

**PROJECT REPORT**  
**ON**  
**FEMALE LABOUR**  
**FORCE**  
**PARTICIPATION**  
**IN KERALA**

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## Introduction

With greater economic independence, women tend to make more decisions within the household and have control over more resources (Thomas, 1990). Kerala has a remarkable performance in human development indicators. Its high sex ratio is a widely discussed indicator regarding women's status (Sen, 1999). Gender Development Index (GDI), estimated by many scholars, places Kerala at the top (Kumar, 1996)<sup>1</sup> (K. Seeta Prabhu, 1996). Kerala's performance in the field of women education is also laudable; in 2001, the literacy rate of Kerala was 87.8% (54.0% for all India). In higher education, females outnumber males (graduate and postgraduate education in arts and science courses, although they are far behind men in professional and technical education<sup>2</sup> except in professions such as teaching) (Kodoth M. E., 2005).

The important question that arises is whether these gains in education, demography and health have been translated into economic gains for women. When we look at the female labour force participation rate (FLFPR) in Kerala we find that the above gains are not translated into gainful employment opportunities for them. LFPR is significantly lower for females than for males in both rural and urban areas. The NSSO 38th and 68th employment and unemployment rounds reveal

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<sup>1</sup> Shiva Kumar has calculated GDI for 16 Indian states in which Kerala has the highest GDI.

<sup>2</sup> Female enrolment in Engineering will be discussed in chapter 3.

that the women labour force participation rate according to usual principal and subsidiary status (UPSS) has decreased from 32 per cent in 1983 to 24 per cent in 2011-12(Valatheeswaran, 2015). Using CDS employment/unemployment survey 2003 data, K Navaneetham and Alice Sebastian find that 74 per cent of educated women are unemployed in the sample. With such a high level of educated unemployment it is likely that women are not able to find a suitable job<sup>3</sup> which matches their expectation and they choose to remain unemployed (K.R, 2002). Apart from this there are micro studies which confirm the ‘voluntary’ withdrawal of women from the labour force and their preferences for household work, both due to aversion to low status jobs and increased economic resources, particularly among the household with Gulf migrants (Kodoth P. , 2004).

## Objective

The main objective of this project is to know about the Female Labour Force Participation Rate (FLFPR) in Kerala. The study looks at the relationship between female unemployment and various socio-economic factors such as marital status, family income and employment status of male members, migration and religious backgrounds to some extent. The study looks at the impact of these socio-economic factors on female employment.

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<sup>3</sup> Regarding job preferences factors such as social status and proximity to home were the most important.

## **Data Sources and Methodology**

Both primary and secondary sources were used in this report. In order to study the participation level of women in the labour force, various government reports and data sources were used. Kerala Migration Survey, NSS 64<sup>th</sup> round report was used. Study of the literature in this area was done extensively and the primary study (survey) in Attingal was inspired and motivated by the existing literature.

Primary survey was conducted in Attingal Municipality where 45 households were interviewed in 5 wards. Information regarding the job status, education level, source of income and migration were collected.

The information collected from both the sources were used to analyse the impact of education, marital status, family income and migration on unemployment.

# Chapter 1

## **Analytical Background: The U Shape Hypothesis for Female Labour Force Participation<sup>4</sup>**

There is a relationship between economic development and female labour force participation rate. Several studies undertaken in the past have referred to a U-shaped relationship between economic development and female labour force participation (Goldin, 1995).

According to this theory, in the process of economic development the female labour force participation undergoes a U-shaped pattern. It argues that when a subsistence economy transforms into a developing economy, women withdraw from the labour force and after a minimum threshold level women participation rate starts increasing (Goldin, 1995) (Sinha, 1967).

When the level of income is very low and when agriculture activity dominates, there is a high participation of women labourers. The work undertaken by a woman can be paid or unpaid (for family farms). However, as the level of income of the society rises (mainly because of the expansion of market and introduction of new technology) female labour force participation tends to decrease. Women are then

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<sup>4</sup> Claudia Goldin: The U- Shaped Female Labour Force Function in Economic Development and Economic History.

engaged in household work. This scenario of falling female participation in labour force can be attributed to an income effect. As there is a more inflow of income (earned by the male members) the higher income allows the female members to give up their job and engage in household work such as raising children, cooking, washing and taking care of the elder members of the household. This is the falling portion of the U-shaped curve.

But as female education level rises the value of women time increases the opportunity cost of not doing a job for a women rises. As the substitution effect<sup>5</sup> becomes greater than the initial income effect, women moves back to the paid labour force. This is reflected in the upward moving portion of the U-shaped curve.

## **1.2 Kerala's case: The U-shape hypothesis**

An attempt is being made here to see Kerala's situation in the light of the theoretical background where we try to understand whether Kerala follows a similar pattern as suggested by the U-shape hypothesis.

To understand the pattern of per capita income and female labour force participation we will try to see the major source of income in Kerala's household earned by both male and female members. We will also try to find out reasons that motivate women to participate in

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household work and outside paid work. We will look at different aspects of Kerala's economy which can influence the female labour force participation in Kerala.

**Possible Income Effect:** Income earned by male members of the household and the impact of remittances.

**Possible Substitution Effect:** For highly educated women it would be costly to give up a paid job and take up unpaid household work as the opportunity cost for not having a job will be high.

## Chapter 2

### Migration and Female Labour Force Participation Rate: The Income Effect

The focus of this section is on one of the most important aspects of Kerala's economy: Migration. We have used the *Kerala Migration Survey (KMS)2014 Report* for analysing the relationship between migration and female labour force participation.

Migration in Kerala is a male dominated affair and it is very important to know that how it affects the participation of the remaining members especially the females.

We have found that religious background is a very significant aspect of migration and we have to incorporate this angle while looking at the relationship between migration and FLFPR. Apart from this, different districts in Kerala have different trends for migration and it also becomes interesting to see whether there is a differential in FLFPR between the districts.

#### *An overview*

Total numbers of emigrants in 2014 are estimated to be 24 lakh. Remittances sent were about 71,000 crores (five times that of the

1998 figure). According to KMS (Kerala Migration Survey) 2014 households with at least 1 emigrant or one non-residential Keralite differed across religious line and among districts.

### ***Religious differential***

The share of Muslims was the largest in the total emigrants from Kerala in 2014. Hindus were behind Christians and Muslims, as far as emigrant per house hold is concerned. There were 60 emigrants per 100 household among Muslims and 30 for Christians, for Hindus it was 18-19 emigrants per 100 households. As far as households with at least one emigrant or one non-residential Keralite is concerned, it is highest among Muslims (36.5 per cent) and lowest among Hindus (12.7 per cent).

### ***District wise difference***

The district of Malappuram has the highest number of emigrants with 35.8% household with minimum one emigrant (predominantly to middle-east countries). Idukki has the lowest number of emigrants with 6.2% of household with minimum one emigrant.

### ***Impact of emigration***

The income effect of emigration can lead to a fall in women (LFPR). Migration depresses female workforce participation (Guruswamy, 2006). If it is true then LFPR of women must be lower among the

households with male migrants. Malappuram and Kozhikode has the highest number of emigrants and has a very low FLFPR in Kerala. Apart from that Idukki and Wayanad with the lowest number of emigrants have the highest number of female labour participation. According to census 2011 Idukki has highest female labour participation (33.20 per cent) and Malappuram has the lowest (7.63 per cent).

If we look at the overall impact of migration on the work participation of women (wives and other female family members) some studies have also shown that there is a fall in the women workforce participation owing to a rise in inflow of income via remittances(Valatheeswaran, 2015)<sup>6</sup>.

## **Female migration: Significance and Future Prospects**

*There has been a fall in the female labour force participation in Kerala, but what about female workers outside Kerala? The following section looks at the trend of female migration and its significance in the current economic scenario.*

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<sup>6</sup> The following paper was presented by Mr Imran Khan and Valatheeswaran at the Lund University (May 2015) at SASNET conference. Both are PhD candidate at Centre for Development Studies Trivandrum.

Some important points regarding female migration are as follows<sup>7</sup>.

1. Although migration in Kerala is a male dominated affair there is a rising trend of female migration(Rajan, 2007)
2. Female migration varies across religious lines. Christian females have the largest share of female migrants.
3. District of origin is also a significant aspect in order to explain female migration. Kottayam district<sup>8</sup> has the largest share of female migrants. Other districts with higher proportion of female migrants are Ernakulum and Pathanamthitta.
4. There has been a rise in the proportion of unmarried women migrating.
5. Education level of female migrants is much higher than their male counterparts. About 80% of female emigrants have education level of secondary and higher while the corresponding figure for the male counterparts is only 45%.
6. Nursing sector is the highest employer of the female migrants.
7. Kerala government has also recognized the importance of remittances via nursing sector. The state government is actively considering a proposal for incentivising the training and recruitment of nurses from the state, who seek employment in West Asia.

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<sup>7</sup> Source: KMS, Marie Percot and S. IrudayaRajan, INDIAN NURSES IN THE GULF: TWOGENERATIONS OF FEMALE MIGRATION LABORATOIRE D'ANTHROPOLOGIE URBAINE/CNRS, IVRY, Transcending Boundaries: Indian Nurses in Internal and International Migration Sreelekha Nair and Marie Percot.

<sup>8</sup> Kottayam is a Christian majority district.

8. Future aspects of female migration are very prosperous. There has been a fall in demand of unskilled labour (mainly for construction work) and a rise in the demand for skilled workers, and as women have a better prospect in education, their role in remittance is expected to grow.
9. Presence of Malayali nurses in other parts of the country is very significant.(Percot, 2005).

## Chapter 3

# Education and Unemployment

### 3.1 Status of women in higher education

Women in Kerala are well represented in the higher education(Kodoth P. , 2004)(Kodoth M. E., 2005)(K.R, 2002)(Guruswamy, 2006). Their presence is significantly high in the arts and science courses at graduate and post graduate level. Table 3.1, 3.2 and 3.3 summarize the female enrolment rates across various courses.

**Table3.1: Female Enrolment in specific courses in Kerala, 2003.**

Courses	% of enrolled who are female
Master in Social Work	78.6
Master in Education	61.8
Master in Computer Applications	49.7
Master in Business Administration	42.8

Source: IrudayaRajan and Sreerupa, 2007.

**Table 3.2: Female enrolment in higher education in Kerala 2005-06**

<b>Courses in Higher Education</b>	<b>% Females</b>
B.Ed. /B.T	80.9
Medicine, Dentistry, Nursing, Pharmacy, Ayurvedic and Unani, Homeopathy etc.	62.5
M.Sc.	77.4
MA	74.8
M.Com	66.5
B.Sc. /B.Sc. (Hons.)	69.2
B.A/B.A (Hons.)	66.9
B.Com/B.Com (Hons.)	53.4
B.E/B.Sc (Engg.)/ B.Arch.	37.9
<b>Total in Higher Education</b>	<b>54.1</b>

Source: Selected Educational Statistics 2005-06

**Table 3.3<sup>9</sup>: Female Enrolment in Engineering**

	<b>Women Enrolled in Engineering</b>	<b>Men Enrolled in Engineering</b>	<b>% Women in Engineering</b>
Kerala*	6764	15511	30.4
India*	93279	418193	18.2

\*Selected Educational Statistics 2000-01, Department of Secondary & Higher Education, Ministry of Human Resource Development, Govt. of India.

Many scholars have raised concerns about the low enrolment of females in technical fields such as engineering(Kodoth M. E., 2005). While many other studies have revealed that Kerala has the highest number of female engineers in the country(Beena Sukumaran)(P.P

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<sup>9</sup>BeenaSukumaran, Harriet Hartman, Dona Johnson: How to Improve Enrolment of Women in Engineering:Lessons Learnt from the Developing World (Rowan University).

Parikh, 1992) but the same studies have also revealed that Kerala has the highest unemployment rate among women engineers in India, especially civil engineers.

In addition to this, there were substantial gender differentials in WPR for different levels of education. Using NSS 64<sup>th</sup> round report it is clear that a *substantial gender differential existed in WPR for different education levels* (in both Rural and Urban areas). In rural areas, nearly 69 per cent of the males of ages 15 years and above with education level of 'graduate' were employed while for women it was only 24 per cent for the same age and education category.

In addition to this, stereotypes remain with regard to the conventional trend of job participation, as pointed out by many scholars. In Industrial Training Institutes (ITIs) and Industrial Training Centres (ITCs) there is a predominance of women in stenography, cutting and tailoring, dress-making, secretarial practice and data preparation (Eappan). Such stereotyping restricts the scope of various job opportunities for females.

## Chapter 4

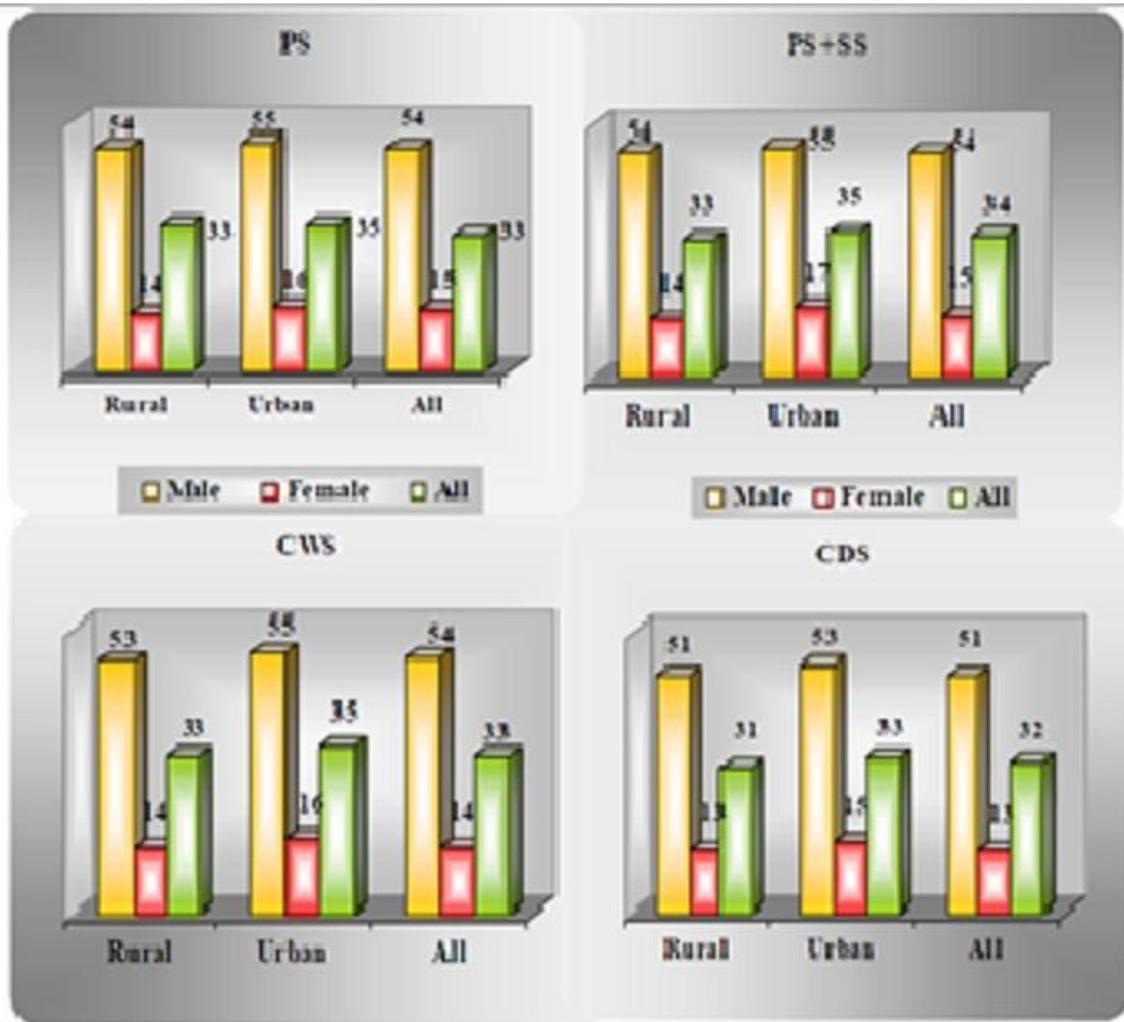
### Unemployment, Wage and Structural Changes

The following chapter talks about the employment/ unemployment status of females, wage differential and the structural changes that the Kerala's economy has gone through.

#### 4.1 Unemployment

The NSSO 64<sup>th</sup> round report uses different approaches to calculate the labour force participation. According to PS approach labour force participation was significantly low for women in both rural and urban areas. LFP in PS+SS (principal status and subsidiary status combined) shows almost the same results. As per the PS + SS approach female labour participation was 14 per cent and 17 per cent in rural and urban area respectively. Chart 4.1 shows the labour participation report.

Chart 4.1 Labour participation in Kerala



Source: NSSO 64<sup>th</sup> round report

## 4.2 Wages

Using NSSO 64<sup>th</sup> round report we found out that there were substantial wage difference between males and females in Kerala. Table 4.2 gives the differential in the average daily wages of the casual workers of age group 15-59 years and table 4.3 gives the average wage earned by regular wage/salaried employees in different education categories.

For daily casual labourers the male-female disparity in wage rate is clearly revealed, which is high in both rural and urban area. For regular wage/salary employees, average wages were Rs.236.18 for males and Rs.206.26 for females in the rural areas and 337.88 for males and 246.39 for females in urban areas. The disparity in wages is clearly much higher in urban areas.

**Table 4.2<sup>10</sup>: Average daily wages for casual workers (age group 15-59 years)**

Sectors	Male	Female	Total
Rural	146.16	<b>79.73</b>	134.02
Urban	147.14	<b>80.83</b>	138.36
All	146.83	<b>80.39</b>	133.32

<sup>10</sup> Source: Report on 64<sup>th</sup> Round NSS: Department of Economics and Statistics

**Table 4.3<sup>11</sup>. Average wage earned by regular wage/salaried employees (for age group 15-59**

<b>Education Level</b>	<b>Rural Male</b>	<b>Rural Female</b>	<b>Rural Person</b>	<b>Urban Male</b>	<b>Urban Female</b>	<b>Urban Person</b>	<b>All Male</b>	<b>All Female</b>	<b>All Person</b>
Not Literate	160.71	64.24	67.08	111.77	228.57	171.03	119.32	88.26	92.73
Literate and up to middle	155.34	77.99	134.63	191.95	92.25	167.46	165.47	81.62	143.52
Secondary and Higher Secondary	223.16	149.98	207.81	300.46	141.45	255.44	246.68	146.61	223.31
Diploma/Certificate	287.89	243.00	273.23	410.03	325.96	342.81	328.86	226.45	296.11
Graduate and above	323.87	319.56	322.17	439.32	390.38	396.62	371.86	322.68	350.93
All	236.18	206.26	227.12	337.88	246.39	304.81	270.23	222.16	254.67

<sup>11</sup> Source: Report on 64<sup>th</sup> Round NSS: Department of Economics and Statistics

## **4.2 Structural Change**

### **Paddy Cultivation**

Traditionally agriculture was a significant sector of female employment in Kerala, but there is a decline in women's work in agriculture all over Kerala. Share of female agricultural labour and female cultivator has fallen to 22 per cent in 2001 from 42 per cent in 1991 (Census data). Agriculture is no longer the most significant sector for female employment (Guruswamy, 2006). In agriculture female participation is mainly high in the cultivation of food crops such as paddy where transplanting, weeding and harvesting are typically female intensive. But the area under paddy has declined by about 25 per cent during 1970-80 and by 28 per cent during 1980-90 and there has been a shift towards cash crops mainly coconut, banana and spices.

Due to such a decline in paddy cultivation there is a fall in women participation in agriculture. Table 4.4 shows the fall in paddy cultivation district wise. According to the department of Economics and Statistics, Kerala the total rice production was estimated to be 6.67 lakh tonnes in 2004-05 against 13.39 lakh tonnes during 1981-82.

## **Industrial Stagnation**

All traditional industries in Kerala are facing stiff competition due to unfair terms of trade and substitution of machine-made and synthetic products (Economic Review, 2003). There is a high participation of women in manufacturing sector of Kerala. This is mainly because women have traditionally dominated various industries such as Coir, Cashew, Beedi, Handloom and Fish-Processing.

Female workforce in the unorganized manufacturing sector in Kerala is at disadvantage (Guruswamy, 2006). The Handloom sector which predominated in the districts of Kozhikode, Kannur, Kottayam, Allapuzha, Kollam and Trivandrum is facing a decline due to a shift towards non-household industries from household industries.

**Table 4.4<sup>12</sup>: District-wise reduction in area under paddy, Kerala: 1991-2001**

Districts	Area under paddy		% reduction
	1991-92	2001-02	
Kasargode	13430	7413	44.80
Kannur	20333	10987	45.96
Wayanad	19582	12855	34.35
Kozhikode	11535	6402	44.50
Mallapuram	50361	22654	55.02
Palakkad	147066	115904	21.19
Thrissur	69065	37012	46.41
Ernakulam	65001	32905	49.38
Idukki	4851	4388	9.54
Kottayam	23855	15250	36.07
Alappuzha	55872	33111	40.74
Pathanamthitta	13153	5218	60.33
Kollam	27619	11459	58.51
Trivandrum	19604	6810	65.26
Kerala	541327	322368	40.45

Source: Statistics for Planning (2001); Department of Economics and Statistics, Govt. of Kerala.

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<sup>12</sup>(Guruswamy, 2006)

## Primary Survey

The primary survey was done in 5 wards of Attingal Municipality. In the survey basic information of the household members were recorded. Most of the females in our sample were married.

The finding shows that 19 out of 70 (27.15%) women in the sample were working. Out of the non - working women, 8 were in search of a job. For women with education level of graduate and post-graduate, about 46.42% were employed and 21.42% were in search of a suitable job. For families with a male migrant, about 35.29% women were employed. For women of age below 35 years, about 48.14% were employed and 14.81% were looking for a job.

### Experience in Attingal

While interviewing the household in Attingal Municipality, the following observations were made:

1. Married women were not very enthusiastic about working outside their home. Although they preferred government jobs over private ones, overall willingness to work outside home was not positive.
2. Most of the houses of return migrants or current migrants were of very good quality (*pakka house*) and the members were happy with their economic status.

3. Few houses, mostly without even a single migrant, were small and there were female members who were eager to work, if provided with suitable job opportunities. Females complained about non-availability of work in the locality.
4. Mobility factor was a major constraint, as suggested by the households.

## Detailed Tables

**Table: 1**

<b>Age</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percent</b>	<b>Cumulative</b>
0 (up to 35)	27	38.57	38.57
1 (35 to 50)	20	28.57	67.14
2 (50 and above)	23	32.86	100.00
Total	70	100.00	

**Table: 2**

<b>Marital Status</b>	<b>Freq.</b>	<b>Percent</b>	<b>Cum.</b>
0 (Married)	67	95.71	95.71
1 (Unmarried)	3	4.29	100.00
Total	70	100.00	

**Table: 3**

<b>Job</b>	<b>Freq.</b>	<b>Percent</b>	<b>Cum.</b>
1 (Working)	16	22.86	22.86
2 (Not working)	36	51.43	74.29
3 (Employed before marriage)	5	7.14	81.43
4 (Looking for a Job)	8	11.43	92.86
5 (Self Employed)	3	4.29	97.14
6 (Retired Females)	2	2.86	100.00
<b>Total</b>	<b>70</b>	<b>100.00</b>	

**Table: 4**

<b>Education</b>	<b>Freq.</b>	<b>Percent</b>	<b>Cum.</b>
1 (Primary)	8	11.43	11.43
2 (Secondary)	13	18.57	30.00
3 (Higher Secondary)	21	30.00	60.00
4 (Graduation and above)	23	32.86	92.86
5 ( Post Graduation and above)	5	7.14	100.00
<b>Total</b>	<b>70</b>	<b>100.00</b>	

**Table: 5**

<b>Malemember jobstatus</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percent</b>	<b>Cum.</b>
0 (Low wage and daily wage)	14	20.00	20.00
1 (Husband/Son migrant)	13	18.57	38.57
2 (Other male migrant)	4	5.71	44.29
3 (Working in Kerala)	29	41.43	85.71
4 (Retired)	10	14.29	100.00
<b>Total</b>	<b>70</b>	<b>100.00</b>	

**Table: 6**

Marital status	<b>Job Status of females</b>						Total
	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>6</b>	
0 (Married)	15	36	5	6	3	2	67
	22.39	53.73	7.46	8.96	4.48	2.99	100.00
	93.75	100.00	100.00	75.00	100.00	100.00	95.71
1 (Unmarried)	1	0	0	2	0	0	3
	33.33	0.00	0.00	66.67	0.00	0.00	100.00
	6.25	0.00	0.00	25.00	0.00	0.00	4.29
Total	16	36	5	8	3	2	70
	22.86	51.43	7.14	11.43	4.29	2.86	100.00
	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

**Table: 7**

Education	Job Status of females						Total
	<b>1 (employed)</b>	<b>2 (unemployed)</b>	<b>3 (Employed before marriage)</b>	<b>4 (looking for a job)</b>	<b>5 (self - employed)</b>	<b>6 (retired)</b>	
1 (primary)	0	7	0	1	0	0	8
	0.00	87.50	0.00	12.50	0.00	0.00	100.00
	0.00	19.44	0.000	12.50	0.00	0.00	11.43
2 (secondary)	1	7	2	1	2	0	13
	7.69	53.85	15.38	7.69	15.38	0.00	100.00
	6.25	19.44	40.00	12.50	66.67	0.00	18.57
3 (higher secondary)	2	15	2	0	1	1	21
	9.52	71.43	9.52	0.00	4.76	4.76	100.00
	12.50	41.67	40.00	0.00	33.33	50.00	30.00
4 (Graduate)	11	7	1	4	0	0	23
	47.83	30.43	4.35	17.39	0.00	0.00	100.00
	68.75	19.44	20.00	50.00	0.00	0.00	32.86
5 (post- graduate)	2	0	0	2	0	1	5
	40.00	0.00	0.00	40.00	0.00	20.00	100.00
	12.50	00.00	00.00	25.00	0.00	50.00	7.14
Total	16	36	5	8	3	2	70
	22.86	51.43	7.14	11.43	4.29	2.86	100.00
	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

## Discussion and Conclusion

An attempt was made to understand the female labour force participation in Kerala, a State with impressive HDI and GDI (see Chapter1). From both the primary and secondary sources, our investigation shows that Female Labour Force Participation rate is low in Kerala. We had started from the analytical frame work of U-shaped hypothesis where the participation rate of females tend to decrease during the initial stage of development and rise in the later period. The relative strength of substitution effect and income effect plays a decisive role in female labour force participation.

In chapter 2 we have seen that districts having high income effect via the remittances send by the male migrants mostly from gulf nations tend to have low female participation in labour force; and districts with relatively low share in remittances income have a higher female labour force participation rate. It was also seen that a fall in agriculture production especially in paddy cultivation, where female labour is predominantly employed, had an impact on female labour force participation. This is also consistent with our theory which states that in the initial stage when agriculture activities are dominant, female participation in labour force is high. But with expansion of market and introduction of new technology there is a fall in the female labour force participation. Fall in the traditional industries can be attributed to the new technology of production that came along

with new market structure (discussed in chapter 4 under structural changes).

In chapter 3 we also saw that the choice of higher education among women is highly skewed towards non-technical fields which also hinder the scope of job for females. Impact of marriage on job participation is not surprising as our primary study and other studies have shown that a high percentage of married women are out of the labour market. For married females it becomes a question of trade-off between household responsibilities and income foregone by not doing a job. Only if the opportunity cost of not doing a job is very high women will take up outside work.

In Kerala non availability of lucrative jobs for females has turned out to be one of the most decisive factors in explaining their low participation in labour force. Females dominate males in higher education which means that females are naturally tend to remain out of the labour market longer than males. If the available job opportunities do not match with the expectations, the female member can choose to remain unemployed and wait for a suitable job. With the given income effect of income earned by other male members it seems that households are capable to sustain the unemployed female members without much difficulties.

In the context of the famous U-shaped hypothesis, we can see that Kerala has moved to the bottom part of the curve where the income effect dominates the substitution effect, where the role of traditional

source of employment for females has gone down (fall in paddy cultivation and traditional industries). In order to move up in the curve it becomes necessary that there are sufficient job opportunities for the large number of educated females of the state. Presently the problem of educated unemployment is acute in the state especially for females and only by providing sufficient opportunities for employment we can expect women moving up in the economic and social ladder by having more resources at their disposal and having greater influence on the decision making of the households.

## Annexure I

### Attingal

Attingal is a municipality in the Thiruvananthapuram district of Kerala state, India. It is a suburb of the extended metropolitan region of Thiruvananthapuram city, situated 30 km to the North of the main city. It is the most important and biggest place in Thiruvananthapuram district, only after the capital city.

According to 2011 census, Attingal has a population of 37,346. Males constitute 17,009 of the population and females 20,337. It has an average literacy rate of 88%.

**Total Number of HouseHold : 9768**

<b>Population</b>	<b>Persons</b>	<b>Males</b>	<b>Females</b>
Total	37,346	17,009	20,337
In the age group 0-6 years	3,451	1,740	1,711
Scheduled Castes (SC)	4,057	1,892	2,165
Scheduled Tribes (ST)	48	23	25
Literates	32,758	14,919	17,839
Illiterate	4,588	2,090	2,498
Total Worker	11,670	8,170	3,500
Main Worker	9,494	6,909	2,585
Main Worker - Cultivator	142	108	34
Main Worker - Agricultural Labourers	404	287	117
Main Worker - Household Industries	187	133	54
Main Worker - Other	8,761	6,381	2,380
Marginal Worker	2,176	1,261	915
Marginal Worker - Cultivator	60	41	19
Marginal Worker - Agriculture Labourers	223	130	93
Marginal Worker - Household Industries	56	20	36
Marginal Workers - Other	1,837	1,070	767
Marginal Worker (3-6 Months)	1,902	1,129	773
Marginal Worker - Cultivator (3-6 Months)	52	34	18
Marginal Worker - Agriculture Labourers (3-6 Months)	187	112	75
Marginal Worker - Household Industries (3-6 Months)	41	16	25
Marginal Worker - Other (3-6 Months)	1,622	967	655
Marginal Worker (0-3 Months)	274	132	142
Marginal Worker - Cultivator (0-3 Months)	8	7	1
Marginal Worker - Agriculture Labourers (0-3 Months)	36	18	18
Marginal Worker - Household Industries (0-3 Months)	15	4	11
Marginal Worker - Other Workers (0-3 Months)	215	103	112
Non Worker	25,676	8,839	16,837

Source: Census, 2011

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