

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

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An extensive as well as intensive literature survey was undertaken to obtain an insight into the status of work related to the concepts of empowerment and self esteem. The concept of empowerment and self esteem are discussed initially and thereafter researches related to the various aspects dealt within the study are presented under suitable subtitles.

2.1 CONCEPT OF EMPOWERMENT AND RELATED RESEARCH STUDIES ON EMPOWERMENT OF WOMEN

Empowerment has been conceptualized and studied in numerous ways over the years. Many social scientists and home economists have focused attention on researches related to empowerment. Authors from different fields have given various strategies/ways to empower individuals. Reissman (1965) found effective teaching methods for low income families which resulted in human beings recognizing, developing and using their own interest and strengths in empowering themselves. USDA Extension Service (1969) stated that the paraprofessional programme delivery process and the educational message which resulted in bringing about constructive and meaningful changes effectively in family's and community's well being can be tailored to the interest and needs of women.

Colle (1979), Leidenfrost (1986) and Robert (1989) reported that the utilising trained paraprofessionals and professionals for empowering women is the best strategy. They are likely to be indigenous to the area served.

Ramadas (1985) reported that literacy could indeed serve as a tool for empowering women to take control of their lives.

Leidenfrost (1986) explored an educational delivery method which helps to empower women and families. According to her, empowerment of women leads to an ability to do, a capacity to accomplish tasks, a command over events and an ability to exercise influence. In a more general sense, it is power that stems from new knowledge and skills acquired, action taken and inner strength gained from an educational experience. This empowerment can begin with or can be initiated by individuals and can be played out in the near environment of the home or in the community at large. An individual's empowerment is increased when she or he can work with a group towards a common community goal. In this problem solving and developmental setting at the grass root level, with leadership endorsement and support, the collective empowerment of people in general and women in specific can take place. She further opined that the empowerment process takes time, involves behavioural change, and will give the participants a new and more positive view of themselves. In the process, the paraprofessional also generates a positive growth orientation for her or himself and often becomes a constructive role model. Improvement takes place when participants increase their self confidence and when they are able to set their own agenda. Besides increasing their own knowledge, they gain new respect from their community.

Sergiovanni (1987) explained that transformative leadership can empower an educational community. Transformative leaders are more concerned with how the power of leadership can help people become more successful to accomplish the things that they think are important and to experience a greater sense of efficiency. They are less concerned with what people are doing but are more concerned with what they are accomplishing. There is no formula to help people empower themselves. There is no specific process because central to empowerment is an individual's sense of self esteem or self confidence which comes from a multitude of experiences. In turn, this empowerment must be translated into some community or group action.

Bolton's (1988) strategy for women's empowerment is summarised in the

statement “if you are going to empower women, you will have to get them out of the kitchen”.

Schneider (1988) realised that womens' empowerment is a must to cope with challenges of economic, social, political, cultural and legal spheres of life. It was further stated that due to economic, social, political and demographic changes, women are forced to commit themselves in full solidarity in preparing for their common future.

Report of the United Nations Development Fund for Women (1988-89) stated that the UN Decade for Women challenged myths and misunderstandings about the economic role of women and pointed out that their empowerment is a must to overcome the myth "women don't understand business". It also stated that planning and training should go together in any effective empowering process.

McKee (1989) opined that the programme in general and women in specific can use four measures to assess its effectiveness such as meaningful sustainable increase in income levels for large number of participants, policy and regulatory change that expand economic choices for the poor, increase in aggregate employment, economic growth and diversification on the local economy, and empowerment.

US Department of Agriculture (1989) in co-operation with State Land Grant University Extension System initiated a nation wide programme called Expanded Food and Nutrition Education Programme (EFNEP) to improve the dietary level of low income families. The strategy provided for, ensured teaching low income adult homemaker on a one to one basis in small groups to improve their dietary intake and food behaviour pattern. In addition they built self esteem and learned more about self worth experiencing the empowerment process.

The Cornell Empowerment Group (1989) and Allen and Barr (1990) defined

empowerment as an intentional ongoing process centered in the local community, involving mutual respect, critical reflection, caring, and group participation through which people lacking an equal share of valued resources gain greater access to and control over resources. This definition shows that empowerment is not something that can be given to others. It must come from within. One's own empowerment can act as a catalyst for others to be empowered.

National Extension Home Maker Council (1989), Leidenfrost (1992) and Jaina (1996) adopted education as a strategy to empower women at grass root level which employed indigenous para professionals and teachers. According to them opportunities for women to acquire knowledge and skill which will empower them to take charge of their lives can be provided through teaching them home economics subject matter including human development, parenting, housing, clothing, food preparation nutrition, health and sanitation practices and leadership development. They also stated that informal education system can help to empower women and maintain their interests and integration into social, economic and political agendas. The cooperative extension system has demonstrated an effective empowerment model in team approach using professionals and indigenous para professionals. Womens' collective participation in educational programmes over time, can help build a new philosophy about the importance of their effecting change in situations that impede their lives

Allen and Barr (1990) said that a leader can facilitate the process of empowerment by listening intently to what people have to say, respecting what has been learned previously, collectively defining issues, identifying existing strengths and resources that can be used, organising and carrying out an action plan and challenging individuals and institutions wielding power.

Parajuli and Enslin (1990) reported that the ability to read and write if grouped in local realities and dialogical in method, could be a powerful force in training processes of

empowerment among subordinated groups such as women. It showed that women could articulate and assert their own knowledge in order to challenge the dominant male view.

An important recommendation of the Commission on the Status of Women states that "the United Nation's system should develop new method of promoting the transfer of science and technology to women and that government and non-governmental organizations should adopt empowerment rather than welfare strategies to support women Women 2000 - Review and Appraisal (1990).

In the words of Antrobus (1990), a common concern of all those working for social change is the ways and means of assisting women to strive beyond the meeting of practical and material needs, to develop the critical consciousness which will enable them to have a better understanding of the linkages between the reasons of their oppression, race, class and imperialism alongwith gender so that they can identify the points of leverages, and the strategies which need to be taken to promote change.

According to United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization (1990), empowerment process implicates a kind of education which enables women to think critically, to question, to analyse their own conditions, to acquire the information and skills necessary to alter it, and above all, to visualise the kind of society they wish to bring about. Strategies to achieve this include community participation, universalisation of elementary education for girls, developing teaching personnels, continuing education, spatial and decentralized planning and support system for women oriented projects.

Snyder (1990) stated that providing a structure for empowerment to evolve at grass roots level is a natural process for home economics In community around the world, women and families are faced daily with adverse situations that affect the quality of their lives. Through the empowerment of women, these situations can be and are being brought to the attention of the public. The empowerment process can have a multiplier effect

which in turn may well help to direct the economic and social strategies to ensure the development of women's potential.

Empowered women would be well equipped with certain characteristics which will be reflected in her personality. According to Cochran (1990) the empowered possess characteristics and competencies such as an ability and commitment to identify strengths in people and groups, a genuine respect for diverse perspective and life styles, a capacity to listen and reflect, an ability to subordinate one's own ego (to put self interest aside for the sake of the group), the skill and creativity in helping people to become more aware and confident of their own abilities, an understanding of the time to withdraw and help individuals or groups assume decision making and taking action themselves, the ability to analyse power relations and help others to do so, knowledge about the manner to gain access to information and an ability to reflect on or criticise an ongoing process, including one's own role in those processes.

Sankaran (1991) perceived knowledge as a power to make women economically, socially, politically and culturally empowered.

Regina (1991) emphasised that for women's empowerment a social transformation - can be achieved only through acquiring knowledge, power and experience. Power is not power to dominate but power to reduce helplessness and increase effectiveness. It is a sense of internal strength and confidence to face life, the right to determine choices in life, the ability to influence a social process that affects lives. Empowered women are endowed with the capacity and opportunity to influence the direction of social transformation. No amount of constitutional guarantee or equality will help promote women's role in the social transformation unless they become empowered persons.

Seitz (1992) presented the theory of empowerment as a process of gaining personal autonomy through political community as an alternative to the economism and

individualism of conventional women in development analysis Empowerment is also defined as a power with which women can bring about changes in the society where mobilization and modernity have been confined only to a chosen few.

Mariner (1992) stated that the empowerment process of women for leadership will require changing values and attitudes along with adaptability and flexibility on part of the individual, family systems and governments.

Mariner (1992) defined the thinking behind the perspective of empowerment by saying - "... to empower is to enable, permit, give power to, authorize and to commission". As women become empowered, they become change agents who influence decisions and actions which affect organizations, institutions and communities. They become innovative, dynamic leaders who see power as something to be shared. Individual assertiveness, upward mobility and feelings of having power over one's life are characteristics of the empowered. Empowerment for women begins when women change their ideas about the causes of their powerlessness, when they recognize the forces that oppress them and when they develop positive feelings about themselves and act to change the conditions of their life. A positive empowerment approach emphasizes women's strengths in order to encourage them to take control of their lives. This approach takes time but it can start anywhere, i.e. at village level, within homes of the poor, the middle income or the well off. Leaders in Home Economics believe that all members of the organization and social institution have the capacity for empowerment to better the home condition. They recognise the necessity for a clear concept of empowerment in order to facilitate positive change in any environment or culture.

She stated further that the empowered women would change their perceptions of self and their importance. If the community provides support, resources and information about work, community and public issues, they might take their rightful place in society. Mariner (1992) also stated that home economists can help empower women and develop

leadership skills and initiative to get involved in development policies, programmes and projects. They may serve as educators or resource persons.

Leidenfrost (1992) opined that empowered homemakers gained feelings of confidence and self esteem which in turn enabled them to obtain more education, jobs and recognition in the community. They could also work for a better life for the total community.

According to Giordano (1992), an adult woman may grow and develop in two traditional ways, i.e., increased stages of autonomy and independence. He also explored another developmental path, a path towards increased stages of commitment, care and independence.

Sheilds (1992) developed the concept of empowerment from a theoretical and a practical perspective with particular focus on women's perceptions of the meaning of empowerment in their lives. Women experience empowerment as a multifaceted expressive process in which there is a development of an internal sense of self. The ability to take actions based on the internal sense of self and an ethic of interconnectedness are essential elements of empowered state.

Antrobus (1992) commented on various strategies for empowering women. Social change awareness generation of links between gender subordination and structures of social, economic, cultural and political systems which threaten human and natural environment were cited as significant ones.

Reyes (1992) explored the impact of women's studies programme on the development of feminism and empowerment of women through higher study, in order to bring forth a new perspective and inter-relation that could contribute to both women's studies and empowerment of women.

Sheilds (1992) pointed out that women have often been deprived of opportunities to develop their full potential as a member of the society. Hence their empowerment is imperative for them to avail of awareness for their development.

Baker and Balakrishnan (1992) stated that in developing and developed countries of the world, women's' contribution to the national economy is ignored.

Leidenfrost (1992) stated that empowerment process will improve women's quality of life and well being of their families. In promoting and teaching about economic and social issues, whether in formal or informal situations, empowerment philosophy can be an integral part of the knowledge base. In the participatory decision making process, the group identifies the problems, discusses and debates alternatives, decides on a plan of action and implements the plan. The paraprofessional teachers who provide educational opportunities for individuals at the grass roots level serve as a vehicle of change in the empowerment process. The educational message taught and the developmental process implemented can instill and create new visions, possibilities and opportunities for participants. The paraprofessional teacher through this process also acquires new attributes like attitudes, knowledge and skills.

Giordano (1992) examined the connection between agency and communication and their relationship to empowerment characteristics. The theoretical construct of empowerment was used as the basis for the perception of behavioural differentiation between agency and communication in 152 university faculty staff and community women. Transformational leaderships and social support were used as the behavioural manifestation of empowerment. As a result, transformational leadership and social participation were found to be positively related to both agency and communication. The duration of support system and the ability to give and receive support were found to be positively related only to communication, and this positive relationship was significantly different than the absence of a relationship between agency and social support.

Sharma (1992) and Melvin (1993) recommended a strategy for empowering teachers to bring about change in schools. The key issues in empowerment included greater decision making authority, leadership, degree of autonomy, participation, decisional satisfaction, willingness and overall career satisfaction and commitment.

In the views of Beyer (1993) problem solving skill is a crucial ingredient. Scarborough (1993) synthesised data into a conceptual model of empowerment process having five aspects which influence organizational members' sense of empowerment, viz., contextual, organizational, managerial, personal and inter personal. The majority of the practices which contributed to a sense of empowerment were processes of 'good management paradigm', namely, increasing feeling of self worth and efficiency, providing opportunities and eliciting involvement, expanding decision making authority and inspiring commitment to organizational goals.

Tauli (1993) suggested training as one of the several ways of creating an alternative culture to empower women. It was further stated that women's involvement in campaigns empower them and also develop their leadership qualities.

Muller (1993) conceptualised empowerment process as unleashing of potentials. It is defined as the process of acknowledging the latent potency of another person and assisting that person to act purposefully and assertively to reach the growth potential. According to Beijing (1995) empowerment is a real power for women. Bhatia (1996) advocated that the policy to keep women in the front of development is empowerment.

Shukla (1996) operationalised empowerment status of hill women in terms of decision making power in the household. The extent of power and authority a woman has over various decisions in carrying out her multiple roles in the family make her a visible partner in the household.

Gupta (1997) stated that women's emancipation is based on a negative platform, women's empowerment assumes a more positive attitude and action. Empowerment of women is widely popular and unquestionably accepted among the scientists, socialists, politicians and feminists belonging to developing societies and countries. All of them do agree with their western counterparts that there exists a gender struggle, gender power and gender politics to the detriment of women, but they feel that solution lies in the empowerment of women rather than their emancipation.

2.2 RESEARCH STUDIES RELATED TO EMPOWERMENT OF WOMEN

Conceptual framework and an instrument for assessing health professionals by the use of empowering strategies was developed by Carol (1982) in order to develop a theoretical basis for an empowering approach to health education and to develop an instrument for health professionals that will identify their predominant health education style as it relates to an empowerment approach. A set of eight principles representing empowerment were given as a result of 1st phase. The second phase evolved developing, piloting or field testing an instrument assessing health professional use of empowerment strategies. The strategies for the instrument were developed from operationalising the eight principles. Each principle was sent to four to seven experts for content validity. Pilot and field testing indicated that health education strategies scale (HESS) was valid and reliable.

Sultana (1988) conducted a study on the participation, empowerment and variation in development projects for rural area. Variation in the household resource base among the poor had a strong influence on poor women's participation in project activities. These differences in participation created greater heterogeneity among the poor. The nature of productive activities of the project also generated different levels of participation among the beneficiaries of the programmes. Further findings were that women's participation in paid work was not sufficient to increase their autonomy and voice in the family and the village. On the other hand, it was observed that women's group formation, regular savings

and income, a new knowledge consciousness and group mobilization together as an alternative to women's traditional condition contributed to the relatively higher status for women in the family and in the village.

Shrestha and Getubig (1991) discovered that production credit for rural women (PCRW) and poverty alleviation programmes initiated in Bangladesh in order to empower the rural women, improved their lives by increasing their income, providing them access to various services and encouraging self reliance.

Keller and Mbewe (1991) conducted a study on "Policy and Planning for the Empowerment of Zambia's Women Farmers." The study revealed that Zambia had a policy frame work to identify and solve some of the practical gender needs of rural women. The authors believed that control of food and cash incomes through agricultural production was a basic pre-requisite to enable rural women to identify their strategic gender needs. They further reported that as women gained more access to and control of productive resources, the bureaucracy could be used to give rural women some of the tools which they required to empower themselves.

The empowerment of rural women through economic participation and decision making power in the family was measured by Mizan (1992) in Bangladesh along with four dimensions, household decision making power, control over fertility, use of health care and voting. The results showed that women's borrowing status, amount of income, experience and skills gained through years of participation in Grameen Bank significantly influenced women's household decision making. Cultural and kinship factors such as religion, beliefs and practices, age fertility and residential proximity of parents provided the wife with additional resources.

Similarly concept of empowerment in decision making was studied by Bucoy (1992) in Philippines in the study entitled "Empowerment Status of Women". An empirical

investigation of the relationship between interpretive styles and empowerment was done by Webb (1992) through a case study which links empowerment with transformational leadership. A three stage path model was created to test as revised version of the Thomas model. Likert type scales (1932) were used to operationalise three interpretive styles, empowerment and transformational leadership. The three demographic variables, namely, age, gender and ethnicity were not found to be related to interpretive styles as hypothesised. The study found a gradual increase in the mean empowerment score with age. The relationship between empowerment and transformational leadership was found to be statistically significant as predicted. In addition the inclusion of age as contributing factor in future empowerment model was suggested.

The ethnography of empowerment is a transformative power of interaction. Robinson's (1992) research focused on empowerment through interaction in class room. Teachers chosen had made drastic changes in their teaching and were moving from non-discerning thinking to intuitively discerning teaching philosophy. The study sought not only to describe but to fasten empowerment which led to transformative and rehumanising action in the world.

Colbert (1992) reported that there were no statistically significant relationships among teacher and principal perceptions of principal authenticity and degree of faculty empowerment regarding statutes, access to knowledge and to access to decision making.

An empowerment model with women was developed and its implications for health planning and practice were examined by Shields (1992). The women participated in semi structured indepth interviews that comprised of questions pertaining to an overall description of empowerment as well as specific sub components and skill. As a result of findings a model was developed to describe empowerment as including the central elements and also encompassing the characteristics of expansiveness, wholeness, balance and elasticity. It was observed to have a positive impact on women for health planning and

practice.

Gentrude (1993) studied the impact of an HIV / AIDS presentation programme on the knowledge, attitudes, beliefs, behaviours and empowerment of African and American women. He identified the factors that empowered them to attend HIV/AIDS programme. The results indicated no significant differences between the women on the variables of age, occupation, income, education, marital status or religion. The women attended the programme to satisfy needs for knowledge, individual support and to help others. The project had a positive impact on the knowledge of the women. General information about transmission of the HIV was significantly higher for women than other group. The women had positive attitude to persons with HIV or AIDS. There were no significant differences between the two groups of women who were empowered.

Relationship between transformation and empowerment through leadership education was established by Murry (1993). The study indicated that the nature of this empowerment experienced varied with the gender, age and experience level of learner.

Spreitzer (1993) studied the social structural levers for facilitating individual empowerment and some behaviour outcomes of individual empowerment were examined. A tripartite technical frame work of empowerment was developed and discovered that specific behaviours were associated with a psychological sense of empowerment. There existed a relationship between the social structural context and individual behaviour. Socio political support and access to strategic information were found to be associated with empowerment. Empowerment was found to be strongly related to behaviour which change the status quo and managerial effectiveness.

A case study of the South Mountain High School JRDTC programme was conducted by Boykin (1993) in order to discover the relationship among leadership, empowerment and academic achievement in schools. Fourteen students, 3 instructors and

5 teachers were questioned about the programme and its impact was studied. It was found that JRDTTC programme had many implications for positively influencing the achievement of black students. Additionally, self influence on esteem building, peer group influence and self discipline may support possibilities for implementation of the programme in many other schools.

In a study undertaken by Muller (1993), six women in leadership position in education and business were interviewed to determine the definition and components of the experience of empowerment. Each woman had been described as an empowering leader by her peers. Through content analysis, themes essential for empowerment were identified and organised into those that related to empowering themselves and those that related to the act of 'empowerment as a process'. The theme relating to 'empowers themselves' included, build alliances, empowers values and share expertise / resources and so on. The empowered have faith, they venture off the path and are motivated by internal forces. Themes identified as essentials to empowering such acts that were encouraging growth, caring and acknowledging the worth of others, giving and actualizing.

Rajamma (1993) conducted study on "empowerment through income generating projects" and reported that in India, development planning often seemed to have ignored the problems of women. Women's work was characterized by low pay, long working hours, low level of skill and lack of job security. Income generation projects (IGP) for women were often seen as a way to bring about changes in their lives, but in most cases had only resulted in further marginalising them. The act of simply focusing on an increased income detracted attention from the over all well being and empowerment of women.

Samarasinghe (1993) reported that economic independence for women, a key basis for individual empowerment required bringing together a basic set of dynamics into simultaneous play. Access to resources and control of one's economy were imperative for economic independence. The study was based on a field survey of the tea plantation area

of Sri Lanka, where the Indian and Tamil female workers had been a major segment of the work force for over 150 years. A survey was conducted of 420 females and 40 male plantation workers, as well as 22 plantation managers and health workers. Results indicated that although female tea workers now enjoyed higher wages, they lacked the necessary empowerment due to dominance by plantation males both at home and at work.

The relationship between empowerment practice, empowerment behaviour and knowledge in empowerment principles were examined by Pierce (1993). He studied the psychological empowerment of social workers in Florida. Data showed that the social workers scored higher in practice behaviour and tended to indicate more knowledge about empowerment. Those social workers who reflected psychoanalytic theory as important but accepted behaviour theory as important in their practice were more empowering. Those who scored highest on the frame of empowerment scale that measured five dimensions of construct also had higher scores in empowerment practice and higher scores in empowerment knowledge suggesting some correlation amongst the three dependent variables. Theories of women's development have suggested that adult women may grow and develop in two separate, but connected ways. One traditional path is towards increased stage of autonomy and independence. Self-in-relation theory has suggested another path, a path towards increased stages of commitment, care and interdependence with others.

Fiedler (1993) developed scales measuring empowerment, locus of control, job satisfaction, organizational commitment and social desirability. The results showed that people with an internal locus of control were more likely to feel empowered than were those with external beliefs.

Harrison (1993) investigated perceptions of public school secondary teachers and building principles towards teacher empowerment. Four scales were developed on the perceptions of empowerment, viz. self esteem, knowledge, collegial relationships and perception of the empowered teachers' feel.

Waters (1994) investigated the extent to which women understand local market forces and recognize important social and political functions of their marketing activities. The study revealed the limits of their knowledge about how the local economy inter links with national and international economics.

Gisbert (1994) results indicated that three areas in which state agencies and NGO's could provide support in helping rural women empower themselves were migration and production, capacitation and training, and strengthening community organization.

Parker (1994) studied the effect of empowered manager on workers in order to make them empowered. Workers reported that when their managers and they themselves had high level of control over decision making, they themselves were empowered. Also the manager who exercised power in supportive manner was an empowering force for them to enjoy relatively high levels of perceived control over organizational decision.

Pant (1996) engaged in empowering Kumaoni women through CHIRAG (The Central Himalayas Rural Action Group) in hilly interiors of Uttar Pradesh in order to improve the quality of life of the poorest of poor women folk and make them self-reliant. He reported the need for unequitable and sustainable management of resources.

Shukla (1996) studied the empowerment status of hill women and discovered that women there had no power to spend farm income as they desired. About 60 per cent of sample women had the power to spend money produced by livestock keeping. Women had no power to take financial decisions like taking credit / loan for farm and livestock management. On the whole the empowerment status of hill women were low.

2.3 CONCEPT OF SELF ESTEEM AND RELATED RESEARCH STUDIES

'Self Esteem' is defined as self worth and respect for oneself. Empowered women

experience several changes in attitude towards appreciation of themselves for their self worth. Such empowered women would be those who have achieved what they wanted in their lives thereby deriving great satisfaction. Also they would identify themselves differently from others in the family / society. This feeling would lead to higher levels of self esteem in them.

In the words of Coopersmith (1967) 'self esteem' refers to the feelings and attitudes towards the self worth, individuals who consider themselves to be capable, significant, successful and worth will reveal a high self esteem and conversely those who consider themselves incompetent, insignificant and worthless, a low self esteem.

Coopersmith (1967) defined self esteem as "the evaluation which the individual makes and customarily maintains with regards to himself. It expresses an attitude to approval or disapproval and indicates the extent to which the individual believes himself as capable, significant, successful and worthy."

Coopersmith (1967) reported that boys with high self esteem set higher goals and were more successful in achieving them than boys lower in self esteem. They were also better able to accept criticism and displayed less anxiety. Boys with medium levels of self esteem in many respects were more dependent on acceptance by society. Boys with medium and low self esteem tended to avoid expressing independent opinions to avoid disagreement.

Certain background characteristics may contribute to self actualization. Gibb (1968) studied juniors in a large mid western university and reported an association between self actualization and such characteristics as educational level of parents, number of siblings and type of family, i.e., nuclear or extended

Foulds (1970) found that participation in certain educational programmes was

associated with growth in self esteem.

Sands (1971) reported that no relationship between age and self esteem among family living teachers studied. According to Brooker (1975) "self actualization is the process of reaching one's full potential, becoming all that one is capable of becoming. Traits of such a person include efficiency in perception of reality, acceptance of self and others, spontaneity and simplicity, focus on problems outside of self, detachment from others, autonomy and independence from culture, continued freshness of appreciation of life, tendency towards deep interpersonal relations with a few individuals, deep feelings for mankind, democratic character, structural discrimination between means and ends, philosophical sense of honour and resistance of inculturation.

Zimmerman (1978) determined possible relationship between selected background characteristics and degree of self esteem of home economics teachers of central Iowa. No relationship was found between self actualization and 14 background variables including age, marital status, number of children, year since graduation from college attended, number of graduate, credits earned, highest degree earned, year since last enrolled in a college course, educational level of parents, size of community of family of orientation, number of siblings, participation in youth groups and number of years of home economics teaching experience. These characteristics were chosen because they were found to be related to self actualization by other researchers, where as Zimmerman found no relationship between degree of self actualization and thirteen of the above characteristics. A correlation was found between number of siblings and degree of self actualization, however the correlation was too low to be meaningful.

Zimmerman and Margurite (1979) analysed verbal interaction in class discussion in Home Economics in relation to self actualization of the teacher. Self actualizing teachers tended to vary more in verbal patterns than the less actualizing group.

Geitel (1980) found out that the relationship between behaviour and self esteem may be difficult to determine because as Coopersmith (1959) observed self esteem may change with the structure and demand of a given situation.

Patten (1981) investigated the self esteem of unwed adolescent mothers and found that pregnant adolescents had diminished self esteem.

Marcia (1983) designed research to determine the relationship between two measures of clothing interest and selected independent variables consisting of self actualization and demographic characteristics of age, education, income and occupation. She found a significant negative correlation between clothing interest and self actualization while a significant positive correlation was found between perceptual recall measure score and the occupation. Prediction of clothing interest was not improved by using a linear additive combination of the dependent variables.

Petrovsky (1985) conceptualised self esteem / self actualization as a "human desire to maximally reveal and develop ones personal potentials". However, the concept of self esteem failed to receive adequate interpretation in Western Psychology, since it considers the individuals to be capable of self esteem, **only** when he is free of all social demands. In reality true self actualization implies the existence of favourable socio-historical conditions."

Parrett (1988) studied the relationship between self esteem and pregnancy in pregnant and non-pregnant African American adolescents and found that the non-pregnant group reflected significantly more positive perceptions of self as opposed to a much lower degree of self esteem exhibited by pregnant group.

Crockenberge and Soby (1989) investigated that high self esteem is presumed to predict good adjustments behaviours. Behaviours valued and sanctioned by society or the

culture. In contrast, low self esteem is presumed to predict self destructive and deviant behaviour such as drug use, school dropout and early sexual involvement.

Barnett et al. (1991) studied the familial correlates of pregnant and non-pregnant adolescents and found that non-pregnant group had better self esteem and family functioning scores than their pregnant counterparts

Smith (1994) investigated the relationships among pregnancy status, self esteem and ethnicity. These relationships were examined in a sample of pregnant parenting and non-pregnant female adolescents ranging within the age of 15 to 19 years. Findings indicated that although self esteem and pregnancy status were associated for European American adolescents, these variables were not associated with African adolescents. Non-pregnant European American adolescents scored significantly better than their same race pregnant counterparts.

Lennon and Rudd (1994) examined possible linkages between attitude towards gender roles, body satisfaction, self esteem and appearance management behaviours. He found that women who hold traditional attitudes towards roles were likely to depend on their appearances for establishing their self esteem because, an attractive appearance is central to their concept of what it means to be a woman. Women who endorse non traditional attitudes towards gender roles might have higher self esteem than women who endorse traditional attitudes towards gender roles. Women with non traditional attitudes towards gender role may derive self esteem from academic achievements inter-personal relationships, career success and personality characteristics rather than from their beauty. Thus traditional attitudes towards gender roles may be associated with low self esteem in women and conversely non traditional attitudes towards gender roles may be associated with high self esteem in women.

2.4 GOVERNMENT SPONSORED ECONOMIC UPLIFTMENT PROGRAMMES (GSEUP's) AND RELATED RESEARCH STUDIES

Empowerment status of women in India is still in its infancy. Since 1952 sustained efforts are being made at government and non government levels to empower women. Certain legislative and executive steps have been taken to achieve this goal.

Thirty-seven per cent of the total 846 million population live below poverty line with an income less than Rs. 11000/- per annum. Various programmes like Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP), Training for Rural Youth for self employment in Rural Areas (TRYSEM) and Development of women and children in Rural Areas (DWCRA) were started in 1978, 1979 and 1982 respectively in rural areas. The objective was to focus attention on women living below poverty line so as to improve their economic status by throwing open opportunities for income generation, through training and financial assistance. These schemes were intended to make them financially strong and independent. In the present study such programmes are referred to as Government Supported Economic Upliftment Programmes (GSEUPs). By availing loan supported income generating activity (IGA) as beneficiaries under GSEUPs, women get an opportunity for self development as well as to contribute to family income. This very fact envisaged women empowerment.

Islam (1979) depicted some aspects of female employment in rural Bangladesh. Most of the rural women belonged to families without even a homestead, or any asset. Findings of the study revealed that census definition of labour force kept half of the active population out side the usual notion of labour force. In fact 30 per cent of active women were found to be engaged in productive work within the household. One of the reports of International Labour Organization (ILO) (1980) gave three employment and training patterns for women, viz. Unbroken Employment Pattern, Professional Women with skill and education in jobs involving high level of responsibility and poor women with little or no skill and education corresponding to low income in both rural and urban areas.

The general work profile for women indicated that they worked in a narrow range of occupation at low levels of skills, responsibility and priority.

ILO (1980) report stated that ministry of labour has taken a variety of measures to strengthen women as workers by ensuring better working conditions, better wages and equal opportunities in employment providing basic social security needs and improving skills of women.

Quadus (1983) argued that special programmes for women in general will benefit all categories of women. However experience shows that all programmes taken up so far by Government for rural women in terms of coverage of members, training facilities, and credit have mostly benefited women from upper and middle class families. The activities that are encouraged for rural women are very sophisticated and conventional. The present economic level of poor women usually do not support the line of activities advocated by programme planners and organizers. Qadir (1983) stated that poor women's participation in income generation is required to meet the basic need of food, fuel and shelter. Review of different projects dealing with service strategies reveals that income generating activities may be more effective if women are organized in groups in a particular locality rather than being left to find for themselves as individuals after they completed training and received other support services. Group organization also allows for sharing of cost of tools, machines and the like and promotes **solidarity**. It is seen that female employment has a direct bearing on the level of income and welfare of households.

Chaudhary (1986) suggested that through small entrepreneurship women could be trained, motivated and brought into co-operative field to form viable co-operative society to take up activities such as dairy farming, screen printing and to get access to other occupations.

Gupta et al. (1987) reported that women of backward villages were more

economically active than women in prosperous castes in villages adjoining the city. Shrinivas (1978) and Sharma (1989) suggested that women must get loan with low interest for pursuing their income generating activities.

Muniraju (1988) pointed out that sericulture being household industry and women were conventionally involved in production of silk yarn, they could get engaged in this pursuit for earning and improving the economic condition of their families. Identical findings were given by Ojha and Saxena (1988).

Rathor and Chabra (1991) recommended that programmes should be implemented to raise awareness of self employment among women and develop the skills of business in which they were to be integrated.

The women development studies Cell (1992) investigated the needs of women to share resources and generate income, and found various areas, both in agricultural and non-agricultural sectors where income generating activities could be taken up. On a small scale women can, individually with the family or with community, venture into the production of goods that can be sold in the local market or sent to the cities depending on the raw material available. Training skill could be imparted to women to enable them produce these items of good quality sale such as mats, brooms, baskets, reed work or rope making from grass fibers, pickle, jam preservation, tomato sauce, peanut butter and chutneys, papad, masala powder and dried herbs, butter, cheese, sour milk, curds, snacks and sweets, garments, knitted goods and lace and so on.

Jain (1993) stated that it is being realised that women's income in a family is very essential and important, not only in relation to empowerment but also for economic, social, educational and nutritional uplift of the family. A provision is made under IRDP that at least 30 per cent of beneficiaries should be women. The mid-term review of IRDP (1987) showed that the flow of assistance to women members of the targeted group of household

was very nominal. Hence with an objective of improving the quality of assistance to the rural women, a sharper focus was conceived through the scheme of "Development of Women and Children in Rural Areas" (DWCRA). According to Eighth Plan document, women beneficiaries assisted under IRDP were 34.33 lakhs. The percentage of women increased from 9.9 in 1985-86 to 25.6 in 1989-90. Under TRYSEM, 4.59 lakhs women were trained for self employment during Seventh Five Year Plan while under both programmes, the minimum percentage of women beneficiaries reached to 40. Under JAWAHAR ROJGAR YOJNA (JRY) 30 per cent employment opportunities are reserved for women. In 1990-91 the share of women in employment generation and JRY was about 24 per cent. DWCRA scheme, meant to increase rural women's access to employment, skill training, credit and other support services, covered 187 districts in 1990-91. The programme follows 'group approach'. Over 28,000 women groups were formed during the Seventh Plan Period. These programmes have uplifted the socio economic status of the women manifold.

Jaina (1996) stated that women have at last been recognised as a target group for the promotion of economic self reliance.

2.4.1 RESEARCHES RELATED TO IRDP

Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP), the largest poverty alleviation programme was initiated in 1976 on experimental basis in 50 blocks of the country. Later in 1977-78 it was extended to 2300 blocks and to 5011 blocks in the country in 1980. It aims at improving the life of the rural poor by providing them financial assistance, income generating and employment oriented assets. Since then, a lot of financial assistance has been given to large number of families. Poverty ratio as per 42nd round of the National Sample Survey came down from more than 50 per cent in 1977-78 to below 10 per cent at the end of Eight Five Year Plan.

Kannathal (1980) attempted to examine the degree of improvement in income and standard of living of beneficiaries after implementation of IRDP. An increased income and employment level was observed, but their standard of living did not improve. The consumption expenditure was increased and amounted to more than 80 per cent of their income.

National Sample Survey (1983) revealed that due to IRDP around 56 million persons have crossed poverty line between 1977-78 to 1983-84.

Kuttikrishnan (1984) did not observe any significant impact of IRDP on income generation. Hence it is pertinent to point out that the majority pursued dairy farming which was a traditional activity pursued in their households.

The awareness and purpose of IRDP among rural women was studied by Randhawa (1984) on one hundred farm women from small, medium and large categories according to their farm size. The study revealed that the non-significant association of respondent's characteristics like age, education and size of land holding with the use of various sources of information could be attributed to two reasons, firstly IRDP has virtually no strong component directly related to welfare and secondly, traditionally farm women do not participate in outside home activities unless they are properly motivated. Sheep rearing is one of the trades identified in primary sector of IRDP. Pre and Post loan period status of the beneficiaries was assessed. There were nine sheep per household before receiving the assistance and sheep ownership increased significantly to 30 at the end of field investigation. Some of the beneficiaries were having modern amenities such as TV, tape recorder, transistor, electric fans, watches, cycle, sewing machine etc. They were recipients of an average loan of Rs.7,833 and the average subsidy was Rs.2706 per household. The beneficiaries' households were deriving income from the sale of wool, manure and sheep generating an average income of Rs.3335 per year which indicated that sheep rearing had a positive economic impact.

Malayadari (1985) stated that IRDP has a strong impact on income distribution of the sample beneficiaries. In most of the cases employment was created by increased financial assistance. The change in income before and after the implementation of the programme was quite obvious, 55 per cent of them crossed poverty line but remaining 45 per cent were still below poverty line. Their distribution by income also changed favourably. While 45 per cent received an annual income between Rs. 2500 and Rs. 3500, 55 per cent of the sample were earning an income between 3500 to 6000 per annum. Seventy per cent of the beneficiaries repaid loan timely but 30 per cent were unable to repay on time, due to factors like diversion of income to conspicuous consumption, drought condition, high cost of cultivation, low yield, low price to their production, high rent to land and poor management. Beneficiaries also reported that monthly installments were very high and duration of repayment was less and hence they faced difficulty in repaying loan. The economic impact of IRDP was also measured through income mobility matrix, by upward mobility in terms of income of the household after availing assistance and the percentage of household crossing the poverty line fixed at RS. 6400 in the Seventh Plan.

Bhagwan (1985) stated that in India, economic upliftment of women in the countryside was attempted through IRDP programme with the focus on developing traditional crafts like tailoring, knitting, embroidery and pickle manufacturing. It was obvious that these traditional crafts would cease to be viable because the aggregate demand of these products would have its own limitations. While a fair beginning had been made in the country for assisting women to set up enterprises, more efforts were needed. This could be achieved if there were promotional agencies at various levels. There could be a nodal agency at national level which could monitor programme for women. The present structure laid greater emphasis on social welfare rather than on economic welfare of women.

Singh (1985) explored the role of administrative personnel in the implementation

of IRDP, and reported that none of the programme functionaries came to enquire about the problem faced by beneficiaries in managing and starting the scheme. Hence they never received support from the concerned department in terms of training inputs, market management and the like. Moreover it was reported that the selection of beneficiary was also wrongly done, many had annual income above poverty line and had more than 5 acres of cultivable land. Only 32 per cent beneficiaries came to know about the programme from village pradhan and Village Level Workers while rest got to know from their neighbours, relatives and friends. Fortyeight per cent beneficiaries selected scheme themselves without knowing the details of the programme. Majority of them said their selection was based on their relationships with officials and this was more so at DRDA level from where subsidy was released. Seventy per cent of the beneficiaries were sanctioned subsidy within three months, 11 per cent within 3 to 6 months, and 9 per cent after 6 months or one year. Harassment and demanding of bribe were reported at the time of sanctioning. The amount of bribe ranged from Rs.50 to Rs.700. It was found that VLW did not meet 82 per cent of the beneficiaries, Block Development Officer (BDO) did not contact 87 per cent and bank people failed in 45 per cent of the cases. The study revealed further that none of the officers from IRDA ever went to see beneficiaries and find out any problems beneficiaries faced.

The department of rural development and concurrent evaluation of IRDP (1991) in two rounds of survey (1985-1987) to streamline and improve the pace of implementation of the programme found that primary and tertiary sectors were areas of main thrust covering 44 to 45 per cent families respectively. In the primary sector dairy farming was the most popular as compared to other schemes. In the tertiary and secondary sectors shops (17%) and village industries (6%) respectively were observed. According to pre assistance annual income, 9% of the assisted families belonged to destitute group ((Rs 2265), 38 per cent to very poor group (Rs.2266-3500), 36 per cent to very poor group (Rs. 3501-4800) and 10 per cent to poor group (Rs. 4001-6400). About 6 per cent families had an annual income more than Rs. 6400. Eighty per cent beneficiaries opined that the assets provided

were good in quality, 66 per cent had overdues and 94 per cent beneficiaries had not borrowed any money from private sources after acquisition of the asset. The asset generated additional income, more than Rs. 2000 in 42 per cent cases, between Rs. 1001 and 2000 in 18 per cent cases and between Rs. 501 and Rs.1000 in 9 per cent cases. The total family income of beneficiaries increased by more than 50 per cent of their initial annual income in 73 per cent cases. Such increase in income was even more than 100 per cent of their initial income in 49 per cent cases. The increase in the total annual income of the beneficiaries was more than 50 per cent of their initial annual income in 43 per cent cases. Such increase was more than even 100 per cent of the initial assessed annual income in 20 per cent cases. The old beneficiaries had crossed the poverty line of Rs. 3500 in 81 per cent cases and revised poverty lines Rs. 6400 in 28 per cent cases.

The concurrent evaluation of IRDP (1991) revealed that the programme helped 70 per cent beneficiaries of given sample to cross the poverty line of Rs. 6400 in the first quarter of 1989. However, many evaluation studies have pointed out that the programme could be more efficiently implemented provided appropriate linkages were established (Rajgopal 1991).

As far as expenditure pattern was concerned it showed increased pattern of expenditure on clothing, food, milk and milk product, fuel and education. While by 35 per cent of the beneficiaries were regular in repayment of loan, 50 per cent were irregular and 16.7 percent did not pay even a single installment. Some of the beneficiaries believed that their loan would be waived off. Some of them were misled, thus their loan amount would go on increasing year by year and they would be indebted forever (Singh 1991).

Reddy (1991) classified old and very old beneficiaries in pre and post assistance by per capita income into four groups.

Upto Rs. 320 (destitute), Rs. 321 - 640 (very much poor), Rs 641 - 960 (very

poor), Rs 961 - 1280 (poor) and Rs. 1280 - and above (non poor). It was found that 26 per cent households crossed poverty line following per capita norms. From this material it was found that 10 per cent of the households engaged in income generating activity that fell under primary sector, 50 per cent under the secondary sector and 20 per cent under the tertiary sector could cross poverty line. The percentage of success group worked out for primary sector group was 26, secondary sector was 50 and tertiary sector 35. Very poor households of primary sector performed better in terms of shifts to higher income brackets and some crossed the poverty line too. But the performance of the very poor groups under primary sector was not up to the mark. However the performance of poor and very poor under the primary sector was good as expected.

Gupta (1991) testified the overall improvement in the earning position of IRDP beneficiaries as majority of the beneficiaries moved to higher income groups after getting assistance. The female beneficiary appeared to be more effective in managing IRDP assistance as compared to men. In the case of caste women beneficiaries income was much higher than scheduled caste beneficiaries. None of the women went into the lower income group. All the beneficiaries falling below the cut off line, crossed over to the higher income groups. The average incremental income of women beneficiaries was Rs. 820 compared to only Rs. 533 earned by male beneficiaries which came to 19.33 and 12.4 per cent respectively. The progress of scheduled caste beneficiary was poor as compared to other categories. The scheduled caste non-beneficiaries earned higher incomes as compared to other non-beneficiaries.

Incremental capital output ratio and number of families crossing the poverty line (Rs. 6400 per annum) were used for measuring the performance of IRDP by Ghosh (1991).

Dhillon and Sandhu (1991) discussed the role of effective co-ordination between DRDA and other concerned departments involved in the implementation of DRDA at district level. The Jalandhar district got the first rank with respect to extent of co-

ordination followed by Firozpur and Ropar districts. Lead bank received the first rank with respect to its co-ordination with DRDA in three districts followed by Industries Department, Dairy Development Department, Co-operative Department and Revenue Department respectively. It was reported that there was lack of co-ordination among financing agencies. The joint meetings of DRDA staff with other concerned departments at district level were held as per schedule with minor adjustments and executive committee meeting was held once in a month. On an overall basis 43.33 per cent of the functionaries were of the view that coordination should be further strengthened.

Satapathi (1991) brought out the findings of a concurrent evaluation survey of three phases of IRDP. The status of IRDP was judged on the basis of beneficiaries who crossed the poverty line. Forty one of the beneficiaries crossed the earlier poverty line of Rs. 3500 at the national level. The highest percentage was seen in Punjab (85 per cent) followed by Andhra Pradesh (57 per cent), Himachal Pradesh (53 per cent) and Jammu and Kashmir (51 per cent). The states which revealed the poor performance were Orissa, Nagaland and Manipur. Only 5 per cent of the beneficiaries crossed the revised poverty line fixed at Rs. 6400, the same being 20 per cent in Madhya Pradesh, Kerala, Meghalaya and West Bengal, 16 per cent in Punjab, 11 per cent in Assam, zero per cent in Haryana, Manipur and Nagaland, 1.1 per cent in Orissa. Similarly in the second phase 48 per cent of the beneficiaries crossed the poverty line. The states made good performance were Tripura 100 per cent, Punjab 94 per cent, Gujarat 89 per cent, Manipur 73 per cent and Himachal Pradesh 70 per cent. On the other hand, states like Haryana, Sikkim, Karnataka and Meghalaya made poor performance, only 5 per cent beneficiaries crossed the revised poverty line, i.e., Rs. 6400 at the national level. The reasons quoted for poor performance were that the assets were not maintained properly due to inadequate supervision, inadequate infrastructural facilities, less working capital and tight repayment schedule.

Dhillon and Sandhu (1991) studied the reaction of beneficiaries towards various auxiliary facilities provided under milch animal scheme of IRDP and received suggestions

from the beneficiaries to make milch animal scheme more effective. On the overall basis 75.67 per cent beneficiaries expressed that inputs were inadequate, 75 per cent reported vikas Patra was not given, and was not updated, 69.67 per cent reported that milch animal was not of good quality and more than 50 per cent reported that DRDA officials made less than 2 visits and none in some instances for follow up action one year after providing the assets. About 85 per cent were not satisfied with the asset. Lack of veterinary facilities, non availability of remunerative price for milk, irregular payment for sale of milk effected and non availability of quality cattle feed for maintaining the milch animal properly were reported by majority of them. A few suggestions like simple procedure for seeking & release of loan, training in dairy farming, arrangement for transportation of cattle feed, provision of milk collection societies or cooperatives in the village and better cooperation between DRDA and other concerned department were given by the respondents. Majority of them showed a positive attitude towards auxillary facilities.

Gautam and Singh (1991) studied the economic status of beneficiaries of IRDP before and after implementation of IRDP. Before the implementation of IRDP in the selected villages all the beneficiaries were in the income group of Rs. 3500 per annum which indicated the economic backwardness of the households selected for the programme. The average annual income before receipt of asset under IRDP was Rs. 1204 for male and Rs. 1181 for female beneficiaries. After receipt of IRDP asset the average annual income for all the beneficiaries increased from Rs. 1200 to Rs. 5913 per annum. Out of the total 33 per cent crossed over the poverty line and the same was more in male headed households than in female headed households. Out of 45 male beneficiaries 11 were not earning any income. The reason quoted included bad assets, lack of interest in maintaining milch cattle, lack of cash flow for maintenance of milch animal, uneconomic output generated from the assets, lack of technical know-how and lack of training provided in particular unit of activity.

Rajgopal (1991) stated the need to have forward and backward linkages of IRDP,

which help IRDP beneficiaries. Supply of raw materials, appropriate technology, marketing of products and designing are some of the major linkages in industries, service and business sector. He pointed out that District Supplies and Marketing Societies is one of them which take care of the need of the input - supply of raw material and output - marketing of products.

Besides institutional support provided by DSMA in some states, group participation in production, procurement of raw material and marketing were also observed. The Goa Handicrafts Rural and small Scale Industries Development Corporation extends only formal linkage to IRDP beneficiaries in terms of marketing support. While procuring raw material, transport and the like are arranged through group action. In this membership of 15 women engaged in manufacturing of different product after gaining training of related trade is required. The group is provided Rs. 15000 as working capital on the basis of Rs. 1000 per member. It is a revolving fund invested in production. The revolving capital is deposited in bank and operated by Gramsevikas or group organisers. The amount is released in installments depending upon the need for procurement of raw material in the consultation with the block level officials. This group is actually working in Goa and Bombay.

There are cases in the rural areas that amount of loan given under IRDP utilized in some other necessities. Pothuluru (1991) studied IRDP scheme in Andhra Pradesh and reported that a considerable amount of credit given under IRDP scheme was diverted to household consumption (39.4 per cent) followed by repayment of old debt (23.6 per cent), marriages (12.1 per cent) and the remaining portion for acquiring the income yielding assets of their own choice (15.7 per cent). Nearly one half of the total households which diverted their amount of investment to unintended purposes belonged to sheep rearing scheme. The best earners were seen under tailoring scheme.

Subbarayudu (1991) studied the sector wise physical and financial achievements

under the programme since 1978-79 to 1989-90 and discovered that 85.06 per cent beneficiaries were assisted under IRDP. The amount of Rs. 1952.329 till the end of 1989-90. There had been tremendous growth both in physical and financial achievements since 1978-79, the year of inception of the programme except in the year 1985-86. During VI Plan period a sum of Rs. 347.179 lakhs was distributed among 46,880 beneficiaries including 15,755 SCs and 3,463 STs. Further, during the VII Plan period about 29,281 new beneficiaries including 13,081 SCs and 2,926 STs were sanctioned financial assistance to the tune of Rs. 558.820 lakhs. In both the VI and VII Plans, ISB sector occupied the first rank and the animal husbandry the second and in VI Plan agriculture took the third position whereas in the VII Plan minor irrigation stood at the third position. In general, performance and progress of IRDP programme was promising and encouraging with the significant role played by Grameen Banks.

Patil (1991) provided data on target achievement percentage of schedule caste/scheduled tribe population covered, percentage of women covered and total investment during the year 1989-90 (Seventh plan).

Against the target of 31.94 lakh beneficiaries, the achievement was 37.71 lakh with 46.4 and 23.16 being the percentage coverage of SC/ST and women. He further suggested that a detailed survey should be conducted at the household level to build authentic information about family size, size of land holding, family structure together with the number of persons on whose names the land holdings were registered and its verification at Tehsil level to avoid the problem of improper selection and identification of beneficiaries as many non-eligible beneficiaries managed to manipulate their land records by showing land under the names of various members of a household and thus managed to show that they were below the poverty line card

Ghosh, (1991) assessed the awareness level of IRDP beneficiaries and evolved suitable strategy for enhancing their awareness level. He noticed that 82 per cent of the

beneficiaries who were not aware of the objective, either lost their assets or misutilised the allotted funds. Similarly 51.11 per cent of the beneficiaries did not know that there was a maximum ceiling of Rs. 3000 or subsidy and they were satisfied with the amount sanctioned to them. About 36.11 per cent of the total beneficiaries did not know that there was a provision for higher subsidy for beneficiaries belonging to Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. Nearly 56.67 per cent did not know that under IRDP, 30 per cent of the total assisted should consist of women beneficiaries. Lack of awareness resulted in less coverage of women in rural areas. Though the poorest get priority in the selection 42.28 per cent of the beneficiaries studied did not know there existed such a classification. Among the male beneficiaries many ineligible families were selected for assistance. About 41.67 per cent did not know that under IRDP scheme credit was available at 10 per cent concessional rate of interest while 69.5 per cent did not know it was very essential for the bank to give them pass book with the entry of details of loan and subsidy. The study was concluded that the poor performance of IRDP programme was due to low level of awareness of the beneficiaries.

Naidu (1992) highlighted the impact of IRDP on income and employment levels of the beneficiaries during the year 1978-88. The different programmes of IRDP were grouped into 4 types, i.e. agriculture, animal husbandry, sericulture and tertiary. The number of beneficiaries under all 4 programmes of IRDP during 1987-88 was 342 and the amount of loan released was Rs. 12.69 lakh\$. To evaluate the impact of IRDP on incomes of the beneficiaries, an attempt was made to compare the levels of income during post loan period with pre-loan period. It was found out that, the total household as well as that of beneficiaries increased in the post loan period. The person days of employment among the beneficiary household recorded an increase in the post loan period in all the 5 schemes. The person days of employment was seen to have increased from 178 days in the pre-loan period to 286 in the post loan period creating an additional employment to the extent of 113 person days on an average per beneficiary. The employment generation among the schemes was reported as significant.

According to Kashyap (1993), the impact of variability of different dimensions of communication support indicated that, education, extension agency, contact and social participation have positive but significant relationship with income of the beneficiaries. Attitude, risk orientation, achievement motivation and training were found to have been positive but significant whereas mass media exposure and sources of information had negative but non significant relationship with increase in income of the beneficiary. The overall impact of communication support to IRDP over economic condition of the beneficiaries was found significant. The income of the beneficiaries increased by 39.13 per cent in three successive years after the year of assistance. The per cent increase of total income of all the beneficiaries was 29.26 per cent after the first post programme year and it went up to 47.82 per cent after the third post programme year.

2.4.2 RESEARCHES RELATED TO DWCRA

Entrepreneurial talents and capabilities are latent in all communities, but their translation into innovative action depends on appropriate stimuli and environment in which innovations are readily accepted. The rural Indian women are preoccupied with domestic chores. Even UNICEF recommended that women should not remain limited to motherhood or domestic role but should be seen in the totality of women's role. Hence it is very much needed that the rural women be motivated towards enterprising venture.

A study by Chakravorty (1975) revealed that women have nine hours of free time per day. Realising the wastage of manpower and also the need to uplift the status of women, Government of India initiated a scheme called Development of Women and Children in Rural Area (DWCRA) and this is dealt under IRDP.

The DWCRA Scheme was implemented in 1978 as a pilot project in 50 selected districts and extended to all states in 1982-83 and one district in each Union Territory in 1985. Twenty-four additional districts were covered during 1986-87. The districts were

chosen on the criteria of low female literacy and high infant mortality rates. At present the scheme is in operation in 187 districts and Union Territories of the country. By the end of Eighth Five Year Plan, it is proposed to cover all the districts in the country under the scheme.

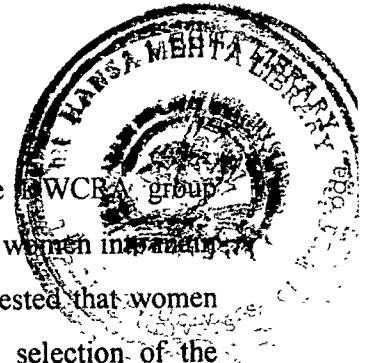
The main objective of the scheme is to improve the economic, health, education and social status of rural women by providing them assistance and creating employment opportunities. This will help them to become self reliant and raise their general standard of living.

Raghuvanshi (1982) reported that in the rural areas women are not employed in any remunerative worker for 247 days in a year and they are in need of gainful employment.

Sharma (1985) revealed that nearly 85 per cent of female population in the country were not able to participate adequately in economic reconstruction of the nation.

The findings of Concurrent Survey (1985) presented proceedings of Work Shop (1989) and studies undertaken by Prasad (1988) and Gautam and Singh (1990) on the impact of DWCRA scheme indicated that there was general awareness amongst the beneficiaries about the potential of DWCRA scheme, increase in the family income, the enhanced status of the village community and positive approach towards training imparted to them for improving their skills.

Dhillon and Hansara (1991) presented the list of income generating activities undertaken under the DWCRA as: Tailoring, embroidery, ready made garments, pickle making, papad making, bakery, candle making, soap making, chalk making, envelop making, agarbatti making, match box making, knitting, weaving, basket weaving, poultry, dairy, goat rearing, bee keeping, mushroom growing, fruits and vegetable processing, sericulture, grain processing and russi work (handicrafts), rope making and cane weaving.



Dhillon and Hansara (1991) gave a few suggestions to make DWCRAs group economically viable and more functional in nature and to integrate rural women into the main stream of development rather than isolating their activities. They suggested that women extension functionaries at the block level should be involved in the selection of the beneficiaries. The district and block level officials should have the authority to change the group. Those group activities in which the group members have no interest should not be forced on them by Government/department agencies. Only those activities should be selected for which capital investment is low and complicated technology is not required. Dependence on outside market for raw materials and maintenance should be minimum. Appropriate training should be imparted to the organizations and group members. Adequate financial assistance should be sanctioned. Supply and marketing societies should be formed. Middlemen should be eliminated. Rural Managers should be engaged on experimental basis in a few selected blocks of the country. Group members should be active and supervision should be done by officials. Grass root level officials should be given incentives.

Gautam and Singh (1991) conducted a study on DWCRAs in Kangra, Simla, Chamba and Mandi districts of Himachal Pradesh. The results showed 91 per cent target had been achieved under this scheme by the end of March 1990. But the progress of the units was not satisfactory. The reasons were - lack of co-operation and interest among group members, non repayment of dues and fee by members, non availability of raw materials, lack of technical knowledge and problem of marketing output. Only 53 per cent were getting benefits from the scheme. Twenty three types of different economic activities were pursued under this scheme. Milk production activity was pursued by 126 groups followed by vegetable production in Kangra. In Simla, production of vegetables was undertaken by 28 units followed by handloom production. In spite of 91 per cent achievement of target functional units were 67.17 per cent only. The main reasons were, improper selection of group activities, lack of co-operative zeal among members, non availability of adequate amount of raw material, high cost of raw material as compared to

finished products and lack of local demand and marketing facilities.

Sankaran (1991) prepared a manual for the Gram Sevikas in DWCRA wherein how Gram Sevikas should be trained to run DWCRA effectively was mentioned. He believed that women organised, empowered, 'aware and active as a result of DWCRA in every state would surely change the conditions of the poor.

Mahajan (1992) highlighted that through organization of women into groups as in DWCRA their participation in the programmes of rural development could be improved and thereby they could (i) enhance their earnings, (ii) acquire new skills, (iii) reduce their daily work load and (iv) have better access to credit.

To select economic activity to be talked the group should possess the features, (i) Availability of raw material locally or its procurement at reasonable transport cost, (ii) market for produce, (iii) small investment, (iv) simple skills that could be learnt in a short duration, (v) home based economic activity, (vi) fast recovery of sale proceeds or immediate receipt of sale proceeds, and (vii) easy availability and access to training facilities and other technical inputs

If income generation activity is started after making these linkages, the women would be able to generate more income and the trade would not be a failure.

Kumar and Kumar (1992) studied the extent of individuals and families who have been benefited from the developmental programme. This was assessed through studying the economic impact of different trades. Tailoring, dairy and mat weaving trades were taken up and 20 women of each activity were selected for the study. There was no scheduled caste beneficiary in dairy trade and no backward class in mat weaving trade. It was found that prior to the implementation of the scheme, 40 per cent beneficiaries were unemployed with meager income and the remaining were just wage earners. Their average

income had been increased to Rs.370 per month from a very low figure of Rs. 90. Nearly 30 per cent of them were able to earn above the average income. This indicates that this economic status had improved statistically. In tailoring trade, 75 per cent of them were able to get employment for more than the average days of 13 days in a month. The beneficiaries opined that they faced no serious problem with paper work for the release of loan. They showed their willingness to acquire common workshed to manage their produce. About 20 per cent of those engaged were found to be unemployed with meager income and the remaining were wage earner before they joined the scheme. The income of 40 per cent of the beneficiaries was increased up to Rs. 490 after the implementation of the scheme. On the other hand before implementing the scheme 40 per cent of those in mat weaving were unemployed and remaining were wage earners prior to becoming participants under DWCRA. Nearly 60 per cent were able to get the employment for more than 12 days in a month with increased income of Rs. 360 per month.

Manimekalai and Rajendra (1993) conducted a case study to gain insight into the physical and financial achievements under DWCRA in Tiruchirapalli district. It was found that out of the total beneficiaries identified, SC beneficiaries constituted nearly 50 per cent. The trade identified were largely related to agriculture which could exploit the locally available resources. The mode of identification of beneficiaries showed that they were neither identified in relation to the proportion to total female population, nor to the total work force. The scheme could succeed in covering just 0.5 per cent of the total population. One percent of the total female population, 0.58 per cent of the rural population, 2.21 per cent of the SC/ST population and 0.98 per cent of the total work force in 22 districts in 6 year period from 1986-87 to 1991-92. The credit and subsidy disbursement in various year of the two phases had shown that with little higher amount of disbursement in the Ist-phase, it was able to identify large number of beneficiaries and trades than the second phase.

Sivasankaraiah and Ramappa (1993) studied the impact of DWCRA in four villages, namely Bukkatnam, Janakampalli, Rolarypuram, and Gangavaram of Anantapur districts. The unit selected 4 types of activities, viz. bamboo, basket making at Bukkalanam and vegetable vending at Janakampalli and wild date basket making at Rolarypuram and two mat weaving units at Gangavaram village. The impact was assessed through income and employment generated through these units. It revealed that in bamboo basket making units, 30 beneficiaries were provided employment for more than 20 days in a month. Under mat weaving all the beneficiaries were getting work for 15-20 days in a month and the beneficiaries of wild date basket had work of 20 days for collecting the wild date fibers and making baskets. The vegetable vendors used to buy vegetables once in three days and used to sell in neighbouring villages and were getting employment for about 15 days a month. All the beneficiaries of all the units were highly satisfied with DWCRA programme and the group leaders. It was also learnt that 15 out of 105 beneficiaries were earning below Rs 3600 per year, 45 beneficiaries were earning income in between Rs. 3600 and Rs. 5000 a year and only 10 members were earning income above Rs. 6000 per year. The beneficiaries of bamboo basket making unit were earning more income than others. Thus 42 per cent of beneficiaries were earning more than Rs. 5,000.

2.5.1 SKILL TRAINING

Skill training is one of the core component of Government Sponsored Economic Upliftment Programmes (GSEUP). Most of the women, especially in rural areas, perform manual jobs that require very less skill due to which they enjoy a very weak position in labour market. A way to improve their situation is to upgrade their existing skills either in terms of speed, design, knowledge or introduce machines and train in use care, operation and maintenance of these or teach them new skills which have better market prospects. Therefore, the 1st objective of IRDP and DWCRA programmes is to train women in various income generation trades through TRYSEM. These training programmes benefit them to increase their family income.

Menon and Prema (1969) studied motivational pattern of rural women for their participation in training programme. The reason for participation in training were desire to learn and mix with others, desire to achieve some goals and seek solution for the problem and desire to utilise leisure time.

Dey (1981); Rangnekar (1992), Verma et al. (1992); Kaushik (1993), Jamal (1994) and Rangnekar et al. (1994) reported on rural women in livestock management, their decision making power, their extent of participation and time spent in dairy production.

Green (1981) focused on training needs and strategies to achieve self-reliance in rural areas. According to him the strategies should be designed to fasten and facilitate self reliance. Approaches to meet the satisfaction of basic needs should involve training in five main areas, viz. (1) training that relates to creation of small scale industries, (2) training to produce the required quantity and quality of artisans (3) training for various groups (i.e. women under employed, unemployed and youth) (4) training individuals in activities that help to satisfy material based needs for family and (5) training members of community in activities that prepare them for participation in group.

Ojha and Saxena (1985) pointed out that training for agriculture in rural area was significant of rapid technology transfer. Areas included food processing and preservation, operation of maintenance of improved agricultural tools, stitching and embroidery. Methodology used in the training was hands on training for self employed.

Chaudhary (1986) and Sharma (1992) and Kaushik (1994) recommended that training should be given for entrepreneurship development. Through small entrepreneurship women could be trained, motivated and brought into co-operative field. The Center for Women Entrepreneurship concentrates on training and encourage participation in productive activities Government programmes should be effective to organise training for rural women to become self reliant.

Tyagi (1988) stated different fields of training given by Stree Sewa Mandir viz. training in stenography, type writing, embroidery, radio servicing and repairing, food processing and preservation, cooking and packing, block printing, textile crafts and manufacturing of agarbatties.

Chandargai (1990) and Nand et al. (1994) explored training needs of farm women to establish relationship between personal characteristics and training needs and to determine the duration of training programme. It was concluded that through training centers, food production could be improved. The optimum preferred duration of training was 3 days with 1-3 hrs/day. Education and age did not show a significant relationship with participation in training programmes.

Rao et al. (1990) reported on a training programme that was being conducted in DWCRA project in selected income generating activities such as preparation of agarbatties, wax candles and baby food as desired by Mahila Mandal and proposed by Zila Parishad. The duration of the training programme was for 5 days each. It was found that a favourable change in the attitude was noticed in all those who had not participated earlier. Among all selected factors the gain in attitude after the training programme was found to be statistically significant. Attitude change was noticed when education and age were treated as constant.

Mishra and Tripathi (1991) examined the diffusion of agricultural information, training and transfer of technology for farm women.

Both Verma, (1991) and Verma, (1992) reported rural women in India were heavily involved in post harvest technology. After training, 57 percentage of farm women had assimilated scientific knowledge and their attitudes had changed. Further Verma, (1992) revealed that need based training could over-come the barrier of personal factors or limitations. Post harvest technology was relevant to farm women irrespective of their

personal profile variable.

Shreeshailaja (1993) conducted a study on training needs of dairy farming women. The preferred areas of training were health care for animals, balanced feed, care of pregnant animals and disease diagnosis.

Razia and Srinivasan (1993) studied the perception of trainees on the impact of training imparted by them for self employment in food processing and preservation and handicrafts. The results of the study were quite concrete and noticeable.

Ghosh (1993) organised a study by taking 20 women trained from the E.I.C.S. to ascertain the impact of training and found that 50 per cent women were earning more than Rs. 400/- per month after the training. This was regarded as an achievement. Before this training, women were mostly engaged in household activities and were doing some menial job where remuneration was either nil or it was a meager amount. This training seemed to have generated a new strength within these women

Jamal (1994) examined the role of farm women and extent of their participation in training programmes related to animal production tasks. It was revealed that various training programmes were related to higher productivity of milk and fodder crops. They concluded that development of suitable and appropriate time and efficient technology to help women labour oriented dairy animal production tasks would not only increase their efficiency but would also make more time available to perform other tasks more efficiently.

Manjula et al. (1994) commented that it was important to select farm women who were older members of the family as they had higher achievement motivation.

Leidenfrost's (1986) perception regarding empowerment concept, how it can begin

with or can be initiated by individuals and can be played out in near environment of home or in the community at large; Marion's (1992) conceptualization of empowerment for leadership; Cornell Empowerment Group's definition of empowerment characteristics and competencies needed by any one assisting in social and economic change; Synder's (1990) structure for empowerment to evolve at the grass roots level, Cochran's (1990) personality traits of an empowered; Seitz (1992) theory of empowerment process, Regina's (1991) idea about women's empowerment as a direction of social transformation, Sergiovanni's (1986), Jaina's (1996), Shield's (1992), Baker and Balakrishnan's (1992) and Bayer's (1993) conceptualization of empowerment have guided the author in designing the present study to measure differential levels of empowerment of beneficiaries through GSEUPs.