D.K. district and 10.2 workers from Udupi district are seen active in the rainy season. 38.98 per cent respondents from D.K. district and 48.10 per cent respondents from Udupi district get employed in the winter season. And 44.06 and 41.77 per cent workers from D.K. district and Udupi district respectively are seen employed in the summer season. The table shows that the summer season has the highest employment rate followed by winter and rainy season. The fact is highlighted in the table that the employment rate in rainy season is absolutely low and not relatively.

Working Hours of the Labourers

The ministry of Labour and Employment unit of the Government of India has arrived at a law which is known as “Factories Act 1948” and in which it specifies the fact that, there shouldn’t be labourers under 18 years of age employed in any kind of job. Every working field has a set time of working hours.

Table 6.6: Working Hours of the Respondents of Beedi, Cashew and Fisheries in D.K. and Udupi districts.

Working Hours in a day	D.K. district			Udupi district			Total
	Beedi	Cashew	Fisheries	Beedi	Cashew	Fisheries	
8 hours	12 (24.48)	45 (67.16)	20 (33.89)	6 (28.57)	28 (62.22)	20 (25.31)	131 (40.93)
9 hours	7 (14.28)	15 (22.38)	9 (15.25)	4 (19.04)	9 (20)	13 (16.45)	57 (17.81)
6 hours	6 (12.24)	7 (10.44)	30 (50.84)	6 (28.57)	8 (17.77)	46 (58.22)	103 (32.18)
11 hours	24 (48.97)	-	-	5 (23.80)	-	-	29 (9.06)
Total	49 (15.31)	67 (20.93)	59 (18.43)	21 (6.56)	45 (14.06)	79 (24.68)	320 (100)

Source: Primary data collected from field survey

Note: Figure in brackets represent percentage

Table 6.6 highlights the working hours of the respondents in the three sectors of beedi, cashew and fisheries industries in D.K. and Udupi district. Out of the 320 respondents, 131 sample respondents from the beedi, cashew and fisheries industries of D.K. and Udupi districts work for 8 hours which amounts to a percentage of 40.93. 57 out of 320 respondents from all three sectors of D.K and Udupi districts work for 9 hours and the percentage amounts to 17.81. 103 out of the 320 respondents in the three mentioned sectors of both the districts work for 6 hours and the percentage amounts to 32.18. The respondents falling under the 11 hours category are only from the beedi industries from both the districts and they are 29 out of 320 amounting to a percentage of 9.06. There are no respondents from the other two sectors from both the districts that fall under this category. The fact that the beedi workers fall under the 11 hours category is for the reason that they work at home.

Work experience of the labourers

Work Experience is the experience gained from the years of work in any field. Work Experience also plays a great role in bringing the working world to life and it also helps to learn new skills. More the experience, more the remuneration earned. There is always a better chance for more experienced workers to get a decent pay. Though more experienced people have the advantage of getting a higher pay for the

experience gained, there is no legal obligations for the company to pay them.

Table 6.7: Work Experience of the Respondents

Work experience in years	D.K. district			Udupi district			Total
	Beedi	Cashew	Fisheries	Beedi	Cashew	Fisheries	
1-10	7 (14.28)	11 (16.41)	9 (15.25)	2 (9.52)	8 (17.77)	13 (16.45)	50 (15.62)
10-20	10 (20.40)	12 (17.91)	13 (22.03)	7 (33.33)	15 (33.33)	20 (25.31)	77 (24.06)
20-30	19 (38.77)	29 (43.28)	15 (25.42)	4 (19.04)	10 (22.22)	28 (35.44)	105 (32.81)
30-40	13 (26.53)	15 (22.38)	22 (37.28)	8 (38.09)	12 (26.66)	18 (22.78)	88 (27.25)
Total	49 (15.31)	67 (20.93)	59 (18.43)	21 (6.56)	45 (14.06)	79 (24.68)	320 (100)

Source: Primary data collected from field survey

Note: Figure in brackets represent percentage

Table 6.7 explains the work experience of the beedi, cashew and fisheries labourers in both D.K. and Udupi district of coastal Karnataka. Out of the 320 labourers from D.K. and Udupi districts, 50 labourers fall under an experience of 1 to 10 years which amounts to 15.62 per cent. 77 out of the 320 have 10 to 20 years of work experience and the percentage amounts to 24.06. 105 out of 320 fall under 20 to 30 years of experience and that amounts to 32.81 per cent. 88 from 320 have 30 to 40 years of experience

and that amounts to 27.25 per cent. So we can see that in table 6.6, the maximum number of labourers fall under 20 to 30 years of work experience.

Work Satisfaction of the Labourers

Work satisfaction of takes into account not only the remuneration but also the emotion of the workers; wether they are satisfised with the job location, whether they like the job, the pressure and all these. Some people may not like a job though they earn a good return for the reson of pressure and not liking the job ans also being far away from their loved ones.

Table 6.8: Respondents'Satisfaction regarding Work

Satisfactory status	Dhakshina Kannada District		Udupi District		Total
	Mangalore	Puttur	Udupi	Kapu	
Satisfied	75 (75.75)	63 (82.89)	58 (72.50)	47 (72.30)	243 (75.93)
Dissatisfied	24 (24.24)	13 (17.10)	22 (27.50)	18 (27.69)	77 (24.6)
Total	99 (30.93)	76 (23.75)	80 (25)	65 (20.31)	320 (100.00)

Source:Primary data collected from field survey

Note: Figure in brackets represent percentage

Table 6.8 shows the respondent's work satisfaction from the three sectors of Beedi, Cashew, Fisheries of D.K. and Udupi districts which come under coastal Karnataka. Out of the 320 respondents in all, 243 respondentns i.e. 75.93 per cent are sastisfied with their work and 77 respondentns i.e. 24.6

per cent are not satisfied with their work. The table indicates that the respondents who are satisfied with their work outnumber the respondents who are dissatisfied with their work.

INCOME PATTERN

Income pattern means the distribution of income and here in this case of the study undertaken, income pattern shows how the income is distributed among the women labourers of the said three sectors of the study i.e beedi, cashew and fisheries of the D.K. and Udupi districts of coastal Karnataka and their annual income. In D.K. and Udupi districts, where the study of women labour was undertaken, women work in the said three sectors and a study is done on their income pattern. The change in income pattern of the respondents can be considered as a major influence on the changing socio-economic conditions of the respondents.

Table 6.9: Average Annual Income of the Respondents of D.K.

Sector	D.K.	Annual Income (in rupees)	Average (in rupees)
Beedi	49	3,08,308	6292
Fisheres	59	3,08,011	5220
Cashew	67	3,05,934	4566
Total	175	9,22,253	5270

Source:Primary data collected from field survey

Table 6.9 shows the annual income of the respondents of D.K. district of coastal Karnataka, who work in the three sectors of beedi, fisheries and cashew industries. Among the 175 rspondents of the D.K. district, 49

respondents who are engaged in beedi rolling activities of the beedi industry earn an average income of Rs. 6292. 59 respondents who work for fisheries have an average income of Rs. 5220 annually. 67 respondents who serve the cashew industry earn an average of Rs. 4566 annually. So the table reveals the fact that the beedi labourers are the ones that earn the highest annually compared to the other two sectors of fisheries and cashew.

Table 6.10: Average Annual Income of the Respondents of Udupi District

Sector	Udupi	Annual Income (in rupees)	Average (in rupees)
Beedi	21	1,22,305	5824
Fisheries	79	3,07,930	3897
Cashew	45	3,04,515	6766
Total	145	7,34,749	5067

Source: Primary data collected from field survey

Table 6.10 illustrates the average annual income of the Udupi district respondents. Among the 145 respondents in Udupi district, 21 respondents who work for the beedi industries earn an average income of Rs. 5824. 79 respondents who are in fisheries earn an annual income of Rs.3897 on an average. 45 respondents who are in cashew industry earn an average income of Rs.6766 annually. Thus the table returns the fact that the cashew respondents are the ones who earn the most compared to the workers of the other two sectors i.e. beedi and fisheries.

EXPENDITURE PATTERN

All households have expenses and holds true even for the women labourers of beedi, fishing and cashew industries of the two districts of DK and Udupi of coastal Karnataka that is taken into consideration in this study. Expenditure usually includes food and ration, clothing, education of children, as expenses of basic necessities and family celebrations, festivals and health as extra expenses. Rent also is considered in some cases where people don't have their own house.

Table 6.11: Annual Average Household Expenditure (in Rs.) of the Respondents in D.K.

Item	Beedi (49)	Fisheries (59)	Cashew (67)	Total (175)
Food	1000 (24.69)	750 (22.72)	800 (22.85)	2550 (23.50)
Children Education	500 (12.34)	400 (12.12)	300 (8.57)	1200 (11.05)
Clothes	300 (7.40)	300 (9.09)	400 (11.42)	1000 (9.21)
Healthcare	100 (24.69)	250 (7.57)	200 (5.71)	550 (5.06)
Family celebration	100 (24.69)	200 (6.06)	200 (5.71)	500 (4.60)
Festival	250 (6.17)	200 (6.06)	200 (5.71)	650 (5.99)
Capital goods	300 (7.40)	200 (6.06)	400 (11.42)	900 (8.29)
House 23 Rent	1500 (37.03)	1000 (30.30)	1000 (28.57)	3500 (32.25)
Total	4050 (37.32)	3300 (30.41)	3500 (32.25)	10850 (99.9)

Source: Primary data collected from field survey

Table 6.11 describes the annual average household expenditures of women workers in beedi, fisheries and cashew industries in DK district. Out of the total 175 respondents in DK district of coastal Karnataka, 49 respondents who are in beedi rolling spend 24.69 per cent on food, 12.34 per cent on children's education, 7.40 per cent on clothing, 24.69 per cent on health care, 6.17 per cent for festivals, 7.40 per cent on capital goods and 37.03 per cent on house rent if they don't have their own house. It also shows 59 and 67 respondents respectively from the fisheries and cashew industries out of the total 175, spend 22.72 and 22.85 per cent on food, 12.12 and 8.57 on children's education, 9.09 and 11.42 per cent on clothing, 7.57 per cent and 7.51 per cent on health care, 6.06 and 5.71 per cent on family celebrations, 6.06 and 5.71 per cent on festivals, 6.06 and 11.42 per cent on capital goods and 30.30 and 28.57 per cent on house rent in case of not owning a house. So we can see that table 6.11 reflects the fact that, in DK district, beedi workers top the expenditure ladder followed by fisheries and cashew workers.

Table 6.12: Annual Average Household Expenditure (in Rs.) of the Respondents of Udupi district

Item	Beedi (21)	Fisheries (75)	Cashew (45)	Total (145)
Food	850 (29.31)	500 (18.51)	1000 (24.39)	2350 (24.22)
Children Education	300 (10.34)	300 (11.11)	300 (7.31)	900 (9.27)
Clothes	200 (6.89)	200 (7.40)	400 (9.75)	800 (8.24)
Healthcare	100 (3.44)	250 (9.25)	200 (4.87)	550 (5.67)
Family celebration	-	100 (3.70)	100 (2.43)	200 (5.15)
Festival	200 (6.89)	200 (7.40)	100 (2.43)	500 (2.06)
Capital goods	250 (8.62)	150 (5.55)	500 (12.19)	900 (9.27)
Rent	1000 (34.48)	1000 (37.03)	1500 (36.58)	3500 (36.08)
Total	2900 (29.89)	2700 (27.83)	4100 (42.26)	9700 (99.98)

Source: Primary data collected

Note: *Figure in brackets represent percentage*

Table 6.12 show the annual average household expenditure of the Udupi district respondents of coastal Karnataka. Among the 145 sample respondents in Udupi district of coastal Karnataka, 21 respondents who are engaged in beedi rolling work spend 29.31 per cent on food, 10.34 per cent on children's education, 6.9 per cent on clothing, 3.44 per cent on health care, 6.89 per cent on festivals and 8.62 per cent on capital

goods. In case of not owning a house, percentage of 34.48 is spent on house rent. There is no expenditure on family celebrations since it is an extra expense and the income is low. Out of 145 respondents, 75 respondents who are in fisheries spend 18.51 per cent on food, 11.11 per cent on children's education, 7.40 per cent on clothing, 9.25 per cent on health care, 3.70 per cent on family celebrations, 7.40 per cent on festivals and 5.55 per cent on capital goods. 37.03 per cent is spent on house rent in case of they not owning a house. Out of 145 respondents, 45 who are engaged in cashew activities spend 24.39 per cent on food, 7.31 per cent on children's education, 9.75 per cent on clothing, 4.87 per cent on health care, 2.43 per cent on family celebrations, 2.43 per cent on festivals and 12.19 per cent on capital goods. 36.58 per cent maybe used on house rent in case of not owning a house by them. The table reflects the fact that maximum percentage is being spent on house rent by the Udupi district respondents i.e. 36.08 and minimum percentage is used on festivals by them i.e. 2.06.

PROBLEMS AT WORKPLACE

Qualitative information regarding the problems faced by the women labourers have been discussed and presented in this section. Health hazards, harassment by manager, overtime work, poor working conditions, no basic facilities, no medical facility, and no leave facilities are the main problems faced at the workplace by the workers in the study area.

Table 6.13 : Problem faced by Beedi labour at Work Site

Problems faced by the workers	D.K.	Udupi	Total
Harrassment by the proprietor / contractor	12 (24.48)	7 (33.33)	19 (27.14)
Health Hazards	18 (36.73)	8 (38.09)	26 (37.14)
Overtime work	5 (10.20)	2 (9.52)	7 (10.0)
Poor working conditions	5 (10.20)	5 (9.52)	7 (10.0)
No basic facilities	4 (8.16)	1 (4.76)	5 (7.14)
No first aid box	-	-	-
No medical facility	-	-	-
No leave facilities	5 (10.20)	1 (4.76)	6 (8.57)
Total	49 (70.0)	21 (30.0)	70 (100.0)

Source: *Primary data collected*

Note: *Figure in brackets represent percentage*

Table 6.13 gives an idea about the problems faced by the beedi labourers at the work site in the two districts of DK and Udupi of coastal Karnatka. A total of 27.14 per cent from DK and Udupi district complained about harassment by the contractor. Health hazards issue was raised by 36.73 per cent from DK district and 38.09 per cent from Udupi district. 10.20 per cent and 9.52 per cent workers from DK district and Udupi district respectively complained about overtime. The issue of poor working conditions was described by 10.20 per cent workers from Dk

didistrict and 9.52 workers from Udupi district. A total of 7.14 per cent from DK and Udupi district complained about lack of basic facilities. Lack of leave facilities were moaned by 10.20 per cent from DK district and by 4.76 per cent form Udupi district. The lack of first aid is irrelevant for the beedi workers. We can see that table 6.13 reveals the fact that the problems faced by the labourers in beedi industries at the work site of DK is more, compared to the labourers of Udupi district.

Table 6.14: Problems faced by Cashew labourers at Site

Problems faced by the workers	D.K	Udupi	Total
Harrassment by proprietor/contractor	11 (16.41)	7 (15.55)	18 (16.07)
Health Hazards	17 (25.37)	12 (26.66)	29 (25.89)
Overtime work	11 (16.41)	11 (24.44)	22 (19.64)
Poor working condition	9 (13.43)	4 (8.88)	13 (11.6)
No basic facilities	9 (13.43)	3 (6.66)	12 (10.71)
No first aid box	4 (5.77)	2 (4.44)	6 (5.35)
No medical facility	3 (4.47)	3 (6.66)	6 (5.35)
No leave facilities	3 (4.47)	3 (6.66)	6 (5.35)
Total	67 (59.82)	45 (40.17)	112 (99.99)

Table 6.14 throws light on the problems faced by the women cashew labourers at the site in the two districts of DK and Udupi of coastal Karnataka. 16.41 percent and 15.55 per cent workers from DK and Udupi districts respectively, mentioned about the harassment by the contractor. 25.89 per cent totally from DK and Udupi districts complained about health hazards. 16.41 from DK district and 24.44 per cent from Udupi district complained about overtime. 11.6 per cent totally from DK and Udupi districts mentioned their poor working conditions. Lack of first aid boxes were complained by a total of 5.35 per cent from DK and Udupi district. 4.47 from Dk district and 6.6 per cent from Udupi district complained about having no leave facilities. Lack of medical facilities were also complained about by a total of 5.35 per cent workers from Dk and Udupi districts combined. The table 6.14 highlights the fact that the percentage of problems faced by the cashew labourers at the work site in Dk district is more compared to Udupi district.

Table 6.15: Problem faced by Fisheries women at Work Site

Problems faced by the workers	D.K	Udupi	Total
Harrassment by proprietor / contractor	3 (5.08)	8 (10.02)	11 (7.97)
Health Hazards	13 (22.03)	20 (25.31)	33 (23.9)
Overtime work	6 (10.16)	6 (7.59)	12 (18.69)
Poor working condition	10 (16.94)	18 (15.18)	28 (20.28)

No basic facilities	7 (11.86)	12 (15.18)	19 (13.76)
No first aid box	8 (13.55)	8 (10.12)	16 (11.59)
No medical faiclity	6 (10.16)	4 (5.06)	10 (7.24)
No leave facilities	6 (10.16)	3 (3.79)	9 (6.52)
Total	59 (42.75)	79 (57.24)	138 (99.99)

Source: *Primary data collected*

Note: *Figure in brackets represent percentage*

Table 6.15 shows the problems of fisheries women in D.K. and Udupi districts of coastal Karnataka. 20.28 percent of fisheries women mentioned about poor working condition in the place where they sell fish as the place is full of dirty water and other garbage. 13.76 per cent workers opined lack of basic facilities like washroom and toilet and cleanliness, 23.9 per cent about health issues, 7.97 per cent complained about harassment by the contractors, 18.69 per cent complained about overtime, 11.59 per cent of non availability of first aid, and 6.52 per cent complained of not having leave facilities. A total of 7.24 per cent in both the districts of Dk and udupi also complained about lack of medical facilities. Table 6.15 opens the fact that the labourers in the fisheries industry in Udupi district face more problems compared to DK district at the work site, i.e the percentage of problem faced by fisheries

labourers in Udupi district is 57.24 percent compared to 42.75 per cent in DK district.

PROBLEMS FACED BY WOMEN LABOURERS

The problems faced by the women labourer's in all the three sectors of beedi, cashew and fishing industries of D.K. and Udupi districts of coastal Karnataka is bifurcated below.

Problems faced by fisheries women labourers

Women from fisheries household are involved in the fish process, small scale fishing and fish selling, but less often in commercial fishing using big vessels. The main problems faced by fisheries women are: -

- They continue to have less visible role. Although women are present in the fishing industry, in most instances their presence is neither socially acknowledged nor economically remunerated. This is primarily due to the fact that, the stages at which they become involved in the work are not the most visible, both within and outside the community.
- Women lack opportunities to hold managerial and decision making posts. This, it appears to be lack of confidence in their ability to hold such positions and sufficient time to do so. When the male workers move away from the fishing grounds for some other projects, the work load increases on women and also thereby limiting the benefits for women.

- Women also come across problems like being molested and harrassed by males at the time of the fish getting unloaded from the trawlers and they being ignored by the remunerator for non compliance.
- Gender-based division can lead to deterioration of the mental health of women which in turn the physical health. Hazards at the working environment, excessive work shows the lack of useful schemes by the government for their social security.
- Long-term exposure to cold leads to health problem in fisheries women like throat swelling, tingling, cough and the like.
- Constant explosure to sunlight leads to, headache, sunburn, skin infection, skin damage, burning sensation in eyes, etc.
- Seasonal availability of fish is a problem. Sometimes the fish get spoilt when there is a technical snag in storage and this poses problems for those who depend on it.
- High perishablity forces the fisher women to dispose off the fish within a short time. Non-availability of ice is another problem faced by the fisher women which cause the fish to perish sooner. Lack of transportation facility also affects the transfer of fish from one place to another.

Problems faced by cashew women labourers

Unhealthy sitting posture and working near the cashews and coming in contact with the cashew nut shell liquid make the workers in the cashew sectors vulnerable to many health issues. Unhealthy sitting posture also leads to problems like lower back pain, wrist pain, knee pain, and backpain. In some places where there are no facilities for the workers to sit on the table, women sit on the floor to perform two tasks of peeling and grading the cashews. This effects body parts such as muscle ligaments and spinal disc. Usually, the working hours are from 8 am to 5 or 6pm and without proper breaks. The wages for the cashew workers are paid on per kg basis for temporary workers and this gives rise to a situation where labourers are bound to work without a time schedule without rest which in turn affects the muscular movements and eyesight. The permanent cashew workers are paid a weekly wages though. Chronic respiratory illness is higher in workers engaged in this industry. Cashew shells involve breaking nuts by machines or cutter. This may release harmful chemicals in the atmosphere. While processing the heat treatment of the cashewnut, there is probability of asthma and breathing problem. Roasting cashewnut at temperatures of 185⁰C to 190⁰C will produce cashew nut shell liquid, which causes dermatological problems.

Problems faced by beedi women labourers

Harrassment by the proprietor and middleman contractor, lack of knowledge about satisfactory benefits, low wages, irregular payment of wages, health hazards, family problems, and poor housing facilities are the main problems faced by beedi workers.

Continuous orientation and concentration of the eyes towards the beedi rolling weakens the eyesight of the workers as they grow older.

Sitting posture effects the back muscles of the beedi rollers and most of the women suffer from back pain. Using tobacco for rolling beedis, poses the problem of damage of respiratory, cardial and reproduction system.

Problem faced by the labour at work site

- Health Hazards: In the 3 sectors, the major problems faced by the workers are asthama, skin diseases. In Dakshina Kannada district, 36.73 Beedi workers have health problems and 22.03 percent workers in fisheries have health problems. In Udupi district, 25.31 percent workers in fisheries, 26.66 percent workers in cashew and 38.9 percent workers in beedi industries have health problems.
- It is observed that in D.K district, cashew workers face more health problems compared with the other sectors that is 38.09 percent. Overall, it is found that in D.K district, women labourers

in Beedi sector face more problems compared with the other sectors, like harassment by proprietor/contractor.

The selected industries in the study area have become instrumental in generating supplementary income among the poor families in Dakshina Kannada and Udupi districts. Income generated from such industries help the poor to overcome poverty and thus bring cumulative effect on the process of income and employment generation.

CONCLUSION

The above chapter gives an idea of the DK and Udupi district's women labourer's environment and conditions of working, like medical facilities and their resultant health, nature of work whether paid or unpaid, their income pattern i.e how much they earn and their type of getting the remuneration , the household expenses ; basic and extra , the problems faced at work like the harassment at the workplace. An inference is arrived at that the figures sometimes stand at a stark contrast in both the districts of D.K and Udupi districts of Coastal Karnataka and at some point, remain balanced.

CHAPTER VII

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

- **INTRODUCTION**
- **MAJOR FINDINGS OF THE STUDY**
- **POLICY IMPLICATIONS**
- **DIRECTIONS FOR FUTURE RESESARCH**
- **CONCLUSION**

INTRODUCTION

This study was undertaken to know the conditions of women labourers in the two districts of coastal Karnataka which included Mangalore, Puttur, Udupi, and kapu in 3 the sectors namely Beedi, Cashew and Fisheries. From the study, it can be concluded that in developing countries like India, (of which study was undertaken) due to historical reasons and socio economic conditions, women usually from rural areas are backward which means that they are mostly engaged in less productive or unproductive activities. The study also shows that social hurdles, gender bias are the reasons which confined women to household activities. It also shows the researchers interest in evaluating the women's role in the economic development to measure the women labourers contribution to it.

The major population of India is rural and most of them live in villages which are spread throughout the country. The reason for poverty in rural India is that the income from agriculture are unpredictable, unlike the incomes in the urban areas which comes from industrial work, banks, government sectors and other business organisations. Agriculture is a broadest economic sectors though.

The study also shows the contribution of women to the economy and their fighting poverty through both paid and unpaid work at home and at the work place.

Poverty also affects households as a whole, and the burden of attempting to manage the household requirements under the condition of increasing scarcity falls disproportionately on women. Women participation in the labour force has been increasing over the years and it constitutes the vital segment of the labour force in India.

Deviating from their traditional domestic work, women are now empowered and are engaged in number of activities. They are parallel to men in employment and are more or less employed in every sectors of the economy. This is a result of education, entrepreneurial skills and managerial excellence. Though women labourers who work in industries are not much educated, they are preferred to men in certain areas of industries.

In short this study is a research on the nature, extent and performance of women labourers in the coastal areas of Karnataka and the problems faced by them at the household level or at the work place. It is also a study to know the awareness about their social security and security scheme for their welfare and finally to provide the policy implications for women's welfare in selected industries like beedi rolling, cashew and fishing industries.

The study also considers the income expenditure patterns, working conditions and the nature of employment. The primary data for the proposed study were collected from the household of sample women labourers considering the demographic particulars such as age education and composition of family and occupation as a first part and information about

this work and earnings and health issues as the second part which is a well designed and pre-tested schedule done through canvassing through personal visits and secondary data was collected from publishing sources like ILO reports, District statistical reports and census reports etc.

An intensive field survey was conducted for an in depth study of women labourers taking a total sample of 320 of them at random in the study area i.e. 21, 45, 79 respondents from beedi cashew and fishing respectively from Udupi district which totals 145 respondents and 49, 67, 59 respondents from beedi, cashew, fishing respectively from D.K. district which totals to 175 respondents.

This research attempted to evaluate the nature, extent and performance of women labourers working in industries in the coastal region of Karnataka, using economic variables.

MAJOR FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

Major findings of the study are summarized in macro and micro level. Macro level findings are on the basis of secondary data and micro level are on the basis of primary data analysis.

A. Macro Level Findings Women Labour in India and Karnataka

Women in India constitute 50 per cent of the total population out of which one third are working women and therefore the socio economic

development of this huge population assumes great importance in any developmental strategy.

In India, Madhya Pradesh accounts for the highest share of employment (17 per cent) followed by Tamil Nadu (14 per cent), Andhra Pradesh (14 per cent), West Bengal (11 per cent), Uttar Pradesh (10 per cent), Bihar (9 percent) and Karnataka (8 percent). These states account for 83 per cent share of total employment.

Beedi Industry and Women Labours

- Although beedi leaves are grown in Orissa and Andhra Pradesh to some extent, it is mainly concentrated in Gujarat, Karnataka and Maharashtra. The bulk of leaves that are used to wrap beedies, are grown in Madhya Pradesh, Orissa, Maharashtra, Andhra Pradesh and Bihar. Madhya Pradesh, Tamil Nadu, Andhra Pradesh, West Bengal, Uttar Pradesh, Bihar and Karnataka are the states where beedi manufacturing units are mostly located.

- The location of the manufacturing units is decided by, inter alia, the availability of beedi tobacco, tendu leaves and cheap labour. According to the data provided by the Central government, there were 44,10,775 beedi workers in India; of whom, 3,60,876 (8.2 per cent) were found in Karnataka. In this case, yardstick used in the identification of workers is not clear. A presentation made by the

government of Karnataka shows that there were 2,80,822 workers in 1996 and with fluctuations, the number declined to 2,27,608 in 2000. The number again gradually increased to 2,93,978 in 2003. The figures provided by the state government were based on the registration. What is interesting here is that the state government figures do not match with that provided by the central government. Industry representative Parameshwara Mayya (Beedi Manufactures Association Secretary in Karnataka) from Dakshina Kannada, (2001) noted that ‘around 6 lakh persons are engaged in the beedi and its allied activities in Karnataka state. Nearly 2.5 lakhs are from the eastwhile district of Dakshina Kannada’.

Beedi Labours in Karnataka

- The representatives of workers, namely, trade unions etc., put the figure of persons undertaking beedi work at much higher level. Trade union leaders noted that in 13 districts (out of 27) of Karnataka, there are an estimated 9 lakh beedi workers of whom more than 90 per cent are women. Out of these 9 lakhs, Udupi and Dakshina Kannada districts account for over 4 lakh beedi workers. Contrary to the view held by the industry, the beedi industry has been stated to be the primary source of livelihood for these workers. Unlike the number of beedi workers, there has not been much disagreement on the composition of the workforce. It is generally found that women form

a large proportion of the workforce followed by men and children. However, there is some disagreement on what exactly the composition is. This again is due to lack of clear-cut criteria on the identification of workers.

- The Establishment and Registered Beedi Workers in Karnataka State. Majority of Beedi works registered in the year 1998. The number of registered Beedi works are about 724 and the majority of workers worked in Beedi industries in the year of 2003. The number of workers working in Beedi industries all over Karnataka state are about 2,93,978. The number of Identity Card issued in the year 1996 was around 2,8,822. Very less number of Beedi works were registered in the financial year of 2003. The number of registered Beedi workers were around 338 and very less number of workers worked all over Karnataka state; about 2,27,608 that is in the year of 2000. Very less number of cards were issued in the same financial year 2000 that is around 2,14,229.

Cashew Industry and Women Labours in India

- In India, cashew is mainly grown in the coastal states of Kerala, Karnataka, Goa, and Maharashtra along the west coast, and Tamil Nadu, Andhra Pradesh, Odisha, and West Bengal along the east coast. During 1993-94 to 2009-10, the domestic production of

cashew nuts increased from 3.5 lakh tonnes to 6.1 lakh tonnes. But the analysis of productivity (yield per hectare) did not show any significant increase, indicating that, increase in domestic availability of cashew nuts was achieved mainly through expansion in the area under cultivation.

- Today, India is one of the leading producer, processor and exporter of cashews in the world. Over 65 percent of the world export of cashew kernels is from India. Indian cashews are consumed in as many as 60 countries across the world; the major markets being the United States, the United Kingdom, Japan, the Netherlands, and the Middle East countries.

Cashew Labour in Karnataka

- Karnataka with a production of 46,000 tonnes of raw cashew nuts from an area of 94,000 hectares stood at sixth position, both in area and production in India, during 2003-04. The productivity of cashew trees in the state is 500 kg / ha, which is less than the national average of 800 kg/ ha. The productivity is much lower than other cashew producing states in India. Cashew cultivation plays a significant role in the economy of coastal Karnataka and comes second after the beedi industry. The West Coast of Karnataka is an important cashew growing and processing centre. Coastal Karnataka

contributes to nearly 70 percent of the state's cashew production. About two decades ago, the industry was dominated only by two or three big companies. But today, there are 197 factories; most of them are under the small sector. Cashew share in Karnataka's total agricultural export was 11.08 per cent and its share in Karnataka's total exports was only 1.96 per cent during 1999-2000. The number of cashew factories in Karnataka has increased from 172 in 1999-2000 to 203 in 2004-05. Udupi district has the highest number of cashew factories (167) providing employment to 13,860 workers in Karnataka, followed by North Canara (35) and South Canara (30) in Karnataka.

- Among the major cashew growing districts in Karnataka, Dakshina Kannada district ranks first in the area under cashew cultivation (42.94 per cent), followed by Udupi (35.91 per cent) and Belgaum (6.35 per cent), while in production, Dakshina Kannada district ranks first which accounts for 49.66 per cent of the state's total cashew production during 2002-03, followed by Udupi (36.16 per cent) and Belgaum (5.55 per cent). Productivity of raw-cashew nut is highest in Dakshina Kannada (614 kg/ha) and Udupi (614 kg/ha). Dakshina Kannada and Belgaum districts together contribute more than 50 per cent of the state's total cashew production. The export of cashew products from Karnataka decreased from Rs.236 crores in 1997- 98 to Rs.163.54 crores in 2001-02. Karnataka's share in the country's

export also decreased from 16.82 per cent in 1997-98 to 9.18 percent in 2001-02, due to the non-availability of domestically produced raw cashew nuts.

- The export of cashew kernels from the New Mangalore Port to the different foreign countries during 2004 (April-December) totalled 6,189 tonnes, valued at Rs.137.6798 crores, which amounted to only 0.06 per cent in value of the total national export. Apart from the cashew kernels, 753 tonnes of cashew nut shell liquid (CNSL) was also exported from this port, which amounted to Rs.11,988 during the same period. Karnataka alone could import 40,261 tonnes of raw cashew nuts of which, 13,539 tonnes from Indonesia, 9,608 tonnes from Benin, 8,522 tonnes from Ivory Coast, 4,764 tonnes from Guinea and balance quantum of 3,828 tonnes of raw cashew from Ghana, Nigeria, Tanzania, Togo, Kenya, Spain, and Zambia through New Mangalore Port during 2004-05. In addition to this, around 30,000 metric tonnes of raw nuts were imported from Kerala, Goa, Maharashtra, Andhra Pradesh and Orissa. Import of raw cashew nuts into India through this port was 27,779 metric tonnes valued at Rs.10, 40,624 thousand during 2004 (April-December).

Women Labour in Fisheries in India

- It is estimated that there are 5.4 million people fully engaged in fisheries activities, and in this population, 3.8 million are fishermen

and 1.6 million are fisherwomen. However, there is a significant difference in the income earned by males and females with the former receiving the higher benefits even in the lean season. The National Bank for Agriculture and Rural Development (NABARD) has launched a number of programmes to improve the socio-economic status of women in the fisheries sector with a focus of providing credit support through self-help groups (SHGs). Of 14,313 SHGs, 11,072 SHGs have been formed by women, and the repayment rate of the loans taken by these has been very good. Illiteracy is one of the major impediments in the development of women and this suggests different strategies are required to help women in the fisheries sector.

Women in Fisheries in Karnataka

- Karnataka state emerged as a maritime state in 1956 with the reorganization of the states. An independent Department of Fisheries was set-up in 1957. Since then, the Department of Fisheries has been consistently striving hard for the overall development of fisheries and welfare of fishermen by implementing several development schemes, both in Marine and Inland sectors. The fisheries sector plays an important role in the socio-economic development of the state in view of its contribution to the bread basket, nutritional

security, foreign exchange earnings, employment generation, and income.

- The fish production in Karnataka was around 2.0 lakh tonnes in early eighties and reached to a peak of over 3.0 lakh tonnes in mid nineties. The average fish production in the last 5 years is about 3.0 lakh tonnes with the contribution of Marine sector being 68 per cent and Inland sector being 32 per cent for the year. The fish production from the state contributed about 5.80 per cent of India's total fish production for the year 2010-11. The current level of per-capita fish availability in the state is around 6.8 kgs. The contribution of Fisheries Sector to GSDP at current prices during 1993-94 was Rs. 16,316 lakhs and it has increased to Rs.2,86,273 lakhs in 2012-13.

A. Micro Level Findings

Micro level findings are drawn on the basis of primary data analysis, which has been collected directly from the sample respondents through the questionnaires. They pertain to the socio-economic conditions, standard of living, working condition, working experience, problems faced at the worksite, etc.

General Profile of the Women Labour

- Among the 320 respondents, majority 30.31 percent respondents are in the age group of 41-50 years, 25.93 per cent are in the age group of 31-40 years, 18.75 per cent are in the age group of 18-30 years, 16.87 percent are in the age group of 51-60 years, and 8.12 percent are more than 60 years old.
- Among the 320 respondents, 68.75 per cent women are married and work in different sectors like fisheries, beedi rolling, and cashew industries in the study area of Udupi and Mangalore district, and around 18.75 per cent of workers were found young around 18-25 year old girls working in Cashew industry, 9.68 percent are widows working in fisheries and beedi rolling activities, and 2.81 per cent are divorced.

Social Profile of the women labour

- Majority of 45.60 per cent of the respondents belong to (OBC) Other Backward Community and most of them work in fisheries activities; 16.25 per cent are from Tribal (ST) families and work in cashew industries; 30.31 per cent belong to SC (Scheduled Castes) category and work in industries like beedi rolling and cashew nut industries; 7.81 per cent belong to General category and work in cashew industries. Majority of the families are engaged in fisheries activities like selling fish and working in fisheries industries.

- Majority of the sample women labourers, 36.56 per cent respondents have high school education, 25 per cent have secondary education, 15 per cent have completed their Pre-University education, 13.43 per cent are found having primary education, and 10 per cent have reached degree level. Women labourers working in industries are all literate.
- Among the 320 respondents, majority 45.62 per cent have BPL ration card, 30.93 per cent have Anthyodaya ration card, and 23.43 per cent have APL ration card and are from middle class families.
- Among the respondents, 34.68 per cent operate their accounts through SBI (State Bank of India), 22.50 per cent have their accounts in SCDCC Bank, 15 per cent have Karnataka Bank account, and 10.93 per cent have Canara Bank account.

Economic Profile of the Women Labour

- About 43.1 per cent of the respondents work in fisheries activities, 35 per cent as 21.8 per cent in beedi rolling activities.

According to the above analysis, majority of the families are engaged in fisheries activities like selling fish and working in fisheries industries.
- Among 320 respondents, 35.3 per cent are engaged in fisheries activities like fish cutting, cleaning, fish marketing, etc., 25.56 per cent work in beedi industries like beedi rolling, packing and labelling

the the pack, etc., and 39.05 per cent work in cashew industries like cashew peeling, grading, etc.

Thus, it can be analyzed that majority of the women are engaged in cashew labour. In Costal Karnataka, families are dependent on cashew labour and women also contribute to the family income by working in cashew industries. Fisheries comes next followed by beedi industry.

- Among the 320 respondents, 32.8 per cent respondent's annual income is in the range of Rs. 25,001 - 50,000, 9.37 per cent respondents' annual income is less than Rs. 10,000, 19.37 per cent respondents earn between Rs. 10,001 - 25,000, 17.5 per cent respondents earn Rs. 50,001 - Rs. 75,000 annually and 10.36 percent of sample respondents earn Rs. 75,001 - 1,00,000 annually. Income of very few i.e. 10.6 percent of sample respondents average annual income is very high more than Rs. 1,00,000. per annum
- Among the 320 respondents, 185(57.81 per cent) earn daily wages, 118 (36.87 per cent) get paid every weekend, and very less respondents get monthly salary.

Expenditure Pattern of the Respondents

- Among 138 respondents, 90 (28.12 per cent) earn less than Rs.10,000 per annum and the families' standard of living condition is very poor. 69 (21.56 per cent) respondents said they earn Rs.10,000-25,000

annually and those families standard of living condition is better. 46 (14.37 percent) sample respondents are from medium level of standard families and those families earning is about Rs.25,000-50,000 and 49 (15.31 percent) sample respondents said they earn Rs.50,000-75,000 annually and in those families all members of the family are engaged in one or another work except small children. 40 (12.5 percent) sample respondent's annual earning is around Rs.75,000-1,00,000 and those families have some land holdings. Hence, those families' earning is good, and around 25 (7.81 percent) sample respondent's annual income is very high; more than Rs.1,00,000 and the reason for that is some family members family work abroad in countries like Dubai, Qatar, Abudabi etc.

Nature of working and Working Conditions at Worksite

- Among the 320 respondents, 110 (34.37 per cent) respondents told that they get employed in summer season, 146 (45.6 per cent) get employed in the winter season and 64 (20 per cent) are engaged in the rainy season. In rainy season, there will be less working opportunities due to the fact that there will be government restrictions over venturing into the sea for fishing. Winter and summer seasons see good activities in beedi and cashew sectors. Cashew industries may sometimes see less activities if there are scarcity of raw materials which is got by importing.

- About 42 (44.37 per cent) respondents work for 8 hours in a day and work in industries like cashew and beedi industries, 79 (24.68 per cent) respondents work for 6 hours and are mostly fisheries women who are engaged in fish marketing activities like selling the fish from morning 7 am to 1 pm, 51 (15.93 per cent) respondents work in cashew industries and work overtime for one hour; and 48 (15 per cent) respondents work for 10 to 11 hours rolling beedies at home.
- Among the 320 respondents, 152 (47.50 per cent) respondents have 20-30 years of experience in fisheries, beedi rolling, and cashew activities, 65 (20.31 per cent) respondents have 30-40 years of experience and most of them are engaged in fisheries activities, 52 (16.25 per cent) respondents have 1-10 years of experience and most of them are unmarried young girls, and 51 (15.93 per cent) respondents have 10-20 years of experience.
- Among the 320 respondents, 243 (75.93 per cent) respondents are very happy and satisfied with the work and the working conditions and 77 sample respondents (24.6 per cent) are not happy with the work and wish to change their work.

Problems at Worksite

- 66 (20.62 percent) respondents complained about health hazards and 51 (15.93 percent) respondents complained about absence of safety measures at the work site where they worked i.e. in fisheries and

Beedi rolling activities. 42 (13.12 percent) respondents complained about over time work and 38 (11.8 percent) respondents complained about absence of first aid box at the work site in case of an emergency. 30 (9.37 percent) respondents complained about harassment by the manager at the work site and 34 (10.62 percent) respondents complained about absence of basic facilities like pure drinking water, toilet facilities and absence of ventilation working room etc.

POLICY IMPLICATIONS

Labour policies are framed for the welfare of the labourers from time to time. But there are few industries which remain more formal in nature or the industries are employing uneducated labour, mostly women labourers, wherein these policies are not protecting the interest of the labours. Therefore labour policy need to take care of its working for the welfare of those labourers who are uneducated.

Beedi rolling comes under organised sector, most women labourers working in the industry are uneducated and not aware of the policies and in such case there is need to create awareness among the women labourers. Fisheries and cashew industries are also similar case. Further, women labourers needs special focus when labour welfare policies are framed. The research study finds that most of the women labourers working in these

industries are not aware or not given with required welfare measures at the work place. Therefore, policy framing for labour has to be considered.

DIRECTION FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

This particular research study is confined to few issues of women labourers in few industries i.e. Beedi rolling, cashew and fisheries. There are several other industries which are organised, formal, but their labourers are unorganised, uneducated. There is a need to identify such industries and diagnose the problems they face at work place.

Perhaps, research can be undertaken on focussed issues in each of these industries rather than a general analysis of labour in these industries. Each industry's labour issues differ in nature and diagnosing them would give better picture of the labour issues.

Further, problems related to women labour needs special focus compared with any other study on labourers in general. Further research can take care of these issues to make the findings more precise.

CONCLUSION

Women labour force like men labour force constitute an important part of human resources. Women labourers entering into main economic activities in developing countries is in vogue recently. Education and employment empower women and their contribution to the household economy is increasing. The role of women labour and their contributions are economically recognized.

In India, women labour has increased from 11.0 per cent in 1991 to 18.0 per cent in 2017. Cashew industry, fisheries, and beedi rolling are important sectors in which majority of the women labourers are engaged. These three industries are very prominent in Coastal Karnataka where the present research was carried out.

Cashew industry is an important agro-processing industry in India. It is a good foreign exchange earner, and also provides employment opportunities to rural people. The industry has a very special nature of absorbing women labourers, especially from the socially and economically weaker strata of the society.

Dakshina Kannada is noted for its cashew industry and for its employment and foreign exchange potential. The labour intensive nature of cashew industry allows it to be successful in such areas, where the raw cashew nuts and labour are available in plenty. This helps in absorbing the surplus labour from agriculture and in reducing unemployment. Considering the vast potential of the cashew sector in on-farm and factory level

developments, the present study was undertaken with the objective of analyzing the socio-economic conditions of women labours in the cashew industry.

The availability of cheap female labour, lack of effective trade unions, and lack of government interference were the reasons for the development of the cashew industry in the study area. Majority of the cashew workers (86 per cent) are women and among them, largely youngsters are involved. Male workers are engaged only in roasting, packing, and office work. Shelling, peeling, cutting and grading are the exclusive work of females.

The Governments, both the State and Central need to realize the realities and returns of the cashew industry, and they should have a political will in taking sound economic decisions for the welfare of the state and the nation. The cashew community, viz., the farmers, traders, factory owners, processors, and the exporters definitely deserve better treatment for further developing the industry in India.

The beedi industry occupies a prominent place in rural development in terms of its capacity to offer potential employment opportunities to a large number of people. The study found that more than 70.0 per cent of the beedi rollers suffered from eye, gastrointestinal, and nervous problems, while more than 50.0 percent of the respondents suffered from respiratory problems, mostly throat burning and cough. From the study, it is understood that the health hazards among beedi rolling women is very high. This study proposes

a framework to be implemented by the government agencies, NGOs, and welfare organizations for the welfare of the beedi rolling women labourers.

The ESI scheme plays a major role in ensuring the health risks of workers in the cashew and beedi sector. However, some operational issues have prevented the full utilization of the ESI facilities. One major problem related to the healthcare facilities under ESI is the non-availability of medicines and consumables. This has been widely reported by the workers. While the amount paid for buying medicines from outside are eventually reimbursed, it necessitates additional visits to the health facility centres.

A large majority of women workers, in both the cashew and beedi industry, sit/squat on the floor to perform tasks such as shelling, peeling, grading, and beedi rolling. This uncomfortable posture leads to many health problems.

Fishing is another activity where women labourers are more involved. Fishing is a universal occupation conducted around the world. Fishing is an export and import oriented business. The demand for fish is increasing day-by-day all over the world. There is no country where fish is not consumed. Fisheries economics emerged as an important field of research after the Second World War. Until then, studies relating to fisheries were mostly confined to the biological aspects of fisheries. Quite a few studies focusing on technological aspects were taken up, largely in developed countries. The third world countries' interest in fisheries was aroused in 1950s and 1960s when most of such countries embarked upon ambitious schemes of economic

development. At this juncture, world development agencies like United Nations (UN) through one of its units “Food and Agriculture Organization (F'AO)” took an active interest in the development of fisheries as it turned out to be a potential source of food and nutrition for the rapidly growing population of the world.

In coastal Karnataka, fishing is an important activity in which women involvement is seen in all activities of fisheries, like processing, and marketing. Most of the fisheries' families belong to poor class.

Research on women labour in industries need to focus on their socio-economic conditions, working conditions, and the level of returns they enjoy.

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ANNEXURE

ECONOMIC ANALYSIS OF WOMEN LABOUR: A STUDY IN SELECTED INDUSTRIES IN COASTAL KARNATAKA

Interview Schedule

I .General Information

Name :
Age :
Educational Qualification :
Occupation : Beedi/Cashew/Fisheries/Others
Marital Status :
Reference Address :

2. Family Particulars

Name	Sex	Age	Education Level	Occupation	Income

Family Assests

A.

Land	Area	Value	Purchased

B.

House	Owned/ Rented	Present Value	Old Value	Total

3.Household Expenditure

Goods	Model/Year	Units	Present Value
Car			
Laptop			
TV			
Fan			
Refrigerator (Fridge)			
Washing Machine			
Grinder			
Other			

4. Expenditure Investment

Items	Expenditure Weekly/Monthly	Annual Expenditure
Food		
Health		
Education		
Electricity		
Entertainment		
Others(Specify)		

5. Information On Work/Work Place

Working Conditions	
Experience	
Wage/Salary	
Working Hours	
Work Days in a Week	8 Hrs /Per day
Any Other Benefits	

6. Satisfaction of the Activities

Welfare activities	Very good	Good	Satisfactory	Poor	Not at all
Training					
Health card					
Travelling Expenses					
Baby Sitting					
Medical Camp					

7. Beedi Roller Households

Passbook	
Availability of Raw Materials	
Bank account	
Loan	
D.A.	
Before Job	
Mode of Payment	
Commission	

Part-time/Full-time	
Any Health Problems	
From where you get the items for rolling beedis?	
Tobacco	
Thread	
Others	
Pension	

8. Other Information about Beedi Workers

How many days do you work in a week?	
How many beedis do you roll in a day?	
How many family members do Beedi rolling in your house?	
Does anybody help in beedi rolling?	
Do you get raw materials regularly?	
Is the raw material sufficient for your work?	
Is there any wastage of raw material?	

9. Problems faced by the Beedi Women labourers

Problem	Too much 3	Much 2	Somewhat 1	Poor 0
Time				
Childcare				
Healthcare				
Diseases				
Harassment by contractor				
Harassment by Proprietor				
Break Time				

10. Awareness of Social Security/Social Welfare Scheme

Social Securities	Very much	Much	Somewhat	Do not know
Health				
ESI				
PF				
Bonus				
Leave wages				
Maternity Leave				
Passbook				
DA (Daily Allowance)				

TA(Travelling Allowance)				
Loan facilities				
Pension Scheme				

11. Cashew Workers

Wage Card	
Wages-monthly/weekly	
D.A.	
Loan Facilities	
Other facilities	
Other Benefits	
Holidays	

12. Problem Faced by Cashew Women Labourers

Problem	Too much 3	Much 2	Somewhat 1	Poor 0
Time				
Childcare				
Healthcare				
Diseases				
Harassment by contractor				

Harassment by Proprietor				
Break Time				

13. Awareness of Social Security/Social Welfare Scheme

Social Securities	Very much	Much	Somewhat	Do not know
Health				
ESI				
PF				
Bonus				
Leave wages				
Maternity Leave				
Passbook				
DA(Daily Allowance) TA(Travelling Allowance)				
Loan facilities				
Pension Scheme				

14. Fish Workers

In what work are you engaged in the fisheries

Works	No. of days in a week	No. of hours in a day	Any off season in a year
Catching			
Marketing			
Distribution			
Other (Specify)			

15. Others Information

Item	Wages/Salary	Any other Benefits
Catching		
Marketing		
Distribution		
Other (Specify)		

16. Problems Faced by Fisher Women Labourers

Problem	Too much 3	Much 2	Somewhat 1	Poor 0
Time				
Childcare				
Healthcare				

Diseases				
Harassment by contractor				
Harassment by Proprietor				
Break Time				

17.Awareness of the Social Security/Social Welfare Scheme

Social Securities	Very much	Much	Somewhat	Do not know
Health				
ESI				
PF				
Bonus				
Leave wages				
Maternity Leave				
Passbook				
DA (Daily Allowance) TA(Travelling Allowance)				
Loan facilities				
Pension Scheme				

18.Future Prospects

Fisheries:

1. How do you will get the fish?
2. Who supplies the fish?
3. Rate?
4. Facilities
5. Effect of climate
6. Security
7. Types of fish
8. What do you do with the remaining fish?

Remarks