

THE LEVEL OF WOMEN PARTICIPATION
IN RURAL DEVELOPMENT T-39
A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF GOVERNMENTAL AND
NON GOVERNMENTAL ORGANISATIONS IN KERALA

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1994

CERTIFICATE



Certified that the thesis, "THE LEVEL OF WOMEN PARTICIPATION IN RURAL DEVELOPMENT - A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF GOVERNMENTAL AND NON-GOVERNMENTAL ORGANISATIONS IN KERALA" is the record of bona fide research work carried out by Ms. Molly Joseph, under my supervision. The thesis is worth submitting for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

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DECLARATION

I declare that the thesis "THE LEVEL OF WOMEN PARTICIPATION IN RURAL DEVELOPMENT - A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF GOVERNMENTAL AND NON-GOVERNMENTAL ORGANISATIONS IN KERALA" is the record of bona fide research work carried out by me under the supervision of Dr. Mary Joseph, T., Faculty Member, School of Management Studies, Cochin University of Science and Technology, Cochin-22. I further declare that this thesis has not previously formed the basis for the award of any degree, diploma, associateship, fellowship or other similar title of recognition.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION; METHODOLOGY AND DESIGN OF THE STUDY

Development is a dynamic process in the desirable direction. The desirability of direction and propriety of process have changed over the years in search of alternative strategies for sustained growth. From an unbridled development, the thrust was shifting gradually to development with justice and to self-sustainable development. The alternative strategies of growth were accepting not only the need for increased product but the prominence of the process as well.

The process of progress at times ignored the quest for distributive justice. The assumption that the fruits of development would naturally percolate from top to bottom proved to be erroneous. Reality belied the hopes of "trickle down" theories. The development theory reminded that the process could marginalise the majority and alienate them from the mainstream. Thus the process was found equally important as the product. The proclivity of the process to nullify the promises of prosperity had to be checked. The remedy prescribed the democratisation of the development process by the participation of those who were hitherto excluded and alienated. Imperatives of participatory development and

organisational innovations to promote them emerged as the new vistas of development discipline. The problem of women participation and issues of development organisations were evolved from these circumstances. The development history and its lessons, thus, turned to be the background of the study because, the concept of participation and the role of development organisations, especially non-governmental organisations (NGOs) emerged from development theory and strategies. The study of women participation in the development programmes of development organisations necessitated such a background for better understanding.

The present chapter is organised in nine parts, viz., (i) genesis of the study, (ii) statement of the problem, (iii) objectives of the study, (iv) scope and limitations, (v) hypotheses, (vi) data sources and key variables, (vii) sample design, (viii) methods of analysis and (ix) organisation of the study.

1.1 Genesis of the study

People's participation is the catchword in all social sciences dealing with people and change. In the development literature, the rationale of people's participation was widely accepted, especially in an era when the concept of the government changed from police and welfare state to

development state. The philanthropic urge of the society emerged in the form of non-governmental efforts for people's development. Both the governmental and non-governmental organisations were convinced from experience that unless the people for whom the programmes are implemented participate in the programme, there would not be any desirable outcome. The logic and utility of participation were accepted undisputedly.

The development organisations who were serious about people's participation later on realised that women who constitute half of the society should not be ignored in the participatory development process. Development is not complete without women. In fact, no society could afford to neglect or ignore women effort and energy. But, their role was ignored generally or unaccounted usually. It culminated in the criminal wastage of half of the human resources. The neglect of women slowed down the pace of progress and even reduced the progress. Thus involvement of women in the development process was not merely a matter of equality alone, but of necessity as well.

However, women were looked upon as secondary in almost all societies. They were constrained by the conditions prevailing inside and outside the house. The role of organisation, not only as an input for development, but as a catalyst of women participation was recognised as a part of

the participatory process. There were various organisational alternatives available to people like, governmental, non-governmental and people's organisations. The type of organisation was critical in participatory development, where proximity to people and their felt needs were essential to formulate successful participatory programmes. The very nature of the organisation or their programme might be antithetical to people's participation. Therefore, in the new development paradigms, the need for people's participation, especially of women and the role of organisation as an input for development were recognised. How these issues could be meaningfully combined and presented for a serious study became significant in contemporary development literature.

1.2 Statement of the problem

Women constitute half of the human resources. Traditionally, she was playing a vital role in the family as well as in the farm. With the emergence of the new challenges of the modern world, she was not reluctant to undertake the changing roles. Still she was treated as the silent producer. However, there is a recent recognition of women in all progressive societies and groups. With the world-wide acceptance of the participative philosophy in development, planners and policy - makers were giving equal thrust to women participation in the development process. Whether the

philosophy was accepted as a democratic right or as an administrative strategy was a matter of conjecture. But women participation was accepted as an essential input for development by governmental organisations (GOs) and non-governmental organisations (NGOs). Involvement of women turned to be a moral compulsion also. Thus, by accepting participation as a sound philosophy and useful strategy, development practitioners were keen to increase the involvement of women in development programmes and projects. It was an acceptance of the role of women in the production process and was an attempt to improve the plight of the neglected women folk. Further, participation will arrest the age-old subordination of women in the society and will take them to the mainstream of the development process. It will not only increase their income and quality of life, but will also ensure for them values of democracy and equality in the society.

Given the genesis, logic and utility of women participation, the basic issue was how to ensure and enhance it in the development programmes of various development organisations. The problem of operationalising the wisdom of women participation requires an understanding of the existing rates of their participation and a knowledge about the factors and forces which prevent or promote them. Imperative of such

an understanding or knowledge was badly felt by development organisations, policy-makers and academicians in the event of formulating or suggesting sound policies and programmes for women participation. Therefore, the basic problem of the present study can be stated as an enquiry into the existing degree and determinants of participation of women in the development programmes of governmental and non-governmental organisations in the rural context of Kerala and the interrelations among the various variables involved in the problem.

1.3 Objectives of the study

The study is intended to estimate the existing rate of participation of women beneficiaries in the development programmes of different organisations in Kerala. It would enable one to understand whether participation is at the satisfactory level or not. Given the rate of participation, the major thrust of the analysis is on the impact of governmental and non-governmental organisations on the rate of participation. This is undertaken under the assumption that NGOs, due to their proximity to people and their needs, ensure better participation rates. Besides the organisational differences, the other major determinants of women participation such as their socio-economic characteristics, psychological make up, the nature of the programme etc. are

also highlighted. • Since the ascribed status of women in society is inferior, the role of organisers, development personnel and local leaders is also pointed out. Thus the basic objective of the study is women participation and its determinants in the development programmes. With this thrust of the problem, the major objectives of the study are the following.

- (i) To assess and compare the rate of participation of women beneficiaries in the development programmes of governmental and non-governmental organisations in Kerala.
- (ii) To estimate the degree, stages, type and method of women participation and their dependence on the type of the organisation and the nature of the programme.
- (iii) To identify the existing institutional arrangements for participation in different organisations and their influence on the participation of beneficiaries in the respective organisations.
- (iv) To highlight the major determinants of women participation such as personal, organisational, social and economic factors and forces which influence the given rate of participation and their interrelations.

- (v) To bring out the attitude and perception of organisers, development personnel and local leaders towards participation in general and women participation in particular and their influence on the existing rate of participation of women beneficiaries.

To understand the problem in a better perspective, the status of women and development organisations in the society in which they are working was also analysed. Since the study was meant to test the existing theories of participation and the role of development organisations, an attempt was made to study those theories in brief in the introductory chapters. Policy implications of the findings and tentative suggestions for better participation of women beneficiaries also formed the objectives of the study.

1.4 Utility, scope and limitations

In this section, conceptual, operational and analytical scope and limitations of the study are examined. Practical utility of the study of women participation in the development programmes of GOs and NGOs are the following:

- (i) The concept of participation, or participatory development is two decades old and classificatory knowledge on definition, type, method etc. of participation is also developed. United Nations

Research Institute for Social Development (UNRISD) and many other sister organisations of the UNO have participatory endeavours as a relevant topic still in their agenda. Same is the case with many governments and other development organisations. But, a theoretical model consisting of the degree, type, method and stages of participation, the factors and forces which determine them, their interrelations etc. are not yet comprehensively examined and analysed. The theoretical part of the present study is an attempt in these directions.

- (ii) The significance of organisation, especially non-governmental organisations as an input for development is increasing over the years. The developmental function of the state is the latest addition to the government programmes and the development partnership of the governments with the non-governmental organisations is taking place everywhere. Still, the form and functions of NGOs are not evolved completely. The World Bank¹ remarked a decade ago that the terminology of NGO had not evolved. Korten² found that, this is still the case. The present study has utility in formulating a theoretical review of the role of GOs and NGO in development, organisational

input for participatory development and empirical investigations examining the differential impact of organisations on various dimensions of participation.

- (iii) Although two decades have passed after celebrating the International Year for Women (1975), the plight of women has not changed drastically. In an era of contemporary significance to the concept of participation and the role of organisational input for development, their interrelation with women need not be exaggerated.
- (iv) The study will not only add to the pool of scientific knowledge in social sciences, but will also result in meaningful conclusions with policy implications. They will benefit the planners and organisers who are serious to frame policies to promote women participation in the development programmes, especially in the rural context.
- (v) The present projects and programmes meant for women can be modified realistically on the basis of the conclusions and recommendations of the study. The study will also help to identify the existing research gaps in the field and will highlight the scope for further research in the field.

Since the problem of women participation in the development programmes has originated from participatory development and role of organisations in development, development theory stands as the background of the study. A knowledge of the evolution of the concept of development/development strategy and the changing role of GOs/NGOs offers proper perspective to understand the present problem of the study. Since participation and NGOs are very relevant in development literature, development theory is included in the study as genesis. The development theory has importance only as an explanatory objective. The thrust of the study is the organisational impact of women participation and other participatory determinants.

Again, it is to be noted that the present study did not have any intention to measure the impact of participation on development. Development is a function of innumerable variables and participation is only one among them. Hence it was neither intended to bring all development variables nor to iterate the role of participation. The thrust of the study is to estimate the degree of participation and to identify the various determinants of it, including the organisational impact.

People's participation in the socio-political and economic activities in the society is a wide area covered by

social scientists hailing from different disciplines. With the advent of democratisation of the development process, the idea of people's participation shot up into the lime light of academic discussions. The concern over women's status and participation highlighted the gender dimensions of the problem. But, the thrust of the study is neither the gender bias in development activities nor the influence of the status of women on participation, although both these variables are analysed inter alia in the present work. The emphasis of the study is on the degree of women participation at different levels of programme planning and implementation of GOs and NGOs. As such, the scope and limitations of the study, including the assumptions and constraints at conceptual, operational and analytical levels, are explained in an organisational perspective of development.

In the participatory approach to development, there is no distinction between male or female participation, mainly because, as human beings, both are the subjects and objects of the development process. Conceptually women participation is only an application of the general theory of participation, in the context of a specific group, based on sex. However it was assumed that sexual prejudices prevail over policies and programmes at all stages of women participation leading to

differences in degree, stages and method of their participation.

The factors which determine the role of women in the society influence their participation also. The degree and determinants of women participation are therefore conditioned by societal factors and they cannot be separated from personal, organisational and social factors of respondents.

At the operational level, the scope of the study is limited to development organisations. Among the various government organisations, only District Rural Development Agency (DRDA) which implements rural development programmes is taken, though there are many development departments and their development programmes are in vogue in the State. As far as NGOs are concerned, they are innumerable in number and varied in their type of activities. Only those voluntary organisations involved in development activities, like, creating income through production schemes, generating employment, imparting skill for employment/production and offering facilities are taken. They were called Voluntary Development Organisations (VDOs). Organisations like Co-operatives, Mahila Samajams, Nehru Yuvak Kendras etc. were excluded.

It was quite difficult to find out the population of VDOs and hence it was estimated with the help of reliable and learned sources. The study pertained to 1988-92 and covered women beneficiaries in the selected GOs and NGOs in the selected districts of Kerala State. Due to the diversity of activities undertaken by the selected NGOs, it was difficult to get beneficiaries of uniform programme from all the organisations. Hence, in the analytical stage beneficiaries were classified according to the nature of the programme in general rather than on the basis of specific programmes.

Thus, the major assumptions and constraints limiting the scope of the study were the following:

- (i) Participation was defined as the involvement of the people in the affairs which affect them.
- (ii) Participation was accepted as a value as well as a means to improve project performance. However, the impact of participation on development was not intended to be estimated because development is a function of innumerable quantitative and qualitative variables. The thrust of the present study was limited to the degree and determinants of women participation.

- (iii) Women participation was taken as the involvement of women beneficiaries in the programmes sponsored by GOs and NGOs in Kerala.
- (iv) GOs and NGOs were considered as third party organisations for the people.
- (v) The ideal or optimum conditions for women participation was based on certain minimum expected conditions for their involvement. Since these ideal conditions were assumed as same for all beneficiaries of the selected organisations and programmes, in the calculation of effective participation as a ratio of actual and ideal participation, it was natural that ideal value as denominator was same for all beneficiaries.
- (vi) GO meant District Rural Development Agency in Kerala.
- (vii) NGO represented only Voluntary Development Organisations (VDOs) involved in directly beneficial development programmes, viz., production schemes, factory based employment, imparting skill to enhance productive capacity and facilities to improve efficiency and amenities.

- (viii) Since many of the members of the Board of Directors of the selected NGOs were hailing from distant areas and even outside the state, getting sufficient number of organisational personnel was too tedious to accomplish.
- (ix) Development programmes in the rural context alone were taken. They were either completed or ongoing during the study period, that is, 1988-1992.
- (x) Computerised results were used in the analysis.
- (xi) In the secondary data used for analysis, wherever data were dissimilar from different sources, data from Government of Kerala sources were taken.

1.5 Major hypotheses

With deductive reasoning and empirical logic many hypotheses could be formulated in the case of women participation in the development programmes of GOs and NGOs. They are in the field of degree of women participation and interrelations among its determinants. Hypotheses regarding possible relations between degree of participation, stages of programme implementation, method of participation, type of organisation, nature of benefit, characteristics of participants, role of organisational/development personnel,

local leaders etc. can be developed. The hypotheses tested in the present study are as follows:

- (i) Degree of women participation is relatively lower in GOs than in NGOs.
- (ii) Degree of women participation is directly related to the nature of the programme.
- (iii) Degree, stages and type of participation are interrelated.
- (iv) Higher the degree of participation, lower will be the wilful non-participation.
- (v) The psychological make-up, socio-economic characteristics like level of education, family/project income, experience, age and attitude of the respondents influence their participation rates.
- (vi) Better the institutional arrangements for participation, higher will be the degree of women participation.
- (vii) The given participation rate of women beneficiaries will be generally in tune with the attitude and perception towards participation of organisers and development personnel in their organisation.

(viii) Attitude and perception regarding women participation of local leaders in the project area of organisations will be generally in consonance with the average participation rate of women.

1.6 Sources of data and key variables

Major sources of secondary data used to analyse the problem were the publications of international organisations like United Nations Organisation (UNO), Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (ESCAP), United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO), United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), United Nations Research Institute for Social Development (UNRISD), International Labour Organisation (ILO), Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) and relevant documents of Government of Kerala, Government of India, Indian Council of Social Science Research (ICSSR), Centre for Monitoring Indian Economy (CMIE), Census Commissioner of India, Kerala State Planning Board, Bureau of Economics and Statistics, State Commissionerate of Rural Development and State Registrar of Co-operatives. Data published in books, journals and newspapers were also used for the analysis.

The key variables of the study were related to different dimensions of participation and associated

determinants. Indicators of status of women (life expectancy, literacy, infant mortality, work participation), details of rural development programmes (type of programmes, number of beneficiaries, financial outlay, physical achievements etc.), position of development organisations (number, type of activities, amount and people involved) etc. were collected from secondary sources.

The critical variables for primary data collection were related to organisation, programme and the respondents such as women beneficiaries, organisational personnel, development personnel and local leaders. Schedule was framed to collect details regarding selected organisations such as year of inception of the organisation, regional jurisdiction, details of projects (completed and ongoing), details of General Council members/Board of Directors, details of staff and all institutional arrangements for participation at pre-planning, planning, implementation and evaluation stages.

Respondent interview schedules were five, which were meant to collect data on (a) level of participation (b) attitude to women participation, (c) socio-psychological determinants, (d) participation scale for general attitude to participation and (e) perception regarding participation.

Using the first respondent interview schedule, data were collected on 13 biographical details such as age, education, family income, assets, job, facilities at home etc. and details on 21 avenues for participation in development programmes. Attitude to women participation was measured on the basis of responses to 21 statements reflecting (a) status of women, (b) right to property, (c) role of women at home/ in work, in decision-making, joint dining/outing etc., (d) ability of women (e) inevitability of women's income, (f) association with organisations and attendance in meetings, (g) expected role of women and other related variables.

Some of the critical variables used to measure the socio-psychological make up of the respondents were (a) mass-media contact (b) self-esteem (c) social belongingness (d) personal efficacy (e) major activities at leisure (f) habit of social participation and reasons preventing social participation and (g) organisational links.

Attributes regarding general attitude towards participation was collected through a five point participation scale. Twenty four selected questions based on the opinions of selected judges were administered to respondents who were free to express their responses to a five-point scale ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree including a chance for no remarks.

Perception towards people's participation was quantified on the basis of responses towards nine situations like (a) level of participation at pre-planning, planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation stages (b) opinion about apt people to be participated (c) idea about degree of participation in different stages of programme implementation, nature of people, nature of programme and type of organisation (d) meaning of participation in development programmes and (e) instances and techniques of participation.

1.7 Sample design

Primary data were collected from women beneficiaries of governmental and non-governmental development organisations. Organisational personnel, development personnel and local leaders were the other respondents. In order to conduct sample survey, population list was readily available in the case of GOs. But, there was no readymade or even haphazard frame for NGOs. A reasonably reliable population list for NGOs was made on the basis of personal enquiries and responses of mailed questionnaires.

Thousands of societies are being registered under the Societies Registration Act, 1860 and Travancore-Cochin Literary, Scientific and Charitable Societies Act, 1955. Arts and sports clubs, literary associations, mahila samajams,

trusts, voluntary organisations etc. come under these Acts. There are neither any lists of societies registered so far, nor any provisions to identify the names of voluntary development organisations either at district or at state level offices of registration. Hence to serve the purpose of the study, lists of voluntary organisations were collected from the Directorate of Social Welfare, State Office of the Council for Advancement of People's Action and Rural Development (CAPART), State Legislative Secretariat and leading social workers.

There were 415 organisations in Kerala receiving funds under the Foreign Exchange Regulation Act (FERA)³. The number of organisations assisted by the Directorate of Social Welfare was 329 but none of them were Voluntary Development Organisations (VDOs). CAPART had maintained a list of 72 organisations which includes names of individuals and arts clubs. As per the All India Directory of Voluntary Organisations in Rural Development⁴ there were 106 NGOs in Kerala. Many of the names of organisations available from different sources were certainly overlapping and had apparently non-developmental functions.

A list of 280 organisations spread all over Kerala without duplication and apparently developmental in nature was prepared. A preliminary questionnaire was mailed to all the

280 organisations • to get institutional information. After screening the filled in questionnaires 51 organisations were selected based on the criteria of registered VDOs having sufficiently large volume of developmental work and having more than five years of experience in the field. This formed the sample frame of VDOs in the different districts.

A multi-stage sampling design was adopted for collecting primary data. In the first stage three districts were randomly selected from the list of districts in Kerala to identify the sample units for GOs, that is, DRDAs, for the sample survey. Each district has a DRDA. The DRDAs and VDOs in these three districts were the relevant GOs and NGOs respectively for the study. In the second stage from the three selected districts, three NGOs each were randomly selected for detailed study, from the final list of VDOs in those districts. More than 50 per cent of the total VDOs in the state are working in these three districts. Thus, the total number of development organisations selected were twelve, which included three DRDAs and nine NGOs.

In the third stage sample units for primary data collection were selected. These sample units were women beneficiaries, organisational personnel, development personnel and a sizable number of male beneficiaries. Local leaders also constituted the respondents of the sample survey. The

list of beneficiaries, organisational personnel and development personnel maintained by the selected organisations were taken as the sample frame from which samples of respondents were selected randomly. Organisational personnel consist of Director Board members of NGOs and Governing Body members of DRDAs for GOs. Development personnel include paid executive staff like project officers, field officers or programme officers of NGOs and project officers, block development officers and village extension officers of GOs. Local leaders include important persons in the project area of selected NGOs/GOs such as panchayat presidents, presidents of local co-operative banks, secretaries and presidents of mahila samajams, District Council members etc.

Of the total sample size of 554, women beneficiaries were 360, male beneficiaries 73, development personnel 61, organisational personnel 30 and local leaders 30. The sample size of women beneficiaries per selected organisation was 30, which implies that female beneficiary respondents of GOs was 90, and that of NGOs, 270. The sample size of development personnel was 31 for GOs and 30 for NGOs. Organisational personnel had a sample size of 15 each for both GOs and NGOs.

1.8 Method of analysis

The analytical design of the study is descriptive and diagnostic in nature to find out the level of women participation and related determinants. It explores the role of various variables and their interrelations in altering the level of women participation. It also describes the degree, stage and method of participation.

As far as analytical tools are concerned, ratios, indices, scoring techniques, rank correlation and measures of central tendency were frequently used. By using bivariate tables, the relations between different variables at different levels, stages or classes were found out. Likert Scaling technique was used to prepare scientific scales for participation. Normal deviate test (Z-test) was applied to know whether the mean participation values of two groups were significantly different or not. The relation between rank in institutional arrangement for participation and rank in average participation of women beneficiaries in the respective institutions was found out by Spearman's Rank Correlation. Wherever more than three ranks had to be associated, Kendal's Coefficient of Concordance was applied. For all the statistical measures computerised results were used.

Pilot survey was conducted to perfect the interview schedules according to the field conditions. All the six types of interview schedules (one institutional schedule and five respondent schedules) were pre-structured and scheduled to administer to the respondents.

1.9 Organisation of the study

The present study is organised in seven chapters, viz.,

- (i) Introduction, methodology and design of the study
- (ii) Review of women studies
- (iii) Women participation - a conceptual framework
- (iv) Development organisations and women in development
- (v) Women participation in development programmes
- (vi) Determinants of women participation
- (vii) Conclusions and suggestions

The subject matter of the first chapter is the statement of the problem, objectives, scope/limitations of the study, hypotheses, method of data collection and analysis.

Review of literature is presented in the second chapter which includes literature on theoretical discussions and empirical studies on women. It covers the areas of the role of women in development, gender bias, role of development

organisations in the upliftment of women, case studies conducted on the role of women etc.

Two chapters are meant for theoretical discussions (chapter three and four) and another two chapters for analysis (chapter five and six). In the third chapter, a conceptual framework about women participation is given with details of definition, role and rationale, means and methods, determinants of participation, women participation and related variables and a model for women participation.

The fourth chapter discusses the importance of organisational input for development, typology of development organisation, role of women in development and development organisations for women.

Analysis is bifurcated into fifth and sixth chapters. In the fifth chapter, analysis with secondary data forms the first part. Secondary data were used to provide insight into the present position of Kerala economy, status of women in Kerala, especially in development programmes and position of governmental and non-governmental organisations in the State.

A detailed analysis of degree, stages, method and type of participation is undertaken in the second part of the fifth chapter. Influences of type of organisation and nature of

programme on different dimensions of women participation are highlighted in the fifth chapter.

Major determinants of participation were identified and analysed in the sixth chapter under the subtitles of beneficiary characteristics, other relevant variables, gender dimensions, institutional arrangements, organisational/development personnel and rural leadership.

Summary of inferences/observations, conclusions emerging from the analysis, policy implications, scope for further research and suggestions to improve women participation are the contents of the last chapter.

References cited in the text of the thesis are given at the end of the respective chapters. Bibliography is also appended after the final chapter after which Appendices are given.

Selected References

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CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF WOMEN STUDIES

Literature on women studies is voluminous. It embraces all walks of women's life. However, the thrust is uniformly the same - the inferior status of women in one form or the other, under various pretexts and their consequences.

Status, as the relative position of female with respect to male ought to be the same. But due to various reasons it is not equal. In fact, an inferior status and role are ascribed to women. Once the inferior status is accepted by the society, it is expressed in the attitudes and behaviour of people and also in the activities of all man-made institutions and organisations. A male-dominated society is, thus, originated and ongoing. Given the inferior status to women, it turns to be the source of gender biases - implicit and explicit in different forms which refuse gender equality and result in gender-based discriminations, accepted generally by the society with the exceptions of few protests by progressive men and women.

Women participation in development is also not free from gender dimensions. In the development process, gender bias takes the form of alienation of women from the

mainstream, lesser or no benefits to their efforts in terms of return or recognition, discriminatory policies and programmes, no control over resources and regulatory institutions including education, employment and technology and even physical drudgery and mental agony.

The review of available literature on women participation in the development programmes of various types of organisation is organised in five sections. They are (a) gender bias in development (b) role of women in government programmes, (c) NGOs and women (d) empirical evidences and (e) conclusions. Gender bias in development is further classified into six sub-sections. They are (a) statistical bias, (b) exploitation/undervaluation of women's work, (c) alienation from the development process, (d) absence of control over resources/decisions, (e) discrimination in education, extension and technology, (f) gender based division of labour and (g) dual role of women.

2.1 Gender bias in development activities

Development is assumed to be sex-neutral. But policies and programmes can be biased towards males under the pretext that they are either the bread winners or physically superiors. Even with legal protections and regulations, men can be unfair to the fair sex as family head, employer,

programme personnel, organisational leader etc. The gender biases perceived and practised in various fields of development process such as exploitation in work, discrimination in opportunities and benefits, non-recognition of contribution, neglect etc. are presented forthwith.

2.1.1 Statistical bias

Innumerable factors retard the participation of women in the developmental activities. Besides such factors, the computational bias in quantification will also accentuate the problem. Lack of understanding regarding the actual role of women, conceptual deficiencies and operational inadequacies in statistical methods will result in underestimation or even non-estimation of women's contribution. Many studies highlight statistical bias in underestimating women's role in development, some of which are given below.

Women are denied an acknowledgement of their work because their role in home-based production is rarely enumerated. According to Aiyar¹, the biased statistics on workforce is best reflected in statistics dealing with female labour. If the gender biases in data collection are changed, the differences in figures will be quite startling. Another study² revealed that the census definition of labour force keeps nearly half of the active women population outside the

usual notion of labour force. In fact, 30 per cent of the active women are engaged in productive work within the household.

The concept of worker in the Census of India had been pointed out as one of the important factors identified for the declining female work participation rate³. Bilgrani⁴ also pointed out census underestimation as a reason for declining secular trend in women participation in economic activities. The overall data on women's participation in agriculture understate the importance of their work in producing food⁵. It is also reported⁶ that, many women are enumerated as non-workers as they themselves report that they are neither available for work nor seeking jobs though they have good amount of work at home.

Jayalakshmi⁷ is of the opinion that statistics pertaining to women's participation in the workforce is deceptive as they under-represent the number of women actually engaged in productive work and underestimate the value of their work. The definition of 'worker' by Census failed to account many types of workers engaged in agriculture, animal husbandry, cottage industries and small trade as gainfully employed. Besides this, their economic contributions as labour at home are not recognised as it lacks monetary or market value.

Gita Sen⁸ points out that the most serious undercounting of women workers has taken place in the Census years-1931, 1951 and 1971. Agarwal⁹ has also documented cultural bias in Censuses due to respondent bias and conceptual bias. The respondent bias arises mainly from the fact that the enumerator and respondent are usually male and also due to the biased wording of the question originating in a biased brain. The conceptual bias arises from the fact that apart from wage work, other works performed by women are not accounted as economic contribution. The same observation is made by Robbins¹⁰. It is pointed out that most of the women's work is left out in GNP calculation. Ela Bhatt¹¹ points out that the available official statistics are highly contradictory and grossly underestimated in the case of home-based workers where women dominate.

A detailed scrutiny¹² of the definitions and estimates of the three Censuses and NSS rounds led to the conclusion that the enumeration of female workers was adversely affected as soon as the concepts of main and secondary work were introduced. The ordering of the questions also affected the enumeration of female workers. If the very first question sought the nature of work performed than a distinction of workers and non-workers, a larger number of women workers would have been included.

The National Commission on Self Employed Women¹³ pointed out that although women work for longer hours and contribute substantially to family income, they are not perceived as workers by the data collecting agencies and government.

Thus, it has been found that work of the women may not be reflected in data due to the biased outlook of the agencies collecting the data. Statistical bias result in the underestimation of the role of women in development. It presents a distorted picture of GNP and maintains a lower status for women in family and society. It further dissipates development policies and programmes.

2.1.2 Exploitation/under-valuation of women's work

Women's work and worth are generally under-valued and hence underpaid. This is basically due to the assumptions that females are inferior in capacity to males and no family runs by the income of females alone, that is, the earnings of women are only supplementary. This violates the principle of equal wage for equal work. However, one can see several such occasions in real life and some of them are documented here.

Women labour force is predominant in agriculture in Third World Countries. Since women's work is devalued, subsistence agriculture is nurturing a large army of cheap

labour¹⁴. Few case studies showed that in Central Nigeria, female's contribution is 100 per cent in cases of weeding, storage and processing for almost all crops. In Asia, women work 14 to 17 hours per day. Yet most of their work go undervalued in an economy which puts premium on marketable work. The major causes of differential income are reservation of better opportunities of employment to men, discriminatory wage, exploitation through policy prerogatives and unduly long working hours for women. Mitra and others¹⁵ remarked that women labour force in India is a reserve pool of helpless labour.

It is rightly observed¹⁶ that half of the women's work is unpaid and the other half is underpaid. Whatever work women do at home is unpaid and work outside is underpaid. There is no country where considerable differences are not found between the earnings of men and women¹⁷. This is because either women are concentrated in traditionally poor paid women's work or they are penalised in mixed jobs. Nina Rao¹⁸ found concentration in low paid or non-preferred jobs, discrimination in hiring/pay/promotion, conflict between maternal and work rules and prevalence of male superiority as the characteristics of the working conditions of modern female workers.

Moser and Young¹⁹ point out the reasons for poor pay of women as privatisation of women's work and putting of women as subsidiary workers. According to Banerjee²⁰ women's economic position was worsening because their role in the traditional economy slowly became redundant while their gains in the modern sector remained negligible. In a study about garment industry²¹ it was found that home-based production system provided cheap labour to the industry. The natural skills of women were utilised in those home-based work and the availability of large number of women maintained low wages among them.

Usha Jumani²² points out that women's work at home-based production is only one of their multiple roles at home. Women in Bangladesh are increasingly being propelled into home-based production due to growing poverty, landlessness and incidence of female-headed households. The low rates of wage for the women farm labour as pointed out by the National Committee²³ are due to the unorganised nature of employment, the ease with which hired labour can be substituted by family labour, the seasonal nature of the demand for labour and the traditional reservation of certain jobs for females.

Thus, it is observed that women are ignored inside and outside home. In agriculture, home-based industries and traditional firms, women participation is high, but benefits

are negligible. •Reasons are many. But results are the same - retaining inferior status, low payment and poor working conditions for women.

2.1.3 Alienation from development process

Women have a positive role to play in the development process. But they are never conceived as equal partners in this process. Why women are held outside the mainstream of development or the reasons for neglecting their potential roles are brought to light by certain studies which are reviewed here.

Many macro and micro researches have documented that in development women's economic status has stagnated, especially in developing countries²⁴. It is observed that women's involvement in the Indian economy is low and declining over the years. Economic development in India has not been able to take women into its fold²⁵. They are either left out or at best are unequal partners. The factors like falling work participation rate, labour market segmentation, wage discrimination, declining sex ratio and decrease in nutritional status of women prove this fact. However, the proportion of women in the total work force has gone up in almost all OECD countries²⁶. One of the essential factors for

this trend is the increase in the number of married women going out to work.

Choudhary²⁷ observed that development plans and supportive measures in the country have overlooked the need to strengthen women's production roles. The general tendency is to direct development plans for men and social services or welfare schemes for women. Typical projects for women are activities outside the mainstream of development and neglecting the basic roles of women in agriculture²⁸.

According to an ILO study²⁹ women around the world face more obstacles than men in setting up their own business. Alagh³⁰ opined that work participation rate among women is low in the country due to factors like predominance in household work, illiteracy, physical handicap and poorer vocational training. The class/caste hierarchy and patriarchal ideology also determine the extent of female participation.

According to Ruth and Richard³¹ one reason for the negative impact of development on women has been the tendency of planning to concentrate in the industrialised and monetised sectors of the economy which are dominated by men. Informal and subsistence sectors where women's contribution is generally high are not given the priority they deserve. A Seminar³² concluded that the prevailing models of development

tend to work to the detriment of rural women, denying them recognition as producers and contributing to alienation. There should be conscious efforts to change the conditions of women from inequality to equality³³. But a shift from the welfare to the development aspect of women took place only in the Sixth Plan. Well articulated national policies for increasing women participation in development is still lacking.

Studies conducted all over the world establish the fact that women are the basis of subsistence economy. Ninety four per cent of them are found in the unorganised sector³⁴. Women constitute nearly 60 per cent of the rural and 56 per cent of the total unemployed. The basic problem of women in the unorganised sector springs up from helpless dependence, inadequate opportunities, illiteracy, limited skills, restricted mobility and inferior status.

It can be noticed from the given studies that women are dominating in the subsistence and unorganised sectors which are not the major areas of development plans. Planners and their programmes are thus biased, resulting in the alienation of women from development process. Socio-cultural milieu of the country further augments the situation.

2.1.4 Absence of control over resources/decisions

Women have limited command over resources and regulatory institutions. It prevents them from getting equal opportunities and a fair share of returns in the society as well as in the family.

The status of women as well as men to a larger extent is determined by the amount of resources at their command³⁵. But this command should be individualistic than familial or societal. Due to the non-recognition of the role played by woman, she does not have any access to the resources, credit and technology³⁶. This is the base of all social discriminations against her. Women as a group have had a lower proportion of the economic resources in the world system³⁷. With the arrival of the monetary economy, women in subsistence economies found that they had limited access to monetary resources.

Women are lacking not only command over resources but also control over regulatory institutions and decision-making bodies. Insufficient involvement of women in decision-making is a major constraint on women participation. Farm women's participation in decision-making on agricultural practices, marketing etc. varies from region to region. Permitting farm women to have access to their earnings will confer them with

decision-making authority in their families. In the primary sector women contribute sometimes more than men, but enjoy no control over their earnings³⁸.

It is generally observed that one of the chief reasons for a female's lack of familial status is the absence of control over income or earnings. Many middle-class working women find themselves no better than any other house wife in terms of possessing any authority in earnings³⁹. Employment per se does not ensure women status.

It is found that women have limited access not only to resources and decision-making process but also to their hard earned incomes. It deprives their opportunities for effective participation.

2.1.5 Discrimination in education, extension and technology

Education, extension and training will enrich and empower women. Technology will equip them to acquire new skill and to lessen their drudgery. The following studies highlight how far these factors have enabled women to participate more effectively in the economy.

It is widely known that the present high illiteracy among women is one of the major constraints on their scope of employment and social status. Educating women has greater

multiplier effect than educating men⁴⁰. Buxi⁴¹ is of the opinion that literacy alone can make women realise their potential and equip them for better employment and wages. The sex-wise educational imbalance impairs women's contribution to development. By imparting technical and general education to women, their condition can be improved⁴². Discrimination against women in education and employment opportunities systematically excludes them from participatory growth⁴³. Education and training are not made available on an equal basis to women⁴⁴. Even when they gain necessary education/training, they do not have equal access to career opportunities.

Despite the important role of women in agriculture, agricultural extension programmes hardly reach any women⁴⁵. The awareness of techniques if any, is not due to extension but by curious "listening". All programmes of transfer of technology in agriculture tend to bypass women which deprive them the status of skilled labourers and to get rightful return⁴⁶. The existing channels of communication in the development programmes do not have provisions to reach women folk.

Women have not become the targets of change whenever technological innovations are introduced⁴⁷. Women generally learn the job as understood and practised by men. Alagh⁴⁸ is

of the opinion that modernisation and mechanisation tend to marginalise women workers. In many traditional areas of women employment, technology replaces women. In many countries, transfer of technology has worsened the employment and health conditions of women⁴⁹. Mechanisation in agriculture is mainly to help men's work⁵⁰. A technology gap exists between men and women. The profit of technology flow is largely to men and even adverse to women. Technology is both a part of the problem and a part of the solution to women. Elimination of drudgery from the life of rural Indian women can be had only by the adoption of appropriate technology in her day-to-day life⁵¹.

Technological changes in production methods call for new skills. Women handicapped by the lack of new skills will find themselves unwanted by the new economy⁵². Decay of village industries and negative impact of industrial technology also affected women.

It is observed that educational imbalances and bias in extension programmes limit the opportunities for women. It is also found that technology gap exist between men and women. These will impair effective participation of women in development.

2.1.6 Gender-based division of labour

Whether there exists any separation of jobs on the basis of sex is as important as the existence of preferred or non-preferred jobs for men and women. Studies mentioned here enquire the extent of such bifurcation and the factors behind it.

The traditional labour market has always been separated into male and female sectors⁵³. Development has further accentuated the separation. Differentiated use of women in gainful or non-gainful employment is the result of not only unequal opportunities in education/training but also adverse attitude of employers. Concentration of female workers in low paid or non-preferred jobs is generally observed⁵⁴. Women are pushed from skilled to unskilled tasks. In a paper on the role of women in USSR it was stated that sexual division of labour persists inside and outside the family⁵⁵. Soviet women are concentrated in economic sectors that rank low in status and pay. It is observed⁵⁶ that the labour market is not neutral to men and women. Gender inequalities exist in almost all sectors. The division of labour is highly sex-biased. Operations which fetch higher wages are male privileges whereas work of arduous nature, bringing lower wages are earmarked for women. The urban informal sector which is a low paid one has higher proportion

of women. In the organised sector 90 per cent of the women are found in unskilled jobs.

When modern techniques are introduced women are displaced since they have no requisite skill or as the scapegoat of technological unemployment. The best available jobs are safeguarded for men. Not only technology, but also policy formulation like New Agricultural Strategy resulted in displacement of female labour⁵⁷. The impact of new agricultural technology on farm women was deleterious and displaced them from their jobs. The commercialisation of agriculture and fisheries displaced female labour. It has been widely noted in India that female tasks become male tasks with a higher wage when new equipments are introduced⁵⁸.

A study of Bengal showed that women were pushed out by men when they needed jobs⁵⁹. Even in tea industry where women are considered essential, women lost their jobs in times of depression in favour of men. Computer technology has replaced the routine work of women⁶⁰.

According to the nature of job and the degree of drudgery, there exist apparent division of labour on the basis of sex, especially in agriculture and the informal sector. It is found that difficult and monotonous tasks are reserved for

women and wherever technology lessen the drudgery, men will occupy that job.

2.1.7 Dual role of women - farm and family

Women are the invisible input for work in the family and farm. While undertaking work in the farm or in the home-based industries alongwith routine family work, how far her work load is distributed and why she is running after a job over and above routine work are reviewed here.

The dual role of women as paid workers outside the family and as unpaid workers in their family leads to real contribution to an economy⁶¹. However her role is usually underestimated. A reliable technique should be evolved to quantify her contribution, especially non-monetary contribution.

The time budget of a rural woman is allocated for collecting and sorting fuel, cooking and processing food, fetching and transporting water, earning for the well-being of the family, craft, kitchen gardening, caring animals, cleaning, washing etc. everyday⁶². According to Asha, women have a larger role to play as primary feeders in the family and as workers in farm or cottage industries⁶³. It is argued that peasant women are significant providers of family subsistence⁶⁴. The invisibility of women's work is part of a

cultural system which views men as the primary breadwinners⁶⁵. According to Shanti⁶⁶ invisibility of woman as an economic entity is at the root of her low status.

When a family is controlled by a woman, the family is relatively more benefited because 90 per cent of her income will be spent for the family. Today many married women who go for work believe that they ensure betterment of the family. In many families employed women look after budget⁶⁷. Women headed households are there in the society, mainly due to widowhood, migration, desertion or illness/unemployment/addictive habits of their husbands⁶⁸. Census data usually give the female-headed households as around 10 per cent. A study reveals⁶⁹ that there are more women headed households among the poorest (upto to 35 per cent).

Women are undertaking a wide variety of jobs in their homes from dawn to dusk. Farm and home-based industries are part of her house itself. It is observed that due to financial compulsions, she is even forced to find out a remunerative job in an outside firm or farm.

2.2 Role of government organisations

Participation of women can be ensured by deliberate and diligent attempts of organisations. Governmental organisations can do a lot in this direction since they

embrace all spectrum of social life and occupy extensive power and resources. The role of government is reflected in its constitution, policy documents, reports of expert committees, programmes etc. Literature on government organisations and women participation are classified into (i) women in policy and programmes of government and (ii) government committees on women participation.

2.2.1 Women in policy and programmes

The Working Group on Employment of Women⁷⁰ has emphasised that a policy of promotion of women's employment has to go hand in hand with the broader social policy of strengthening women's participatory roles and empowerment in increasing their dignity. A study⁷¹ on status of women in Asia and the Pacific region found that governments appoint women commissions, but when it comes to plan and budgets, women's commission is left out conveniently. The approach of government to women's development is one of ad hocism, leading to marginal benefits⁷².

The official agencies in India since independence have undertaken many programmes of women development. But they actually restricted women's participation in such activities⁷³. The models of rural development did not contain any special provision for rural women. They neglect

contribution of women outside home. In spite of high participation in agriculture, programmes for agricultural development bypassed women⁷⁴. When governments consider agricultural services and the transfer of assets to the poor, women are not considered as appropriate recipients.

Government interventions with respect to women are programmes to raise income and to improve health⁷⁵. Ineffectiveness of health programmes is well documented and in the case of income generating programmes women participation is below 20 per cent. A study by Rath⁷⁶ clearly shows the ineffectiveness of income generating - programmes in identification of beneficiaries and actual increase in the income of women. Certain studies⁷⁷ show that most of the beneficiaries including women of the IRDP were from marginal and landless households. About 28 per cent beneficiaries had a significant increase in income also. A study by Mies⁷⁸ highlights that women had to struggle to get loans. Acquisition of milch animals increased their work but resultant income was not in their control.

The programmes of official agencies for women have been marginal in development activities which restricted women's participation in government programmes.

2.2.2 Government committees on women participation

Since 1970, at the national level and international level, measures have been taken to solve the problems of women by setting up expert committees, conventions and meetings. The various national and international documents arising out of these actions are reviewed in the ensuing paragraphs.

In 1971 following a resolution of the Ministry of Education and Social Welfare, the Committee on the Status of Women in India (CSWI) was constituted at the instance of the UN General Assembly by the Government of India (i) to evaluate the changes that had taken place in the status of women as a result of the constitutional, legal and administrative measures adopted since independence (ii) to examine the impact of the complex processes of social change on various sections of Indian women and (iii) to suggest measures which would enable women to play their full and proper role in building up the nation. The presentation of the report - 'Towards Equality' in 1974 coincided with the celebration of 1975 as International Women's Year. The Committee urged that community organisations, particularly women's organisations should mobilise public opinion and strengthen social efforts against oppressive practices in the country. Formation of Women's Wings in all trade unions, to look after the problems of women workers to improve women's participation in trade

union activities was among the recommendations of the Committee.

To operationalise the recommendations of the CSWI, a 'Blueprint of Action Points and National Plan of Action for Women, 1976' was formulated by the Government of India. This in turn led to the presentation of the 'Report of the Working Group on Employment for Women, 1978' as well as the 'Report of the Working Group on Development of Village Level Organisations of Rural Women, 1978'. It also formed a part of the Sixth Five Year Plan exercise. The impact of these reports resulted in a separate chapter on 'Women and Development 1980-85' in the Sixth-Five Year Plan. It also resulted in women being perceived as productive contributors to the nation's economy.

Following an agreement signed between the Ministry of Agriculture and Irrigation, Government of India and the Food and Agricultural Organisation, a 'Report of the National Committee on Role and Participation of Women in Agriculture and Rural Development-1980' was submitted. The 'Report of the Working Group on Personnel Policies for Bringing Greater Involvement of Women in Science and Technology-1981', reviewed the extent of participation of women in scientific establishments and suggested measures for promoting greater involvement of women in science and technology. In the

Seventh Five Year Plan, the Planning Commission moved further away from the "welfare" approach of the Sixth Plan to a more positive "developmental" approach to women's concerns. The Indian Parliament adopted a 'National Policy on Education-1986' which included a chapter on 'Education for Women's Equality'. The Government of India launched the 'Twenty Point Programme' in 1975 pinpointing areas of special thrust. The programme has been subsequently recast and redefined in 1982 and in 1986 with 'Equality for Women' as a thrust area.

The 'Report of the National Expert Committee on Women Prisoners (1986-87)' identifies the gaps and drawbacks in existing facilities and services for women offenders and recommends a more humane policy for them. The National Commission on Self Employed Women and Women in the Informal Sector was appointed in January 1987 to look into the ways and means to ameliorate the sufferings of the unprotected labouring women. In its report called 'Shramshakti' (1988) the Commission has outlined many comprehensive policy recommendations towards this end. In 1987 a Core Group was set up by the Department of Women and Child Development to formulate a National Perspective Plan for Women 1988-2000 A.D. The report was released in October 1988. The Plan views women not as the weaker segment of society or as passive beneficiaries of the development process, but as a source of

unique strength for reaching national goals. The Plan aims at (i) economic development and integration of women into the mainstream of the economy and (ii) equity and social justice for all women. The Plan recommends that the Census in future must take into account women's unpaid work in the household and outside as well as the value added in performing her many survival tasks for the family. A greater conceptual clarity has to emerge on 'work' and 'non-work' as well as a distinction between work that produces economic value and other activities that are consumption oriented. The strategy in the Eight Plan (1990-95) is to ensure that the benefits of development from different sectors do not bypass women and special programmes are implemented to complement the general development programmes. The National Commission for Women (NCW) was set up on 31st January 1992 for monitoring the implementation of safeguards provided for women under the constitution and various laws.

Many developments have taken place at the international level also during this time to strengthen the cause of women. The year 1975 was declared as International Women's Year by the United Nations. As a result of the World Conference held during June-July 1975, the 'Declaration of Mexico Plans of Action-1975' was adopted. The purpose was to promulgate 30 principles on the equality of women and their

contribution to national development and international peace. In December 1979, the U.N. General Assembly adopted the 'Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women'.

A mid-term appraisal, 'Programme of Action for the Second Half of the United Nations Decade for Women: Equality, Development and Peace' of the World Plan of Action adopted by the World Conference of the International Women's Year, took place in Copenhagen in July 1980. The Ministry of Social Welfare prepared a paper, 'India - A Status Paper-1980' to review India's progress in attaining the minimum objectives and presented at the World Conference of the U.N. Decade for Women. The paper also highlighted the constraints and problems faced in promoting participation of women in development.

ESCAP held a preparatory meeting for the World Conference on Women, at the Ministerial level in March 1984. The meeting resulted in the 'Report of the Regional Inter-governmental Preparatory Meeting for the World Conference to Review and Appraise the Achievements of the United Nations Decade for Women : Equality, Development and Peace-1984'.

At the Ministerial level, another conference took place in April 1985 of the Non-Aligned and other developing

countries. The intention was to approach the World Conference on Women with full knowledge of their achievements and failures, as well as to evolve a strategy to tackle the problems confronting the world. The recommendations were compiled into 'New Delhi Document on Women in Development-1985'.

At the end of the United Nations Decade for women, the World Conference was held in Kenya in 1985. The World Conference adopted 'Forward Looking Strategies for the Advancement of Women-1985' to serve as guidelines for creating a new world order based on equality, development and peace. For the closing conference of the Women's Decade, the Ministry of Social and Women's Welfare prepared 'Women in India: Country Paper-1985'. This status paper assessed the impact of the Decade on the development of women, the constraints that exist and strategies for the advancement of women.

The first Ministerial meeting on Women in Development was held in Shillong in 1986 at the invitation of the Government of India. It resulted in publishing the 'Women in Development: Report of SAARC Ministerial Meeting, 1986'.

Reports of Committees, Conferences and Conventions of national government and international organisations have reinforced the need for women participation in development and

suggested measures for the same. They have created an awareness about women participation worldwide and influenced the policies and programmes of both governmental and non-governmental organisations.

2.3 Non-governmental organisations and women

While government organisations are inflexible and conservative, a change in the outlook of the society to increase the participation of women can be created only by the non-governmental organisations. The need for organisations to mobilise women is materialised by NGOs. However, there can be limitations on their part. The present section of review is dealing with (a) need/functions of women organisations and (b) advantages/limitations of NGOs.

2.3.1 Need and functions of women groups

Autonomous organisations organise the women and fight against discrimination⁷⁹. Review of different projects and strategies reveals that income-generating activities can be effective if women are organised in groups⁸⁰. By agreeing with the importance of grass-root organisations, it is pointed out that all NGOs should have women units or wings at all levels to ensure women's rights⁸¹. In Malaysia there was no bonded labourers as there were effective women's organisations in villages. Women problems can be resolved only by their own

struggles for a more productive and just social order. GOs, NGOs and separate women organisations can perform complementary functions to protect the interests of women⁸². Alagh⁸³ observed that lack of organisation is the root cause of exploitation of women, especially in the unorganised sectors. Women organisations should precede women programmes.

Organisations of women can take many forms, viz., mahila mandals, mahila samajams, anganwadi, women's wing of NGOs, beneficiary groups etc. The objectives and functions of such organisations need to be explored and analysed. Kalpana⁸⁴ found that the formation of Mahila Aghadi, the women's wing of a voluntary organisation in the Nasik district of Maharashtra and women's participation in its meetings contributed a significant break in tradition, especially with regard to property rights.

A working class women organisation was formed in Jamaica which underwent all sorts of hardships and criticisms initially⁸⁵. Later they could fight for better status of women's work and working women. Singh⁸⁶ sums up the achievements and weaknesses of a women's group in Chandigarh. The group could conscientize many students on women's rights.

The strength of women's organisations in a given locality depends on women's role in production, attitude of

villagers etc. • Women's congress are supposed to be an effective form of organisation to bring women on a larger scale⁸⁷. Its delegates should be democratically chosen and should represent ordinary women. Women organisations in China served as communication channels of party and government to pass on policy information to masses.

Vimochana, a forum for women's rights in Bangalore organised women in slums, industries etc. and aroused issues of oppression and discrimination⁸⁸. It showed the idea that no action can be done for somebody else; it has to be done by the concerned themselves. Sehgal⁸⁹ explained the success of a local women's organisation who took the initiative to plant trees in the area of common land. They could bring trees and forests near to their villages which decreased their efforts to bring fuel and fodder. The efforts of Mahila Samajams⁹⁰ in raising the levels of living of rural families are reported from Kerala. Mahila samajams were also successful in making people realise the importance of cleanliness, nutrition, savings, family planning etc.

National Perspective Plan for Women for 2000 AD⁹¹ stated that a separate mechanism should be evolved to involve poor women in the development programmes of GOs and NGOs.

Women's organisations are growing out of spontaneous needs or established by a few to face identical problems⁹². Spontaneous organisations usually grow outside the established system and face difficulties in reaching top decision-makers, while the centrally established organisations may not have proper linkage with the target group. Women's organisations need to become financially independent, otherwise the integrity and direction of the organisations will be eroded.

2.3.2 NGOs - Advantages and limitations

Non-Governmental Organisations have played a major role in experimenting with different approaches and strategies of work in women's development. Because of their flexible operational style and greater empathy, they are more capable than GOs to represent local needs and issues and to tailor their strategies to meet the changing needs. NGOs are also supporting government programmes. However, by affiliating and sponsoring government programmes, many NGOs lost the role they played to change the condition of women⁹³. Because of their growing dependence on government patronage, many of them have been downgraded as satellites.

NGOs can act as watch dogs of women's rights. They can act as pioneers, help to mobilise women, play educational role and create participation structures. NGOs can also

ensure that women's interests are reflected in public policies. They are in a better position to mobilise women to resist indignity, exploitation and humiliation. NGOs can also build women's organisations as a basis for association and interaction.

NGOs have proliferated as an effective complement to government agencies in providing social services to women at local levels in many ESCAP regions⁹⁴. In India, Government and Chipco activists made women as the mainforce in social forestry programme⁹⁵.

Women's issues do not get prominence or due attention in the larger organisation. Women participation at the level of leadership remains far behind. Sen⁹⁶ points out that only 15 per cent of all NGOs work with women while the proportion of exclusive women NGOs will likely to be much smaller. Geographical distribution of women NGOs is also uneven. Some of the NGOs themselves take the role of employer and deny maximum benefits to women⁹⁷. Women's organisations have to be prepared for challenging various types of domination relationships of patriarchal society. Because of the growing tendency of dependency on funding agencies and government, many NGOs lost their pioneering role⁹⁸. Many smaller NGOs were left out of government machinery. They have no access to government. Financial dependence is bound to affect NGOs

adversely if the resources are withdrawn or lessened⁹⁹. It also erodes their integrity and direction.

There is a need for the government to encourage voluntary action for the development of women by provision of adequate financial and structural support. The planning process should be decentralised to stimulate local people's participation in planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of development projects. A suitable mechanism should be evolved to involve voluntary agencies and people's organisations at various stages of developmental programmes/projects. NGOs should further ensure the participation of poor women in the development process.

2.4 Empirical evidences

This section deals with case studies conducted by various researchers to find out the extent of women participation in the different sectors of the economy and to identify the factors which determine such participation. It is divided into (a) participation in agriculture (b) participation in industry and (c) role of organisations in participation. Forty two case studies are reviewed here.

2.4.1 Participation in agriculture

Rural development activities can increase women's

economic contribution to the household. Jose¹⁰⁰ in an attempt to study women's participation in rural development programmes found that there is positive effect on the income of the beneficiaries. The access of women to programmes was found to be determined by literacy, availability of employment, social conventions etc. The study area was two blocks of two districts of Kerala. Sample size was 276 beneficiaries and 60 non-beneficiary households. It was also observed that, owing to the operation of IRDP, women's employment increased by 27 per cent and income by 33 per cent.

A study by Dak¹⁰¹ conducted in four districts of Haryana with 160 respondents from four villages found widespread participation of women in agricultural activities. In nearly half of the activities considered, women are playing a dominating role. Farm mechanisation and improved practices have affected female labour participation adversely.

The level of women participation in family affairs and farm activities were the major objectives of a study by Shobha¹⁰². Primary data were collected from four villages of two districts in the Telangana region of Andhra Pradesh on the basis of random sampling method. The analysis showed that though the participation of female agricultural labourers were dominant in many activities, they were not recognised properly due to traditional socio-economic conditions, superiority

feeling of male family members and lack of self-organisations of women.

The objective of a paper by Singh¹⁰³ was to study the degree of involvement of women in farm and family work and to quantify the impact of new technology on employment and decision-making. From 21 villages of the Almora district of Uttar Pradesh, 144 families were randomly selected as the sample for the study. On an average, three-fourth of the total work in agriculture was performed by the female members of the family. Men were playing dominant role in decision-making. Since the real worker was different from the real decision-maker, the application of improved agricultural technology was hindered. Since extension workers were approaching male members and females were less educated, impact of innovation was limited.

In a study of female agricultural labourers in two districts of Andhra Pradesh by Gattuswamy¹⁰⁴, it was found that they were paid less compared to men. In a case study of Palghat district in Kerala by Saradamoni¹⁰⁵ it was found that legislations regarding property rights, marriage and inheritance were against due recognition of the participation of women in land.

The study entitled "Agricultural Modernisation and Third World Women"¹⁰⁶ analysed the effect of agricultural modernisation on women. The study is based on data from Tamil Nadu and Andhra Pradesh. It was observed that (a) rural women work for longer hours than men (b) distribution of food within the family tended to favour men (c) men controlled income (d) female-headed households increased and (e) women tend to lose more from a scheme than the men of their class. In a study on the impact of dairy scheme on a pastoral community of Maharashtra, it was found that there was no positive change in favour of women¹⁰⁷. Since the membership of the co-operatives were in the name of men, they got control on milk income. Yet another study in Maharashtra¹⁰⁸ on the effects of agricultural development on income revealed that (a) modernisation worsened the conditions of women (b) women had little access to modern technology and (c) social, political and religious factors caused to give inferior status to women in farm and family.

The impact of acquisition of land by urbanities on different classes of farmers was analysed by taking 100 families from different categories¹⁰⁹. Acquisition had adverse impact on women-folk of all categories either by losing employment or by lesser control on compensation amount spent. In a study¹¹⁰ to find out the extent of participation of women in jute cultivation, a sample of 50 farmers was

randomly selected. The study showed that women were involved in six operations of jute cultivation and the contribution of female labour was 17 per cent of total labour requirement.

In a study¹¹¹ among female agricultural labourers, conducted in ten villages of Assam it was found that average mandays per female worker was lower in cultivator families than agricultural labour households. By selecting 104 farm women by stratified random sampling method from four villages of Andhra Pradesh, a study¹¹² has observed that informal groups of farm women earned higher than the other women daily wage earners. Women had meagre role in large farm families. In women headed households and small farm families, women had a critical role in decision-making.

A study¹¹³ on women's involvement in wheat and paddy cultivation in Haryana observed that women performed 90 per cent of headload work and weeding and about 65 per cent of harvesting. Tasks which were less drudgery-ridden were assigned to men. There was greater need for educational rather than technology programme to emancipate women in agriculture.

The role and participation of women in agricultural production system in the villages of coastal West Bengal were studied¹¹⁴ and it was found that women were fully responsible

for fruits and vegetable production in homestead farming. A study¹¹⁵ about the role of women in agriculture was conducted in Orissa with a sample size of 404 farm families. The study highlighted that women played a significant role in agricultural activities and existing extension system was not sufficient to offer farm information to women. Tribal women also do important farming operations and share with men in all major decisions in the family. By selecting 120 rural farm couples from eight villages of Andhra Pradesh, a study¹¹⁶ was conducted to identify the factors which affected the role performance of rural farm women. Some of the reasons for the non-performance of certain expected roles were traditional sexual division of labour, economic hardship, improper functioning of social organisations, illiteracy etc.

Joan¹¹⁷ examined the jobs women did in rice cultivation as labourers and supervisors in Kerala villages. The study revealed that women are required for fewer jobs, but in larger numbers. It was also found that labour unions did not give sufficient attention to women. The objective of the study by Banu¹¹⁸ was to find out the role of women in livestock production and the result showed that the role of women was highly significant in rural families. Women participation and productivity are found to be high in animal husbandry than in any other agricultural activity.

Kaur¹¹⁹ examined the role of women in farm and family activities and their participation in rural development programmes. Three hundred and eighty respondents were selected through stratified random sampling method. Women were playing vital role inside and outside the family. The extent of participation in decision-making was not in line with their participation in production. In development programmes they were involved in programmes related to family welfare and not to development schemes.

2.4.2 Participation in industry

Mitra's¹²⁰ objective was to examine female participation in household and non household industry in comparison to male. Women were in employment in low earning sectors of the economy. Economic activities at household level engaged females in higher proportion than non-household sector. An indepth study on the decline of women's participation in the work force of the textile industry in Bombay by Misra¹²¹ revealed that industrialisation has discriminated heavily against women. Decline of women workers occurred through a policy of not recruiting women as employers. The main issue was not that of equal pay but of equal opportunities for employment.

An exploratory research was conducted by Joshi¹²² to evaluate the impact of women's employment on work processes, organisational policies and practices. A sample size of 99 employees from an electronics firm was taken. The apparent differences in work values of men and women were found out by 't'-test. It was observed that though women had longer years of work experience, they were earning less than men by doing non-technical jobs. Women placed higher value on security and safety.

A study by Malavika¹²³ about 80 sweeper women of Delhi based on participant observation proved that with urbanisation poor women were put to many pressures. Employment has not increased their decision-making role in the family. In a different study¹²⁴ to identify the changes emerging from education and employment of women in family, a sample size of 160 couples of Visakhapatnam was taken. The major finding was that women's education and employment had helped to change role performance, decision-making and behaviour patterns for egalitarian relations. In a study by Charyuler¹²⁵ of two South Indian villages it was highlighted that though the dependence of women on men is strong, they do have a strong desire to participate in public activities to gain equal status.

One of the objectives of the study by Mehta¹²⁶ was to examine the extent of differences in employment and earning opportunities among similarly educated men and women. The study revealed that there exists clear inequalities in employment opportunities and earnings among men and women despite similar levels of education. A case study¹²⁷ of women in beedi industry showed that 75 per cent of households received income below the poverty line and cast doubts on home-based industries as a strategy to improve the earnings of women.

Linda Lin¹²⁸ examined the phenomenon of preferred female employment and its effects on women in Malaysia and Singapore based electronics industries. The study has pointed out that women had a natural advantage in electronics industry and had higher productivity than men. Low wages and easily exploitable characteristics of women workers led to a massive increase in labour intensive industries. Female-friendly technology was not a solution to unfair working conditions of women in multinational electronics industries. In yet another study¹²⁹ about women in 52 units of electronics industry in Bombay and Pune of Maharashtra, it was revealed that if women are given preferences in certain sections like assembling and packing, those industries would be capable of absorbing more women workers.

The study of Das¹³⁰ was aimed to analyse the role of female workers in the coir and cashew processing industries in Kerala. Sample size was 20 units of the industries. It was observed that division of labour on the basis of gender prevailed. Women were put to severe jobs and when innovations were introduced, women were replaced by men.

2.4.3 Participation and organisations

The participation of women in rural development through the organisations of women (Mahila Mandals) at grassroot level was studied by Jain¹³¹. Data were collected from 15 mandals of five states. It was found that leadership in the majority of mandals was confined to high castes. These organisations were playing important roles in nutrition, education and family welfare programmes. Lack of proper management led to the failure of certain mahila mandals, whereas enthusiastic leadership and emphasis on economic activities ensured success.

An assessment of the rural development programmes by Rekha¹³² showed that community development programmes had no special provision for the integration of women into development. The mahila mandal was conceived as an organisation for this integration. But women's programmes and mandals failed due to the adoption of welfare model rather than developmental model for women.

A case study¹³³ of four women voluntary organisations involved in employment generation for women highlighted that it was the compulsive need for income that motivated women to work. Earnings of women went essentially for the purchase of daily needs.

Kalpana Shah¹³⁴ by analysing the objectives and programmes of a voluntary organisation in Gujarat found that welfare programmes are not really strengthening the developmental needs of women. By adopting an ideology which assigns inferior role to women, organisation became a hindrance to women's liberation. Marty Chen¹³⁵ highlighted the need for NGOs to identify the target group and appropriate schemes to assist government to formulate programmes for dairying. By taking four case studies on women in dairying it was pointed out that NGOs had a role to act as intermediaries between different growth agents and women beneficiaries.

In a case study¹³⁶ to assess the role of NGOs, it was found that village associations and mahila mandals played a pivotal role in the family welfare and development programmes. Manoshi Mitra¹³⁷ evaluated the role of dairy co-operatives in Andhra Pradesh in promoting organisational skill among women and assessed the impact of co-operativisation. She observed that though women did almost all dairy related tasks, they did not own cows. It was also noted that attempts to establish

exclusive women co-operatives were resisted by men. It was the better-off families who controlled the co-operatives and benefited most. Carla Risseuw¹³⁸ observed from her experience among women producers of coir in Sri Lanka that organisation was the key to combating the exploitation of home-based coir producers. In a case study¹³⁹ of five occupational groups of home-based women workers, the authors found that large number of women were unionised within a short period and could get easy credit. The reasons for the success were, ordinary women as leaders, exclusive focus on women and emphasis on income-generating activities.

In a study¹⁴⁰ of women entrepreneurs in Delhi with a sample size 50 entrepreneurs, it was pointed out that entrepreneurship cannot be developed unless confidence is created to start own ventures. Other limiting factors were social pressure, doubts about women's capacity and diffidence of financial organisations.

The impact of Differential Rate of Interest Scheme of two public sector banks in Bombay on home-based industry was analysed by Jana and Mira¹⁴¹. It was found that bank employees depended on local brokers to identify clients which reinforced the existing exploitative relationship. The authors concluded that the best alternative to this

patron-client system is to mobilise women's organisations to intermediate with banks.

2.5 Conclusions

Literature on participation of women in various development activities at all levels, viz., in the family, farm/firm, organisation and the economy are available and some of them have been reviewed. There is no dispute among academicians or policy makers regarding the need for effective participation of women in all spectrums of national life as equal partners. Available literature soundly substantiate the imperative of women participation.

But gender biases exist in practical policies and programmes which result in undervaluation and underestimation of women's work, alienation from development process, discrimination in facilities and opportunities, absence of control over resources and decision-making etc. Even the statistical estimations are biased against women. All these factors increase the burden of women and deteriorate their status in the society and family. It also shows that women are participating in all economic activities but that is neither accounted nor rewarded properly. Non-participation is mainly due to the factors alien to her own personal characteristics viz., cultural, social, organisational, economic etc.

The review has enabled to understand the existing factors and forces which determine the participation of women in development activities. However, studies in general lack (i) a general theory of participation which theoretically introduce various types, degree and stages of participation, relevant variables and potential relations among them and (ii) an objective methodology to estimate the degree, stages and type of participation and to identify various socio-psychological and economic determinants. While certain international studies attempted to provide a theoretical framework to the problem, very few studies tried to estimate different dimensions of participation objectively. A sound theory and an objective methodology for women participation are not combined in any single study in the development context. In other words, it implies that a study on women participation in the rural development programmes of development organisations has not been attempted seriously in any study. The present study is an attempt in that direction, of formulating a theoretical framework for participation and finding out a suitable methodology to objectively determine the different dimensions of women participation and its determinants. The various studies available at present in this regard will be highly useful in these attempts.

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CHAPTER III

WOMEN PARTICIPATION - A CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

The models of 'alternative development' have transcended the narrow boundaries of existing development discipline and have proceeded with a multidisciplinary approach. The nature of development programme has changed from indifferent bureaucratic exercise to dedicated democratic expression. Participatory development has turned to be the catchword of development planners and practitioners. "There is growing consensus at national and international levels about the importance of participation both as a means and as an objective of development"¹.

Participation is a sensitive issue and women participation is more sensitive. The issue is made complicated by the indiscriminate application of the term 'participation' irrespective of the contexts. Hence there are plenty of words analogous to the term participation, viz., involvement, support, empowerment, mobilisation, joining-in, co-operation etc. The exact meaning of the term can be correctly conceived only if the objectives, values and the contexts in which it is used are explicitly expressed. Hence, any systematic study of the problem of participation warrants an indepth insight into the matters such as scientific

definition of the term, rationale of the issue, means/methods involved and interrelations among the various variables influencing the problem. Women participation and related variables highlight gender dimensions of the issue. It brings to one's notice the polemics of status of women, gender bias in development, sexual discrimination etc. The subject matter of the present chapter is organised as an attempt to answer all these basic issues involved in the problem. It is presented as (i) definition of the concept (ii) role and rationale of participation (iii) means and methods (iv) factors of participation (v) women participation and its determinants (vi) a model for participation and (vii) conclusions.

3.1 Definition of the concept

Participation is a catchword not only in development literature, but in all disciplines dealing with social change. But considerable degree of confusion prevails with policy makers and social scientists as to its meaning, substance and implications. Hence it may be correct to say that "the problem with the banner words like participation is their vagueness and confusion to which they give rise to"². Confusions are mainly due to the application of the same terminology in innumerable contexts with varying implications.

In the common parlance, 'participation' is supporting a programme of government departments or voluntary agencies by the beneficiaries. For government, participation is a means to secure confidence and support for their programmes from the public. It can be a means to mobilise resources or to create awareness. To many of the private development organisations, participation is a vital ingredient for the success of their programmes. It can be used as a means to influence decision-making and as a method to empower the participants. It seems that, in accordance with the objectives, the meaning of the term 'participation' varies. But people participate because the specific activity either affects them or they get some benefits in return. Participation is a voluntary action of an individual. Therefore, participation is the voluntary involvement of the people concerned, in the affairs which affect them on a quid-pro-quo basis.


Governmental organisations (GOs) and non-governmental organisations (NGOs) organise development programmes for the people and the people for whom the programmes are planned are asked to participate in the areas permitted by the sponsors. This is a case of limited participation. Effective participation is possible only if participants and organisers are one and the same. This is possible in a situation where people themselves form an organisation to satisfy their felt

needs. Thus, beneficiaries and organisers are members of the same organisation, or the programmes of the members are planned, implemented, shared and evaluated by the members and for the members. It implies that real and effective participation exists only in the need-based people's organisations. But in almost all studies, participation means involvement of the people in the programmes of governmental or non-governmental organisations, and not the other way, that is, governmental or non-governmental participation in people's programmes. The major reason for this is the lack of self organisations and predominance of GOs and NGOs in development activities. Hence, participation implies involvement of beneficiaries in the programmes of third-party development organisations and effective participation is the rate of actual participation compared to maximum permissible participation.

Participation is self-doing in the context of a group. It implies that without group, participation has no relevance. In a democratic group, all are equally important but direct participation fails when the size of the group is big. Larger the group, greater will be the chances for representative participation. Practically the development department of a democratic government and a large people's organisation resemble in the indirect participation of beneficiaries. The

differences with people's organisations are (a) membership is voluntary (b) extent of work is limited and (c) interests are homogenous. Direct participation is possible only in a viable size of organisation.

In a democratic socio-political context, participation at macro and micro levels have different dimensions. At the macro level, participation is the right of the people in the resources and regulatory institutions of the society. For instance, a radical of model Dag Hammarskjold Foundation says that, "community participation involves collective action of the people against socio-economic and political forces of oppression within the community and with wider national and international contexts"³. UNRISD holds the view that participation is a recent manifestation of an old aspiration for a just society and opines that "the central issue of popular participation has to do with power exercised by some people over other people and by some classes over other classes"⁴. Since economic malady in the society is a function of power and resources, participation is a struggle for redistribution of power from power holders to powerless. Hence the idea of participation held by UNRISD throughout their publications on participation is that "participation is the organised effort to increase control over resources and regulatory institutions in given social situations on the



parts of groups and movements of those hitherto excluded from such control"⁵. Thus participation at social level implies redistribution of power in favour of powerless.

Many adjectives are found associated with the term participation which provide a classificatory knowledge of the concept, viz., passive participation, development participation, ritualistic participation, real participation, administrative participation, effective participation etc. Acceptance of programmes and their benefits without any opposition is called passive participation⁶. Development participation is access to resources and distribution of benefits⁷. Ritualistic and real participation are different in degree of control over decision making by the concerned participants⁸. Administrative participation transfers citizens into a reliable instrument for achieving administrative goals⁹. Typology of participation can be arranged from zero participation (even negative) to perfect participation as a measurement of degree of participation as illustrated by Sherry Arnstein¹⁰.

Effective participation is normally defined as the ratio of actual and required rate of participation. Greenley arithmetically calculated the rate of participation and defined effective participation as "a ratio of actual involvement over involvement required to effectively pursue

specific activities at a given level of representation for the group concerned"¹¹. As long as the required participation is a normative concept, quantification of effective participation will be arbitrary.

Thus, the term participation, as such, does not convey too much, unless it is expressed with respect to given objectives, values and social contexts. Under different contexts, the term can imply a value, a right, a process, means etc. However, it is generally conceived as the involvement of the people in the affairs which affect them. Size of the organisation constraints direct participation. In a broader framework, participation is the right of the people in controlling social resources and regulatory institutions. But, real participation emerges only in the context of self organisations or people's organisations, where, participants and organisers are one and the same. Since need-based self-help organisations are meagre in number, relevant organisational contexts for participation are governmental or non-governmental agencies and their programmes. In a nutshell, participation, as one finds today, is the involvement of beneficiaries in the programmes sponsored by governmental or non-governmental organisations.

3.2 Role and rationale

The role and rationale of people's participation vary according to the philosophy of organisers, nature of the programmes and objectives of the participants. The role assigned by development practitioners to participation is wide and varied. In general, participation is accepted as a development input to improve delivery system, to heighten commitment, to enable change with minimum protest, to ensure distributive justice, to devise realistic plan, to bring the under privileged to the mainstream, to mobilise local resources/initiatives, to prevent alienation process, to create better linkages, for better use of overheads etc.

ESCAP observes that "the participation of people can be seen as an added resource helping to expand the organisational, financial, skills and service resource base for social development programme administration"¹². In a democratic country, participatory development process is complementary to the political system. Economic reasons for participation are its potentialities as a development input to mobilise resources and to ensure success of the programmes. Participation of the people for whom the programmes are chalked out is a moral compulsion. And socially, participation process enhance social learning and

understanding. • Thus participation as a principle and policy has political, economic, moral and social reasons to prevail.

Participation is inevitable for realistic planning. "Participation, thus, provides a better information, mutual understanding and more realistic planning"¹³. Without the involvement of the people for whom the projects are made, all development efforts are a waste. Participation makes the organisations responsive to the views, aspirations and needs of the beneficiaries. It is not an utopian ideal but a pragmatic tool. Therefore, "popular participation in development was desirable not only for ethical and moral reasons, but also for functional, utilitarian reasons as well"¹⁴.

Though there is a general consensus about the imperative of people's participation irrespective of the nature of the political system and the degree of development, there are a few anti-participation ideologies also. While a few people accept intervention as an effective alternative strategy, some others consider participation as a compromise with real issues. There are a few others who argue for limited participation on the basis of competency and efficacy. Thus, the anti-participation ideologies are three, viz., (a) limited participation (b) intervention and (c) encounter.

There are academicians who challenge the basic assumptions of participation, viz., (a) people are the central theme of development (b) people know their problems better than others (c) people are competent to solve their problems and (d) participatory group is above parochial and hierarchical considerations. Those who question the validity of these assumptions argue for limited participation.

Elizabeth Howe¹⁵ holds the view that certain projects like construction of roads and bridges do not require any participation but responsive administration only. She considers beneficiaries as clients and not as masters of administration. Dantwala Committee, while accepting the wisdom of participation, cautioned that, "if we wish to plan for the weak, the plan may have to be imposed from the above and cannot be a product from below, in which below is dominated by the rich and the strong"¹⁶. In brief, Sherry Arnstein presents the arguments of limited participationists as "it supports separatism, it creates balkanisation of public services, it is more costly and less efficient it is incompatible with merit system and professionalisation"¹⁷. Thus limited participationists justify their arguments on the grounds of competency, cost, cohesion and compatibility.

The encounter model presumes that participation in a governmental programme is a compromise, crippling the real

interests of the people and a sabotage attempt to procure actual control over resources and regulations. It will prevent the transfer of power from the powerful minority to the powerless majority. Radical views of UNRISD, PIDER, Dag Hammarskjold Foundation etc. are in line with these ideas.

Intervention as an anti-participation ideology is based on the assumption that there are cases where others are better informed about the interests of beneficiaries than the beneficiaries themselves. Development experts are supposed to know what can improve the lot of the poor than the poor themselves. Hence, according to this ideology, an "enlightened intervention" can do only good to the people than the passive participation of ignorant people.

All the anti-participation ideologies assume participation as a means only. They never treat it either as a principle or as a value. They are also afraid of transfer of power from administrators, politicians and other power centres to powerless people. Anti-participationists never believe that competency can be created or hired and commitment can compensate efficiency. Rather than offering a correct solution from above, let the people commit mistakes when they do and correct themselves, so that participation can be a learning process. It will also ensure the right of the people. Participation is not merely a policy or a strategy

alone. "Today the principle of participation has become part of a body of universal human rights and social values, formally accepted by the United Nations and its member states"¹⁸.

Though the logic of people's participation is universally accepted, in practice planners and policy makers are not ready to promote effective participation. The divergence between promise and performance is presented as "the idea of citizen participation is a little like eating spinach; no one is against it in principle because it is good for you. Participation of the governed in their government is, in theory, the corner stone of democracy - a revered idea that is vigorously applauded by virtually everyone. The applause is reduced to polite handclaps, however, when this principle is advocated by the have-nots"¹⁹. ILO has also observed that "it is important to realise that this is an issue that much talk and somewhat less action has placed in the forefront of the social and economic scene"²⁰. Organised effort is required to improve the conditions for effective participation of people and appropriate methods have to be evolved for this purpose.

3.3 Means and methods

For the success of a programme means should be adequate, methods effective and objectives feasible. The present problem is how to ensure effective participation of beneficiaries in the programmes of governmental or non-governmental organisations for getting maximum benefits.

Though means and methods have wide range of combinations, there are certain universal strategies and arrangements based on the general nature of human beings to ensure and enhance people's participation in development programmes. In-built institutional arrangement for participation is one among them. Institutional means are membership in organisation, participation in meetings, contribution in kind/cash/service, contact with organisational personnel, sharing cost/benefits, offering opinions etc.

Participation can be developed as a social technology to harness development potential. It requires a sociological understanding of society, institutions and people. Information dissemination, feedback, identification of local needs/initiatives, flexibility in procedures, contribution to cost etc. have been developed as a part of experiments for effective participation by PIDER²¹. Planning Commission of

India has also observed a case where participation has been developed as a social technology²².

For governmental organisations decentralised administration is a conventional method of people's participation. Voluminous literature is available on this aspect in micro-level planning. Need for forming people's organisation or beneficiaries' associations to facilitate participation is stressed by various authors/institutions such as ESCAP, UNAPDI, ILO, Hanumantha Rao Committee and Dantwala Committee²³. Glass²⁴ suggested structural techniques such as advisory committees, review boards, task forces etc. for better participation of clients.

Participation cannot be an ideology without methodology. It is the effectiveness of means and methods of participation which makes participation real or passive, or participatory development a success or failure. It is correct to say that "participation can be used for many purposes and that different purposes require different mechanisms"²⁵. Since the methodology has to suit the requirements of organisers and participants, who are, in turn, influenced by a lot of variables, these determinants have to be identified at first. This is an essential prerequisite for any attempt to formulate an effective mechanism for people's participation.

3.4 Factors/forces of participation

The degree of participation of participants in a development programme is determined by a host of factors affecting the organisers, participants and programme. The society in which all these factors exist will also affect the extent of participation as an exogenous determinant. Many studies have identified such variables and the underlying interrelations among those variables. But the major constraints are the non-predictability of human behaviour and heterogeneity of participatory conditions. They reduce the replicability of strategies and universality of conclusions. However, certain determinants and their interrelations under given conditions can be pointed out from a few studies in this field.

The relevant variables determining participation in a development programme as observed by the Planning Commission are institutional arrangements, respectful leadership and association with professional experts. The style of functioning of developmental personnel is another factor. "It is the way they function and contribute to development that really matters"²⁶. With regard to the role of sponsoring organisations one development practitioner finds that " the mode and the amount of people's participation varies according to the orientation and ideology of the external group that

initiates the process of education"²⁷. Sharma feels that "the crux of the problem of people's participation in general, therefore, is to find viable institutions and techniques for ensuring equitable share of benefits of development by the poor themselves"²⁸. He finds direct benefit, homogeneity of groups, regular monitoring, group organisers and association of beneficiaries for effective participation.

Many authors have highlighted the generic difficulties in active participation. CIRDP²⁹ in a detailed enquiry has found that the factors which inhibit participation are general backwardness of people, unwillingness to participate, absence of committed workers, political interference, easy availability of funds, rigidity in programmes etc. The obstacles to constructive participation as enumerated by ESCAP³⁰ are absence of organisation of the poor, limited access to technology, lack of local leadership, feudal agrarian structure, hierarchical social relations etc.

Marshall Wolfe³¹ says that class composition of the society, conflict in the under privileged group, attitudes of bureaucrats/technocrats and culture of people are against participation. Gran Guy concludes that "either too much or too little project management works against participation, both are endemic"³². Edmund Burke remarks that "difficulty stems from society's idealised value premise concerning

citizen participation coupled with an inability to make it work in policy-making"³³.

In general, the different determinants of participation identified by the various studies are the following:

- (i) inbuilt organisational and institutional arrangements.
- (ii) nature of leadership-local or organisational.
- (iii) socio-economic characteristics of participants - social values, gender bias, income class, literacy level, etc.
- (iv) nature of programme - type of benefit, cost, requirements etc.
- (v) orientation and ideology of organisation and organisational personnel.
- (vi) anti-participation ideology in the society.
- (vii) programmes for participation - education, training and extension.

The determinants denoted are too general and each organisation has to develop its own strategy for participation on the basis of its objectives, values, nature of programme

and attitudes of participants. Besides these factors, all the variables which influence the role and status of women will also affect their participation in the development programmes which are explained in the commencing parts of this chapter.

3.5 Women participation and its determinants

Even when the logic of participation is widely accepted among all the planners and policy makers, women participation is not a matter of serious concern to many of them. The ideology, methodology and urgency of participation are equally or even more applicable to women. In fact, the general theory of participation is gender neutral. However, the status of women is secondary in all the developing countries, with differences only in degree. Reasons for the discrepancy and their significance may be different. The rationale of women participation and the factors which determine it are presented herewith.

3.5.1 Women participation

If one can accept the wisdom of people's participation in the development programmes, the same logic is equally appealing in the case of women who constitute about 50 per cent of the human resources in any society. Various studies all over the world have demonstrated the necessity and urgency of women participation in development. "There is a close

relationship between the status of women and the state of economic development in any given country. So long as countries regard women as chattels, their development will be slow and painful"³⁴.

Since the objective of development is to improve the living conditions of society, it was generally assumed that development will automatically improve the status of women. The belief has been belied by recent researches which point out that development can have even a deterrent effect on women. "Women have been displaced from the development process instead of becoming participants in it"³⁵. With the low participation of women in development activities, they lost credibility as economic assets to family and society. Hence the Commission on the Status of Women remarked that "women and men should participate equally in social, economic and political development, should contribute equally to such development, and should share equally in improved conditions of life"³⁶.

Women's problem is a non-issue to the majority of the development agencies. The principle of equality of men and women has only skin deep sincerity. The situation is aggravated by women's powerlessness arising from social inhibitions and organisational deficiencies. "Equality cannot be achieved as long as women are seen as marginal to the

existence of men, society or development"³⁷. A social crisis will result if women are left out of social decision-making process. "It is painfully clear that women have been, and in many ways are still being, left out of development at very great cost"³⁸. Special strategy for integration of women in social development is the need of the day. "It goes without saying that women's integration in development is a gradual process that, in the end, will benefit not only women, but the whole society of men, women and children"³⁹. Therefore, existing gender dimensions of development should be recognised as a reality and measures should be adopted by all developmental agencies for increased participation of women in the development process. For attaining this objective, agencies which promote women participation should know the determinants of the same.

3.5.2 Determinants of women participation

The factors and forces which promote or prevent women participation are wide and varied. Different authors also vary in their opinions regarding the influence of these factors which may encourage or discourage women participation. However, several authors and studies have identified economic, political, legislative, technological, social, demographic, cultural, religious, institutional, organisational and

attitudinal factors as important determinants of women participation.

The reasons of work for men and women may not be the same. It was found that "the primary reason of work was economic for men and both economic and non-economic for women"⁴⁰. By and large, women are forced to work to supplement family income. They have no choice but to work.

It is generally observed that the male children are not participating much in farming while the female children are participating actively. As Boserup puts it, "to carry the burden of agricultural work, women find it necessary to take the help of their daughters. Regrettably, the result is that fewer girls than boys can benefit from attendance at village schools - where such schools exist"⁴¹.

To be employed in the modern trade and service one needs to be literate. Consequently, the fact that illiteracy rate are nearly always higher among women than among men is a major factor limiting women's contribution to economic and social development. The failure to educate and train girls and women equally with men limits women's roles and makes them inadequately trained for those employment opportunities that may be available.

Upgrading of the labour force during the process of economic development is likely to be a threat to female participation. It is seen that training women for jobs that men usually do creates hostility between men and women⁴². The access of women to employment is also determined by types of occupations available and social conventions. In less developed areas, where the scope of self-employment for women is limited due to lack of skills among the female labourers, wage employment has better chances of involving female labour in the development activities.

There are dissenting opinions also on the role of education on women participation. In the words of Miche, "education and wealth are not necessarily pre-requisites for the emancipation of women"⁴³. The increase in overall female educational participation has not led to a corresponding increase in female labour force participation. While Kerala has the highest female literacy rate in India, this has not guaranteed women's economic power. As Papanek et al. rightly put it, "the higher levels of education achieved by some of the younger women have not (or not yet) impelled them into the labour force"⁴⁴.

It is being pointed out that the average sex-ratio of female workers in non-household industry is less than that in household industry⁴⁵. The low social and economic position of

women, their low literacy and technological levels, impediments in the way of development of skills and the social taboos against unescorted women going out to work are being pointed out as the factors responsible for the employment of higher proportion of females in economic activities at the household level than in non-household economic activities.

Another reason for the low participation of women in economic activities is the belief among the employers that they cannot expect the same level of job performance from women as from their male counterparts. According to them, most women employees consider their job as of secondary importance only. Thus "a belief in the universal subordination of women has continued to hamper efforts to take up systematic research of factors which eroded women's access to and control over resources, the nature of their participation and value of their work"⁴⁶.

Women are being forced into unemployment more frequently than men when agriculture and industry went through economic changes. According to Subbarao, "Women face three types of uncertainty in employment. One is because of the seasonality of agriculture, the second is due to illness, maternity etc. and the third due to mechanisation"⁴⁷. Women work in the least skilled sections and when rationalisation

takes place, there will be reduced demand for unskilled labour which displaces women from their jobs.

On the other hand, the share of agricultural work done by women is increasing in many countries where urban development creates a widening gap between incomes in urban and rural areas followed by a large migration of male youth from the villages. And migration of male workers to the urban areas increases the work load of the women workers left behind.

Government policies in many developing countries do restrict entry of women into technological fields or in the use of technology⁴⁸. It occurs because men control the policy planning agencies of a country, and, not understanding women's economic role in rural areas, fail to provide means for them to improve their productivity. The reality is that many countries do not have sufficient funds to adequately service both men and women and consequently, of the two, men win out. The 1975 United Nations Conference on Women remarked that women generally are disregarded or underutilised in the rural improvement strategies of developing countries for a number of reasons. This occurs mainly because planning groups are dominated by Western planning experts. "This argument is supported when one considers the documented efforts by international agencies to introduce improved agricultural

techniques to men in African countries where women perform all the agricultural tasks"⁴⁹.

The welfare approach which treats women as passive consumers of development is another obstacle to women participation. Welfare oriented programmes exclude women as participants from the broader development programmes. In the model of economic growth followed by the Indian planners until recently, women were being included in the category of poor and treated primarily as beneficiaries and their participation in development not encouraged, for it was assumed that they are ignorant and irrational.

Lack of organisation among women and unions as being representative of male workers are other reasons for the decline of women workers. The male-oriented trade union movements have had the effect of reducing the ambit of blue-collar jobs for women.

The role of grass-root level organisations and voluntary agencies in the mobilisation of women is a critical factor for the development strategies of the future. Without organisation, poor rural women cannot get their rightful share of the productive resources or participate in the decisions that affect their lives.

The National Committee on the Status of Women⁵⁰ have pointed out the forces which have most affected the role of women in the Indian economy, viz., general decline of handicrafts, increasing pressure of population in agriculture, increase of poverty in the rural sector, development of modern industry with its increasing technological advance and increasing cost of living.

The Population Crisis Committee⁵¹ is concerned about the low status of women and discrimination, especially in the least developed countries of the world. It is being stated that world-wide, women grow about half the world's food, but most own no land. They are one-third of the official paid workforce, but are concentrated in the lowest paid occupation. They are grossly under-represented in the institutions of the government.

The subject of female-headed households has been discussed throughout the U.N. Decade for Women⁵². Some have argued that female-headed households do not exist, because by law, no woman can head a household; legally only men can be heads of households. Although statistics prove that world-wide, approximately, one-third of all households are headed by women and the number of such households are rising, in some countries women cannot legally be heads of households.

The consideration of family as a unit where women's role and prospects are mostly neglected has been argued as the main reason for the failure of schemes and plans to bring the desired results for women⁵³. A very significant aspect of women's role as a worker is that one can never separate her work role from her responsibilities in the family. The tyrannical family setting, forces women not only to accept wage work, but may compel her to accept adverse terms of employment as this work at least temporarily liberates her from the patriarchal atmosphere of the family.

There is clear-cut compartmentalisation between men's work and women's work. The job of secretaries, typists, pharmacists, teachers, nurses and trained midwives working in private firms or government, have been open to women for several decades and have been considered acceptable and even desirable for women of lower-middle and middle-class status, although not for the upper class elite.

A linkage between the demographic trends of declining sex ratio, lower life expectancy, higher infant and maternal mortality, declining work participation, illiteracy and rising migration rates among women from the poorer sections exists in the society. The dynamics of social change and development has adversely affected a large section of women, particularly among the poor and has created new imbalances and disparities.

Equal status and equal opportunity are demanded with the desire to achieve the possibility of development under favourable circumstances of education and opportunity for women.

It is understood that the various factors and forces which influence the status and role of women determine their degree of participation in development activities and organisations. The influence of these factors and forces which promote or prevent women participation may vary from country to country depending on the status ascribed to women, the political set-up and the level of advancement of the society. It is because of this, that a particular determinant which is favourable to women participation in one country may be detrimental to women participation in another country. However, from the above discussion, the following factors can be identified as the major determinants which promote or prevent the participation of women in various fields and activities.

- (i) Economic necessity
- (ii) Illiteracy, education and training
- (iii) Political, social, cultural, religious and demographic factors
- (iv) Sexual division of labour
- (v) Gender based models of development and resultant economic advancement

- (vi) Rationalisation/technological development
- (vii) Migration
- (viii) Welfare approach to women programmes
- (ix) Discriminating policies and programmes of government and employers
- (x) Protective legislations
- (xi) Institutional reforms
- (xii) Attitudes of men, employer, government and trade unions and
- (xiii) Presence of grass-root level organisations and voluntary agencies.

3.6 A model for participation

People mean the beneficiaries of a development programme of a GO/NGO whether they are men, women or both. In the general theory of participation women constitute a special category influencing the actual level of participation than the expected participation. Hence general theory of participation is equally applicable to men and women.

By taking people as the subject and object of development, alternative growth models assumed people's participation as a human value and as a basic right irrespective of the gender dimensions. But the contemporary significance of people's participation stems from the failure of development programmes due to people's lethargy and bureaucratic indifference which necessitated the need for

participatory development process. Planners and policy makers accepted the wisdom of participation, not necessarily as a principle but as a means. The basic thrust is to enhance the sense of identity of beneficiaries with development programmes and organisations by active participation. Almost all development organisations adopted certain inbuilt institutional arrangements for participation. Certain programmes were specially contemplated for women target group to overcome gender bias. However participation has not been developed as a social technology to improve the impact of development programmes. Besides the lukewarm attitude, lack of theoretical knowledge and sound operational details aggravated the poor state of present affairs. Therefore, by taking the relevant variables and contexts, a theoretical model for participation is attempted here under optimum and sub-optimum conditions. The model will also enable the present study to have an idea about what ought to be the relevant variables and possible relations. The model is built on the basis of general applicability to men and women and the difference, if any, will be tested in the field investigations.

In general, participation is the involvement of the people in the affairs which affect them. It is also agreed that participation is a process, a value, a right or can be a

means or input. It implies that, the exact meaning of the term participation can be understood only if the context in which the term used is explicitly expressed. At present, participation is used as an input by development organisations. As such, effective participation can be defined as active involvement of progressive beneficiaries in a directly beneficial programme sponsored by a governmental or non-governmental organisation.

Though participation normally implies people's involvement in the programmes of governmental or non-governmental organisations, there can be governmental or non-governmental participation in the programmes of people. Here the need-based people's organisations chalk out programmes for the satisfaction of their needs and external elements like government, experts, voluntary agencies etc. participate with people's programme. Participation of members in their own organisation to achieve their own needs makes participant and organiser one and the same. Larger the organisations or associations of organisations, greater will be the chances for representative participation. Unlike GOs or NGOs, people's organisations or self-help groups are meagre in number, leaving participation as a concern of the former.

Nature of benefit influence the degree of participation. Benefits can be directly applicable to the

participants or common to a larger group. If benefits are immediate and direct, participation will be high. If benefits are income from employment or output from production programme, participation rate will be higher compared to a facility from sanitation/housing or a skill from training or awareness from education.

Like the organisations and programmes, beneficiaries are also of different types. Certain people are purely egoistic, standing for personal benefits only, while social minded co-operative people do not mind if benefits are applicable to a group at large. Certain people are neither individualistic nor co-operative but indifferent to benefits. Participation of egoistic people can be enhanced by directly productive individual programmes. Only co-operative people can be expected for effective participation in socially beneficial programmes like literacy mission, flood relief, social overheads etc.

Women are constrained not only by the type of organisation and nature of programme, but by social values and customs. Due to the present social set up, women are generally introverts unless warranted by family compulsions or progressive values. Gender bias adds one more dimension to the problem of participation.

Since participants, organisers and their programmes are functioning in a society, participation is also influenced by societal forces like social values, institutions, organisations, socio-economic infrastructure, technological advancement, leadership, media etc. It implies that exogenous factors are equally relevant as endogenous factors in participation.

The interrelation of various variables involved in a development programme and the extent of effectiveness of participation as a means to enhance project performance are intimately interrelated. The exact degree of participation cannot be predicted in advance. However some generalisations can be made about the behaviour of certain known variables with given assumptions. The basic assumptions are the following.

- (i) People are interested in monetary benefits.
- (ii) Participants can be broadly classified into egoistic, co-operative and indifferent.
- (iii) Participatory values deteriorate as the divergence between participants and organisers increase.

Based on these assumptions and general behaviour of human beings, a simple model of participation is presented in

Table 3.1 which takes nature of benefits, type of organisations and behaviour of participants as relevant variables and highlights possible interrelations of these variables in 36 combinations.

Table 3.1 A simple model of participation

Sl. No.	Nature of benefit	Egoistic			Co-operative			Indifferent		
		GO	NGO	PO	GO	NGO	PO	GO	NGO	PO
1.	Individual monetary	MO	HI	VH	MO	HI	VH	MO	MO	MO
2.	Individual Non-monetary	LO	MO	HI	LO	MO	HI	LO	LO	LO
3.	Social monetary	VL	LO	MO	LO	MO	HI	VL	VL	VL
4.	Social Non-monetary	NL	VL	LO	VL	LO	MO	NL	NL	NL

Note: 1. Type of organisation

- a. GO - Government Organisation
- b. NGO - Non-Governmental Organisation
- c. PO - People's Organisation

2. Degree of participation

- a. VH - Very High
- b. HI - High
- c. MO - Moderate
- d. LO - Low
- e. VL - Very Low
- f. NL - Nil

With six degrees of participation there are 36 combinations varying in participation with respect to varying nature of programme, organisation and participants. Egoistic and co-operative people can be motivated for increased participation by necessary changes in returns or expectations and inbuilt arrangements.

Indifferent people represent all sub-optimum conditions where rationality assumptions may not work. The reasons for indifference may be (a) lack of confidence (b) lethargy (c) preference for intervention (d) acceptance of encounter model and (e) disagreement with organisational personnel/values etc. Indifferent participants have to be identified and counselled through appropriate methods for improved participation.

The major observations from Table 3.1 are the following.

- (i) As the benefit from the programme changes from individual-monetary to individual-non-monetary, social monetary and social non-monetary, the degree of participation declines.
- (ii) As the nature of the participant changes from egoistic to co-operative and indifferent, the rate of participation declines.

- (iii) The type of organisation affects the rate of participation adversely as it moves from people's organisation to NGOs and GOs.
- (iv) Higher rate of participation demands democratic organisation, directly beneficial programme and progressive beneficiaries.
- (v) Actual degree of participation is an outcome of all the variables involved.

As presumed, monetary returns alone need not be the basis of a rational participant. A participant may be motivated by the esteem of the organisation, intimacy with the development personnel, commitment to democratic values etc. Hence it can only be generally stated that higher the returns and higher the inbuilt arrangement, higher will be the rate of participation.

In the model it is assumed that male and female participants behave uniformly, for instance, egoistic male and female behave alike. By bringing gender as an explanatory variable, new reasons can be attributed to the change in participation. In fact, the status and role ascribed to women in our society are hindering their effective participation. But those factors will be considered as forces influencing the participant or beneficiary. Even men and women of the same

social status may participate differently due to changes in the ascribed role of women. It may be part of sub-optimum conditions. Thus, gender may be a negative determinant for effective participation, of course, to be proved empirically. Even then, the general theory of participation, as enunciated in the simple model (Table 3.1) stands valid to explain the causal relations of variables involved.

3.7 Conclusions

Ideal performance is the result of ideal conditions. Actual participation varies from ideal participation as long as actual conditions are varying from ideal conditions. Ideal conditions for participation exist where participants and organisers are one and the same, programme is directly beneficial as the expression of the felt need of beneficiaries and participants are progressive. Since self organisations are meagre and GOs/NGOs are playing the predominant role, participation implies involvement of beneficiaries in the programmes of GOs/NGOs. Besides this, participation is treated as a means to ensure better performance than as a right or value. However, by using the term indiscriminately under different contexts, the meaning of the term is getting confused. Though the actual degree of participation is the outcome of multiplicity of factors/forces, gender is a significant variable determining the degree and direction of

participation. The general theory of participation assumes gender bias as a suboptimum condition, adversely affecting participation, alongwith many other relevant variables which promote/prevent effective women participation.

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CHAPTER IV

DEVELOPMENT ORGANISATIONS AND WOMEN IN DEVELOPMENT

The current world-wide search for ways to make optimal use of very scarce resources and stimulate broad-based development makes it very timely for economic development agencies to take stock of the activities of development organisations and strengthen collaboration among public and private institutions engaged in promoting growth with justice. Among the development organisations, NGOs have a long history and in fact, predate many of the development agencies. Role of NGOs in development is recognised all over the world and sincere efforts have been initiated to systematically present their functions, management, resource base etc. But studies are being constrained in many ways. For instance, NGO terminology itself is not yet well established since NGO typology is uncodified. They operate under different ideology and different nomenclature. An organisational theory to evaluate the functions of development organisations is also lacking. Hence an attempt is made in this chapter to highlight the basic issues and current thinking about the science of organisation, organisational input and women in development in the background of :

- (i) contemporary definition of development,
- (ii) significance of organisation as a development input,
- (iii) typology of organisations,
- (iv) changing role of NGOs and Voluntary Development Organisations (VDOs),
- (v) role of women in development and
- (vi) women and development organisations.

4.1 Development defined

Development is a positive change in the desirable direction and as such economic development is a change directed towards the economic well-being of the people concerned. But a change which occurs without structural transformation aggravates the existing social inequalities and imbalances. Development, paradoxically turns to be a human tragedy to many groups and individuals who are alienated from the process of prosperity. ESCAP has rightly observed that by the development process "social groups which have had minor roles in production (youth, disabled, aged) or whose labour is not given due recognition (women) or more generally those who do not possess the means of production (the poor) have been marginalised not only economically but also socio-culturally and politically"¹. The fallacy of "trickle down theories" and the reality of increasing concentration of economic power compelled the planners and policy makers to think about the

"other side of the development". Alternative development models were the result of such compulsion.

Growth with justice turned to be the new development paradigm and people's participation emerged as a new policy instrument. People were accepted as the subject and object of the participatory development process. "There is growing consensus at national and international levels about the importance of participation both as a means and as an objective of development"².

The world has even moved from a growth oriented development vision which equates human progress with growth in market value of economic output and subordinates both human and environmental consideration to a people-oriented growth with justice and environmentalism. Hence, the development issue of 1990's is not growth. It is transformation of our views and values in favour of ecological and social realities reaffirming justice, sustainability and inclusiveness as the authentic principles of true development. Hence David Korten defined development as "a process by which the members of a society increase their personal and institutional capacities to mobilise and manage resources to produce sustainable and justly distributed improvements in their quality of life consistent with their own aspirations"³. The issue was

re-emphasised in the U.N. Conference on Environment and Development (UNCED) in Rio de Janeiro, June, 1992.

However, the world agenda for development is different for developed countries which have already attained a laudable standard of living, and for developing countries which have not yet realised a minimum standard of living. Hence, the thrust of the less developed countries even at present is to attain growth - a self sustainable growth with people's participation, to ensure equity and endurance. Under these circumstances, in developing countries, development is basically a problem of organisation which is capable of mobilising, utilising and evaluating all the development inputs like resources, technology, institutions and values. But, effective development organisations are most lacking in these countries.

4.2 Organisational input for development

Organisation is as important as land, labour and capital for development. But studies, models and theories explaining the role of organisation in development are relatively scanty compared to the voluminous literature available on other inputs. Organisational science imported from the West can barely scratch the surface of the organisations in developing countries. Organisational

priorities of the West and the East are different due to difference in the degrees of development and the reasons for the same. Need is an indigenously synthesised input for organisational science. As a science, it should be capable of explaining behaviour at individual/group level, organisational level and in associations of organisations. It should also enable increased effectiveness of organisations and people to achieve development.

However, the organisational science of the West and that replicated in the East are explaining only organisational behaviour and development organisations is seldom treated systematically either by economists or by management experts. It is apt to say that organisation theory developed in the business environment and public bureaucracies possess very limited usefulness to explain the behaviour of development organisations like NGOs⁴.

If one tries to identify the existing references regarding social or development organisations, one can see them in the socialist School of Karl Marx (1817), democratic School of Tocqueville (1835), neutral School of Simon (1958), liberationist school, technocratic school and structuralist - reformist school of Esman and Uphoff (1984). Neutral school has contributed the concepts of organisational structure, membership participation, collective behaviour etc. For

socialist school, organisation is the weapon of the weak in their struggle with the strong. For democratic school, the number turned important to overcome the deficiencies of unorganised poor and they motivated co-operatives in European countries. Liberationist school of Freire (1970) and Nerfin (1977) think that unorganised poor should organise for self-help and seek self emancipation without external help. Technocratic School of L. Brown (1970) believes that progress depends on technological advancements. Structuralist-reformist approach believes that within the political framework of any regime, there may be opportunities for organisations to function and serve the poor, even with government patronage. Wherever, opportunity to organise exist, the poor can improve their conditions.

The organisational and behavioural sciences in the field of business and public administration are highly developed, but inadequate to explain the causal relations in developmental organisations. The theory of social organisations developed by sociologists and economists are not fully capable of explaining modern development organisations with their complexities of size, nature and functions. However, there is universal recognition among the development professionals and practitioners that organisation is an important input for development and development entrepreneurs

in group can be effective instruments for immediate transformation of many of the third world economies.

4.3 Typology of development organisations

Unlike administrative and market approaches, development association is an organisational alternative to achieve development. A development organisation mobilises, utilises and monitors economic and non-economic inputs for development and evaluates/follows-up the outcome. They create congenial development culture by making necessary changes in values, attitudes and institutions of the society.

It is difficult to frame a typology of development organisations due to the multiplicity of their functions, objectives, size and command over resources. Korten⁵ has classified NGOs into Voluntary Organisations, People's Organisations, Public Service Contractors and Governmental NGOs. John Clark⁶ has identified six types of NGOs, viz., (i) relief and welfare agencies (ii) technical innovation organisations to pioneer improved methods for progress (iii) public service contractors to implement part of government programmes (iv) popular development agencies concentrating on self-help and grass-root democracy (v) grassroots development organisations and (vi) advocacy groups and network for education and lobbying. The World

Bank⁷ has tried to codify the typology of NGOs as philanthropic and self-help organisations which are further classified into welfare NGOs, Development NGOs, Donor NGOs, Local NGOs etc.

In the Indian context, Development Organisations (DOs) can be broadly classified into Governmental Organisations (GOs), Non-governmental Organisations (NGOs) and People's Organisations (POs). The major GOs are the development departments of government, special development agencies like DRDA, CADA etc., Commodity Boards, certain Corporations and institutions like NABARD, IDBI etc. and government financed autonomous institutions like R&D Organisations, Universities, Nehru Yuvak Kendra etc. Among the NGOs, major constituents are individual development entrepreneur, trusts, co-operatives, voluntary organisations and mahila samajams. Among the various NGOs, especially voluntary agencies, development-oriented private voluntary organisations (DOPVOs) are specially pointed out by Brown⁸. All the GOs and NGOs are second or third party organisations for development, while POs are first party organisations. It is an association for mutual benefit and self-reliance through democratic means.

Development roles of NGOs changed over the years when that of GOs shifted from police state to welfare state and to development state. As such Brown⁹ has highlighted three

generations in NGOs, viz., first generation NGOs with relief work, second generation for local projects and third generation for self sustainable development systems. Korten¹⁰ has observed four generations in the evolution of NGOs, in the order of (a) relief and welfare (b) community development (c) sustainable development and (d) people's movement. People's movement are moved by social energy than money.

In a wide spectrum of social affairs, one can see all generations of NGOs in the same society, especially in that of developing economies. The role ascribed to NGOs and accepted by them is determined by the values and culture of existing socio-economic and political institutions. However the effectiveness of NGOs as an alternative to statutory or commercial organisations depends on their role as a change agent conducive to social transformation.

4.4 Voluntary development organisations

Co-operatives, though large in number with very huge resource turnover and elected Board of Directors, are practically government extension agencies, strictly controlled by government officials. Hence among the NGOs, Voluntary Development Organisations (VDOs) are significant on account of their autonomy and independent activities. Lord Beveridge defined voluntary organisations (VOs) as an organisation

initiated and governed by its own members without external control. It is considered as a new mission of a few new missionaries¹¹. Kulkarni¹² has defined VOs as "a form of organising activities, supporting, strengthening and helping to develop work to meet all types of needs of individuals and groups in a society". Sivaraman Committee¹³ has suggested objective conditions for VOs, viz., (i) duly registered (ii) statutory managing committee (iii) competent staff (iv) proper accounting/monitoring system and (v) a master plan for work.

At present VOs vary widely in their size, functions, methodology and motivation. Wolfenden Committee in Britain¹⁴ has found incredible diversities in the collectivity known as VOs and has stressed their role in a pluralistic system of social provisions as an alternative to informal, commercial and statutory systems. Peter Bowden¹⁵ has attributed three major functions to NGOs as (a) provision of services and assistance (b) creation of self-help capabilities and (c) advocacy/education.

The major advantages of NGOs are (i) proximity to people and their need (ii) flexibility in procedure and programmes (iii) cheap delivery system (iv) human touch (v) creating self reliance (vi) ensure people's participation (vii) mobilise local resource/initiative (viii) empowering the

attitudinal and behavioural change, they supplement the work of GOs. By undertaking the implementation of government programmes or by initiating own programmes for people's development, NGOs are complementing the works of GOs. But NGOs can plan and implement programmes to replace the inadequate governmental projects.

The creation of development partnership has sometimes failed due to diffidence and inadequate linkages. It is fraught with "value differences, goal conflicts, mutual suspicion and contradictory expectations that are inevitable among such diverse partners"¹⁹. Tension-ridden relations among development organisations are being pointed out by ESCAP²⁰ in one of their studies. ESCAP²¹ has also suggested measures for co-ordination between GOs and NGOs for social development, in yet another study. In a study²² in Thailand, the need for concerted effort to establish credentials of NGOs with government and credibility with people is emphasised. NGOs are suggested to collaborate among themselves and co-ordinate with GOs.

4.6 Women in development

Woman is the central figure in our society who inspires confidence and inculcates and prepares children to pursue their goals relentlessly. History bears testimony to

the fact that heights of patriotism, selflessness, fearlessness and determination are imbibed in children only through the persistent efforts of mothers. But, unless woman is provided with the prerequisites of education for developing her vision, proper health care and social security, respect and status, her efforts may not achieve the ultimate objective of a strong, civilised and prosperous nation. It is an accepted fact that women have been either neglected or denied their due place in society. They are overlooked in the sharing of the fruits of their labour. "Although women represent fifty per cent of the world's population, and one-third of the official labour force, they perform nearly two-third of all working hours, receive only one-tenth of the world income and own less than one per cent of the world property"²³. Besides, the changes in the process of development have been affecting them even adversely. It has now become imperative to remedy these imbalances. Health, education and their economic potential have to be taken care of in order to harness fully the rich resources of women power for the overall development of the society.

Over the past 35 years or so, development programmes have largely yielded somewhat disappointing results. Efforts have been planned and carried out almost entirely by and for men, with little concern for the role of women. Any effort

that overlooks half the people involved obviously leads to failure. Hence, "many development planners now realise that the full participation of women in development directly involves, half the available human resources, holds, the greatest potential for break-throughs in many difficult sectors, and offers the key to unlock the development dilemma"²⁴.

National development policies and plans have, by and large neglected gender dimension in development theory and practice. Since achieving increased growth in production depends as much on women as on men, progress towards more just societies must include greater equality for women.

In the course of economic and social development, many activities traditionally performed by women or in the immediate vicinity of the home are inevitably superseded by the introduction of mass produced goods and modern services. As a result of these changes, women are deprived of many opportunities to earn money incomes and to contribute in kind to the support of the family. It is important, therefore, that economic planning be designed in such a way that the unavoidable decline of female work input in traditional activities does not entail a loss of the benefit to them.

Gandhiji laid great emphasis on the role of women in national life. He asserted that future India cannot be built without the conscious participation of one half of its population, i.e., the women, and he believed that it is only through such participation women can liberate themselves. "If in Gandhiji's concept of things, rural development has to begin at the bottom, then women would provide a real index of the development of the village of India"²⁵.

Women are recognised not merely as targets of welfare policies in the social sector, but as critical groups for development. By the mid 1970's and with the publication of the Report on the Status of Women in India - the first highly comprehensive and informative report on woman - it has been widely accepted that women had been left out of the development process and that greater efforts have to be made to move women into the development main stream. The Commission on the Status of Women²⁶ has expressed its grave concern over continuing discrimination against women and infringement of their right in number of states. At the time of the formulation of the Sixth Five Year Plan, a chapter titled, "Women and Development" has been specially incorporated to correct the imbalance. "This shift represents reassertion of the principle of women's equality of rights - to participate effectively in the process of development,

ensuring thereby movements in the direction of the constitutional goals"²⁷.

With the change in the outlook, attitudes and approach towards living, it has now, become necessary, by and large, for the families with inadequate incomes to supplement their requirements through additional earnings. Employment of poor women is, thus, indispensable not only for the survival of individual families, but also for the maintenance of wider, socio-economic system. The economic revolution in any country is not possible without women's participation. Increasing number of women are now working outside the home. For many women, work for income is a necessity for the economic welfare of their families and themselves. When women benefit from development, the whole society benefits. But, the tragedy is that, though women contribute substantially to economic resources, very little attention is paid to involve them directly with developmental activities and enable them to become more effective and productive.

Efforts to increase the economic contribution of women should be viewed not only as a means to make fuller use of all human resources for economic development, but also as a way of improving income distribution. Most of the women in developing countries who attempt to earn a money income are either the extremely poor heads of a household, often with

many children, or women married to men in the lowest income bracket who are unable to feed their families without the help of their wives. Therefore, if national planning is designed with a view to improve women's possibilities of earning an income by productive work, it contributes to a more equal income distribution by helping those who need it most - the poorest families and those women who must support themselves and their children without help from men.

Since half of the human capital is constituted by women, their involvement in science and technology development, in the context of rural development is of prime importance for fostering national development. Women in rural areas raise the children, take care of the cattle and the household, cook and process the food, and work nearly as hard as the men in the fields, yet when new technologies are brought in, they are usually directed towards making the man's work easier, and sometimes result in even more work for women.

Attempts to introduce appropriate technology for women, though necessary to alleviate their burden of work have met with unequal success because the planners inadequately understand the economic roles of women. For instance, "in the case of an experiment with the gobar gas plant, women who were supposed to be the main beneficiaries of the gobar gas plant were entirely excluded from the decision - making

process. Consequently, the gas plant, instead of reducing their drudgery, only added to their burdens"²⁸. It is only gradually being realised that it is necessary for the policy makers and planners to be sensitive to the impact that a new, appropriate technology would have on women. Unless women are consulted, are actively involved in the decision - making process and are organised to assert their interests, programmes introducing appropriate technology programmes will not be able to achieve their stated objective of people's participation, particularly, women's participation.

Women, because of their role in transferring technological awareness to their children, hold the really vital key to long-term revitalisation of the rural areas of developing countries. The sooner the importance of their economic role in rural development is recognised and technological opportunities are provided to them to expand and improve their participation, the sooner it is possible to go about the task of developing the rural areas.

Another area where women play a vital role is in food production. They account for over 40 per cent of Asia's and over 75 per cent of Africa's food production. Rural development in Africa is unconceivable without the active participation of women. Their role in food production in Africa is so important that the United Nations view women as

vital instruments in dealing with the food crisis, stating that every programme aimed at increasing the productivity of women can contribute substantially to rural development and secure food supplies. Yet, women's interests are not always taken into account. It is necessary to reconsider the rural development strategies to take into account of the role of women in rural production and distribution to ameliorate the living conditions of rural women. In order to meet increased food needs, women have to be recognised as cultivators and given equitable access to land, credit, extension services and better tools.

A special strategy for better integration of women in national development must be found for each country - related both to the stage of development reached by that country and to the special cultural, social and economic factors existing in that country. But it is important that a society that accepts male domination and regards females as subordinates and marginal, cannot bring about the integration of women in the development process.

If the plans and programmes designed to increase women's role in development are to get the desired response, then women must also participate in their formulation and execution. Because the participation of women in all aspects of planning and implementation is considered essential for

women's income-generating projects, women should be involved at all stages from the beginning. But, at present this is being done only exceptionally, or in a very limited degree. Accordingly, there is an urgent need to increase women's role in all areas of development planning and implementation, at all levels of administration - locally, regionally, nationally and internationally.

Thus, though women have a positive role in the development of all nations, majority of them are, at present, excluded from the development process in most of the countries. In this connection, it is better to conclude that "there is no longer any excuse for the absence of remedial measures. Their effect may be gradual or rapid, but it is imperative that the problem be faced squarely. Otherwise, not only women, but families, communities, nations and the world will suffer"²⁹.

4.7 Women and development organisations

It is clear from the preceding paragraphs that women have a positive role to play in the development process and their participation has to be ensured in all stages of the development projects. Now women participation is considered as an essential input for the success of development programmes, both by the governmental and non-governmental

development organisations. Although this participatory process was initiated by voluntary organisations much earlier, the governmental organisations followed this example very recently. The role of governmental and non-governmental organisations in ensuring and accelerating the participation of women in development programmes, their methods, extent of success, impact etc. can be looked into at present.

4.7.1 Women and governmental organisations

Government is the major decision-making organisation in any society. It has a positive role to play to promote the cause of women. The policies and programmes of government should reflect such a desire for change. But many social scientists have reservations about this. The policies, programmes, practices and duties of the State in this regard are being discussed in this section.

Development will be slowed down unless there is equal participation by women in all areas and at all levels of employment. Therefore, government departments and other appropriate bodies should establish policies and targets for the employment of women in the public as well as in the private sectors. Many of the handicaps to a better contribution by women to development could be overcome by intensified national efforts, in which, among others,

governments should participate. The passage of laws, the enactment of administrative measures and the enforcement of these, can open up opportunities and responsibilities for women in the economic, social, political and cultural life of their countries. Through them, governments can guide and institutionalise changes in attitudes towards the role of women. This would enable women to achieve equal rights with men.

Many of the schemes for women, for instance, of the Central Social Welfare Board have failed, because of half-hearted efforts³⁰. When a scheme is launched, the infrastructural facilities are not looked into by the Board leaving them to voluntary organisations who are not in a position to do the same due to lack of funds. Therefore, in the beginning all the expenditure should be met by the government, and gradual self-reliance encouraged.

Governments should consult and involve women in the planning and implementation of water and sanitation projects and in the mobilisation and distribution of food aid in countries affected by drought, as well as in the fight against desertification, through large-scale forestation campaign³¹. Government should implement inheritance laws that allow women to inherit a fair share of property, livestock and machinery.

The Department of Women and Child Development of the Government of India has tried to raise the economic status of women and to bring them into the mainstream of national development. The Department has intensified measures to promote voluntary efforts in the field of women's development³². The Department, besides playing a nodal role has also implemented separate schemes for the welfare and development of women.

The socio-economic programmes of the Government implemented through voluntary agencies guarantee work and wage for destitute women, widows and deserted women who are provided opportunities to take up full-time/part-time employment. The condensed course of education provides educational qualifications and relevant skills to women in order to make them eligible for identifiable, remunerative work opportunities. The Vocational Training Course provides opportunities to women in the age group of fifteen and above to undergo intensive training in selected vocations and trades. Awareness Generation Projects launched by the Board in 1986-87 provides a platform for rural and poor women to come together, exchange their experience and ideas and suggest ways to tackle their problems. The Department of Women and Child Development, Ministry of Human Resource Development has a wide range of programmes aimed at the welfare and

development of rural women. To tackle the problem of rural women, the Department of Women and Child Development initiated a nation wide debate on the National Perspective Plan for Women 1988 - 2000 A.D. A special programme for women entitled 'Development of Women and Children in Rural Areas (DWCRA) was introduced in 1982 as a sub-component of IRDP to accelerate the integration of women in the rural development programmes. The National Conference on Panchayati Raj and Women was with the objective of providing greater participation of women in shaping the destiny of rural India.

The Government of India has more than 27 schemes for women, some specific and others both for men and women, besides pilot project. The Department of Rural Development has issued guidelines for increasing participation of women in wage employment and creation of assets specific to the needs of women groups under NREP and RLEGP.

Canada has played a leadership role in integrating women in development, from the beginning. Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA) was among the first national donor agencies to integrate Women in Development (WID) strategy into its operation. Since adopting the strategy, CIDA has played a prominent role in ensuring the adoption of WID policies by such multilateral institutions as the UN Development Programme and the Asian Development Bank

(ADB). Throughout the multi-lateral system, Canadians are promoting WID issues at meetings, calling on individual organisations to meet women's specific needs and to avoid unintentional discrimination and joining with donors to develop strategies for promoting WID issues at key international meetings. Through multilateral aid institutions, Canada is able to pool its resources with those of other nations to develop programmes that address the needs of women throughout the developing world.

The convictions of policy makers in government or government sponsored organisations will take the issue a long way. Inbuilt arrangements can be made in government programmes to ensure better participation of women. At the same time, government, as the supreme organisation in the state can enact laws compelling governmental and non-governmental organisations to pursue an effective policy of equality of sex in all opportunities for development.

4.7.2 Women and non-governmental organisations

The invisible and silent partner in development inside and outside the home can be brought to light only by tedious efforts. Formal bureaucratic approach cannot eradicate their reluctance. Personal and informal approach of non-governmental initiatives can achieve a lot in this direction.

How far NGOs are instrumental and innovative in offering a helping hand to bring women out of their self-made or imposed bondage, is a matter of significance at present.

Grassroot organisations can greatly enhance the opportunities for poor women to participate in development programmes by providing an organisational base to operate from the bottom. By organising, working together, sharing experiences and resources, building pressure groups and so forth, women can find independent access to opportunities for their betterment. NGOs can do a lot of pioneering attempts in this field. In proximity to people and flexibility in procedures, NGOs excel conventional bureaucracy. They have the liberty to introduce innovative experiments which liberate women from social discrimination and economic exploitation.

The National Committee on the Status of Women³³ underlined the role of voluntary organisations in the upliftment of the rural poor. But, it is a fact that few women voluntary organisations have worked among rural women. Voluntary welfare programmes co-exist with governmental programmes and provide a supportive base to them, since it is not possible for government to look after all the welfare needs of the people.

Non-governmental organisations have a role in the efforts to involve women in all areas of development planning and implementation. They have played a major role in experimenting with different approaches and strategies of work in women development. They have influenced government policies for women welfare.

NGOs have provided support to women's development through forums for articulation of the needs of poor women and the recognition and integration of them in micro-level planning. By virtue of their close contact at the grassroot and micro-level functioning, voluntary agencies are in a better position to develop human resources and create a framework for their participation. Voluntary agencies are eminently suited to experiment with the most effective strategies for reaching them. They will definitely speed up the process of women's development.

Thus, the involvement of voluntary agencies in women's development is a must. Empowerment of women at micro-level cannot be assured until there is collective action by voluntary agencies and grassroot groups' involvement.

International organisations have upheld the need for grassroot participatory self-reliant organisations for women. The report of the WHO³⁴ on the occasion of the ending of the

UN Decade for Women stated that grassroots organisations are the main focus of the WHO's strategy for involving women's organisations in primary health care.

It was pointed out by CIDA that one way it can make the world understand about the problems of Third World Women is through development of education projects of NGOs and institutions. The knowledge about the problems of these women has led to the establishment of an international non-governmental organisation called Women's World Banking (WWB), to finance the entrepreneurial activities of women. CIDA has been contributing to its programmes, including a loan guarantee fund by which WWB assists women in obtaining credit, as well as training in management business.

Since the international agencies are pressurising the governments for equal women's rights in all the countries they aid, it would be easy for the feminist organisations within the countries to ensure that women have equitable share in the modernisation and technological change of their countries.

The development of village level organisations of rural women will provide forum to enable women, especially the poor and the weaker, to participate freely and fully in the decisions that affect their lives and their communities. Grassroot participatory self-reliant organisations can support

rural women workers. Without a grassroot organisation, it is difficult to bring about any change in the condition of the people. Welfare measures to be meaningful, there has to be grassroot organisations but not essentially separate organisation for women. Thus, to ensure that rural women workers' interests are articulated, pursued and needs met, the formation of democratic, participatory and self-reliant grassroot organisations is an imperative. Rural women workers should have the right to form and join independent and voluntary organisations of their choice. National policies should facilitate the growth of such organisations. Such organisations should be able to represent rural workers in the formulation, implementation and evaluation of programmes.

In some places the female agricultural labourers felt the need for organising themselves separately by forming Mahila Sangham to fight the policy of sexual discrimination in the field of agriculture, while at the same time associating themselves with the male agricultural labourers and the small peasantry in their fight against the exploitative forces operating in the sector³⁵.

Rural Women's Organisations (RWO) are major institutions, imparting to rural women the status, self-reliance and spirit of confidence in socio-economic activities of the rural community. For effectively discharging such

responsibilities, proper linkages will have to be developed with (i) panchayats (ii) other rural women's organisations/co-operatives through federations at block and district level and (iii) state/central level voluntary organisations undertaking social and developmental services in these areas.

There have been instances that women around the world are on the move. For example, the Tamil Nadu Joint Action Council for Women (JACW) is an offshoot of a charitable group working with destitute women and abandoned children. The JACW lobbies for legislative change, publishes information for women on their legal rights, provides networking services for women and promotes a positive image of women in the media. The invaluable networking done by women's groups and voluntary organisations have resulted in increased awareness and support from governments for the integration of women into their economies and societies.

Through concerted action of women by way of Mahila Mandals, they can be energised and that energy can be channelled properly for development without wastage. Therefore there is a need to consciously plan the development of informal local level organisations of people like women's groups for the delivery of various services and to supplement government programmes. There are programmes of assistance to organisations of women's groups like Mahila Mandals for

creating greater awareness among women and to enable them to avail of the various facilities under the various developmental programmes envisaged for the regions. Women's organisations can play a vital role in monitoring and enforcing the governmental measures for development. It would be better, for example, if all the anti-poverty programmes of the government as well as programmes of building marketing supports, other infrastructural support conducive to women development are planned and implemented through Mahila Mandals at the village level.

The development of grassroot organisations for women for their involvement in planning, execution and evaluation of local and national programmes is also recommended by the Working Group of the Planning Commission.

It is also noted that in Indonesia women's group directly affiliated with the bureaucracy, played an increasingly visible role in implementing government policies at the local level³⁶. Women's voluntary associations had a declining impact because they could not compete for women's limited time with the official groups, where participation was compulsory.

By comparing the documents of the earlier years of the Decade for Women and the latter years of the Decade it is seen

that there is a shift in emphasis from governmental organisations to non-governmental organisations and more specifically to women's NGOs and grassroot organisations for the elimination of discrimination and achieving equality between men and women. Without the international women's movement and the activities of women's groups within countries, the political will for this would not have been generated.

Considering the magnitude of problems faced by women, the government has rightly felt that it cannot assume the entire responsibility of service provision and development. The thrust of the current programmes is more towards development of women's potential and their productive participation in development rather than merely providing welfare services to them. A meaningful partnership with the voluntary sector has thus been an avowed goal and an essential variable in government's attempts to integrate women in development. A higher involvement of voluntary organisations is envisaged in the implementation of such government programmes as the IRDP, TRYSEM, DWCRA, ICDS and Adult Literacy Programmes. It is being suggested that, with the new focus of women, some funds should be earmarked for the implementation of the various programmes in the concerned ministries and departments for voluntary organisations. Further, through the

Central Social Welfare Board, CAPART and the National Rural Development Fund, the activities of and co-operation with voluntary agencies should be expanded and strengthened. It is being criticised that a number of programmes implemented by conventional voluntary agencies have emphasised imparting skills to improve the efficiency of women as housewives and mothers, and/or to improve their earning capacities but have neglected the participative potential of women in the development process as well as conscientizing women on their rights and roles. There is the need for such efforts that could increase the awareness of women and improve their participation as equal citizen in national development.

The rationale for involvement of NGOs in women's development is quite clear. Women in India suffer from multifarious constraints such as low level of literacy, lack of access to resources and obstacles caused by the cultural and social customs and traditions discriminatory of women. In a situation like this, the role of voluntary organisations in creating awareness among women of their rights and mobilising women as well as developing in them appropriate motivation and leadership to realise those rights cannot be minimised. The process of creating an environment conducive to the progress of women is dependent on a multitude of socio-economic factors, starting with a political will to enforce the

development of women as a priority. The role of voluntary organisations in the mobilisation of women in particular is seen as a critical factor for the development strategies of the future.

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CHAPTER V

WOMEN PARTICIPATION IN DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMMES

The logic of women participation and promotional role of organisations are certainly not a bone of contention. However, it has to be explored and examined how far this logic is reflected in reality. An attempt is made in this chapter with the primary data collected from selected development organisations in Kerala and their women beneficiaries, to find out the actual degree of women participation in the various development programmes. Since the present level of participation is attained under the existing framework of the Kerala economy and the general status of development organisations/women in the State, relevant information about all these regional and organisational context are given. This will enable one to understand the findings of the study with a better perspective. With these objectives, the present chapter is organised into four parts, viz., (i) Kerala economy (ii) present state of development organisations (iii) role of women in Kerala and (iv) actual women participation. The part entitled 'actual women participation' is further divided on the basis of (a) degree of participation (b) type of participation (c) stages of participation and (d) method of participation. The analysis in this chapter is mainly meant

to highlight the role of organisations in beneficiary participation and the influence of nature of the programme, stages of programme implementation, adopted methods and type of participation on the present level of participation. The first four hypotheses mentioned in the methodology chapter is also tested here with the given data and their analysis.

5.1 Kerala economy

Kerala is one of the smallest states occupying 1.18 per cent of the area and 3.72 per cent of the population of India. Having 291 lakh population with a density of 749 persons per square kilometre, women outnumber men by a sex ratio of 1036, in 1991¹. The values of Physical Quality of Life Index (PQLI) components are (a) literacy 89.81 per cent, (b) infant mortality 17 and (c) expectancy of life 69.76. They are much favourable compared to the national averages of 52.21, 70 and 61 respectively for the same variables². The Human Development Index (HDI) for the State (65.1 per cent) is more than double that of the nation (30.9 per cent). By incurring a per capita expenditure (Rs.269/-) higher than the country (Rs.190/-), the State has been running 12190 schools and 214 colleges during 1991-92. With a per capita medical expenditure (Rs.92/-), greater than the national average (Rs.58/-), the government runs about 2101 medical institutions

in the State. There were 7.08 lakh vehicles plying over 20414 kilometre roads in 1992-93. The number of commercial banks (2842), agricultural credit societies (1579), post offices (4978), telephone exchanges (675), public call offices (6255), telephone subscribers (3.06 lakhs), fair price shops (13143) and many other indicators of socio-economic infrastructure highlight the sound overhead facilities in the State.

However the performance of the state economy is not in consonance with her sound socio-economic infrastructure. The per capita income of the State (Rs.4626/-) is lower than the national average (Rs.5529/-), though people below the poverty line (32 per cent) is not greater than that of the nation (39.34 per cent). Dependency rate is high (54.3 per cent) and work participation rate is low (30.5 per cent). The work seekers in the live register of employment exchanges are 39.6 lakhs whereas 13457 factories in the State could generate only 3.7 lakhs employment. The per capita land availability is only 0.13 hectare and demand-supply gap for food production is 67 per cent. While the Central Government per capita investment on an average is Rs.1533/- at the national level it is only Rs.637/- in Kerala. Similarly, though there were 12.5 commercial bank offices per lakh of population in 1991-92, which was higher than the All India figure (9.1), the credit-deposit ratio was only 52 per cent against the country's

average of 55 per cent. The per capita assistance by the all India financial institutions during 1992-93 in Kerala was only Rs.56/- compared to the national average of Rs.198/-.

The development planners and administrators of Kerala who have succeeded in achieving enviable human development and physical quality of life indices, have failed to break the grounds for high levels of income, employment and output. Hence, government is seriously thinking of a development strategy for harnessing the initiative and enthusiasm of the people in general, and, women in particular. In the new people-centered development policy, the government organisations are promoting not only development partnership with existing NGOs, but also encouraging innovative people's organisations. In this context it will be highly relevant if the present status and state of development organisations in Kerala is discussed.

5.2 Present state of development organisations

Development Organisations (DOs) are broadly classified into GOs and NGOs. The major difference between GOs and NGOs in Kerala at present is that, while the former has entered into the third or fourth generation of organisational evolution, majority of the NGOs are still in the second generation, looking after relief and welfare activities. GOs,

with their extensive paraphernalia and power have reached a stage capable of undertaking wide range of developmental activities through their development departments and separate development agencies, in Kerala.

5.2.1 Governmental Organisations (GOs)

GOs include central, state and local self-governments. The central government can function through its development departments and agencies independently and jointly working with the state government. DRDA is a joint venture of the state and central governments. Local self governments like corporations, municipalities and panchayats are also active in Kerala in pursuing development activities. The Government of Kerala has eleven development departments, viz., departments of industry, agriculture, irrigation, fisheries, forestry, co-operation, local administration, power, public works, planning and economic affairs and rural development.

The organisational hierarchy of the development departments is in line with the Minister as the State head followed by the Secretary, Commissioner of Rural Development and Assistant Development Commissioners in the districts, Block Development Officers in the blocks and Village Extension Officers at the village level. There are development councils consisting of people's representatives, experts, government

officials and representatives from financial institutions to assist at each level of hierarchy. Each DRDA has a governing body consisting of people's representatives, representatives of lead bank, NABARD and District Industries Centre, Block Development Officers as special invitees and the Project Officer of the concerned DRDA as the Convenor. Since DRDA is established for all the districts, at present there are 14 DRDAs in Kerala, supported by an extensive organisational network of 61 blocks and 1001 panchayats.

5.2.2 Non-governmental organisations (NGOs)

There are various types of NGOs working in the State varying in size and nature of work. Major types are mahila samajams, co-operatives and voluntary development organisations, though welfare/development activities of trusts, commercial/educational institutions, Khadi and village industries etc. are also prevailing. The number of mahila samajams as estimated by the Rural Development Commissioner of Kerala is around 5000. However, majority of them are not active. Some of them are associated with the block development offices to channelise government assistance to women beneficiaries. But, none of the mahila samajams are undertaking development work independently.

The co-operatives are yet another form of non-governmental organisation. Since their inception in 1911, the co-operatives in Kerala have developed and diversified extensively. The total number of co-operatives under the Registrar of Co-operatives alone (there will be equal number of other co-operatives under different development departments) is 8948 with nearly 200 lakhs members as on 30th June 1991. They have advanced a loan of Rs.2481.96 crores during 1990-91³. However, they are basically working as extension agencies of the government, with elected Board of Directors and under strict government control and regulations. They can very well be called as governmental NGOs as has been classified by David Korten⁴.

The voluntary organisations in Kerala have also a pretty long history of service in the State, especially those associated with Christian Churches since the 19th century. However, their exact number is not revealed by any reliable source. In this context it may be apt to recall the opinion of the World Bank about the number of NGOs as "it is hard to measure the size of the independent sector"⁵.

There were 415 organisations in Kerala receiving funds under FERA⁶. The Directorate of Social Welfare of the Government of Kerala maintains a list of 329 voluntary institutions. As per the All India Directory of Voluntary

Organisations,⁷ there were 106 organisations in Kerala. The State Unit of CAPART had a list of 72 voluntary agencies working in Kerala. A study⁸ on the role of voluntary agencies in Kerala is also available in which 42 NGOs are mentioned. By scrutinising all these lists one can find that many of the names are overlapping and many are involved in non-developmental activities like library, sports, recreation etc. In order to have a meaningful idea about the nature and working of voluntary development organisations in Kerala, secondary sources were inadequate. Hence, necessary information was collected through mailed institutional questionnaires in a phased manner.

After a detailed discussion and interaction with leading voluntary organisations and social workers in the State, a list of 280 organisations was prepared without duplication and a preliminary questionnaire was sent to all the 280 organisations. In the second phase, after screening the filled in questionnaires, 51 organisations were selected based on the criteria of registered voluntary organisations having sufficiently large volume of developmental work and having more than five years of experience in the field. In the third and final phase, nine VDOs were selected for detailed analysis on the basis of the given sample design of the study.

As per the details collected through the first and second phases of mailed questionnaires, the nature and functioning of VDOs in Kerala are as following. The year of inception of 51 organisations selected in the second phase ranged from 1893 to 1988, of which 77.19 per cent were registered after 1970. A spectacular growth of voluntary organisations was experienced since late seventies or specifically after 1980's (49.12 per cent). The jurisdiction for operation is limited within the state for most of the organisations (77.5 per cent). The paid/honorary staff position ranged from two to 17. All the organisations have, properly constituted General Councils and Board of Directors.

The nature and number of projects implemented by the organisations vary widely. The lion's share of the programmes is related to employment generation (40 per cent) such as ready-made garments, khadi and village industries, candle sticks, match box, carpentry, footwear, printing etc. The major house-based production schemes (24 per cent) are animal husbandry, poultry, sericulture, kitchen gardening etc. Schemes for facilities (26 per cent) include housing, drinking water, sanitation, health care, bio-gas plants, smokeless chulahs, creche, marketing etc. Skill formation programmes (10 per cent) consist of training to farmers, training under TRYSEM, tailoring, literacy and training in production centres.

The number of beneficiaries per organisation at present ranges from 60 to 1500 families. The annual turnover of a few VDOs even exceed Rs.150 lakhs. Though considerable number of beneficiaries (46 per cent) hail from the class of below the poverty line, majority of them belong to middle income group (54 per cent).

The salient features of Voluntary Development Organisations in Kerala can be summed up as follows:

- (i) Though there are innumerable NGOs like mahila samajams, recreation clubs, co-operatives etc., almost all of them are either interested in non-developmental functions or acting as government extension agencies.
- (ii) Reliable data on the number, size and functions of existing voluntary development organisations are meagre.
- (iii) VDOs have not emerged as a reasonable force to be reckoned with in the State, eventhough there is historical legacy and proclaimed state patronage to such efforts.
- (iv) As far as source of funds, nature of programme and style of administration are concerned, VDOs are not capable to act as organisations of the local people.

In fact, majority of the existing organisations originated, thanks to the ecclesiastical efforts.

- (v) It seems that adequate resources, linkages, comprehensive ideology and professionalism are lacking in the existing VDOs in Kerala which hinders the creation of a non-governmental development culture in the State.

It is seen that the present position of VDOs in Kerala is one of inadequate level, though not absolutely disappointing. However one can hope that due to the emerging importance of non-governmental efforts for development and development partnership with government, there will be sufficient number of such organisations, in due course. Now a look into the status of women in Kerala and contributions of GOs and NGOs towards their upliftment would be suitable.

5.3 Role of women in Kerala

Kerala is the only state in India where women outnumber men with a higher sex ratio since 1951. The literacy rate, life expectancy and many other indicators show that Kerala women are far ahead of their counterparts in the rest of India. Using secondary data an attempt is made in the ensuing paragraphs to examine the general status of Kerala

women and their participation in the development programmes of the State.

The status of women which was inferior to men in almost all societies has changed to a stage of equality in developed countries. The status of women in high-income, middle-income and low-income countries with respect to (a) sex ratio (b) work participation (c) life expectancy (d) infant mortality and (e) average age at first marriage are given in Appendix I. As seen in Appendix I, the status of women in high-income countries is higher in all respects compared to other countries and with men of their countries in certain areas. The sex-ratio is high in all high-income countries. The work participation rate of women is low in all Muslim countries. Life expectancy of females is lower than that of males only in low-income countries. In all countries women marry at an earlier age than men. The position of Indian women compared to the women of high and middle-income countries and their own country men are inferior.

The general conclusion derived from Appendix I is that, higher the income, higher will be the chances for equality of sex.

Comparison of the status of women in Kerala and India is limited due to the absence of data regarding important

indicators. For the available data, absence of common reference period is another constraint. The status of Kerala women compared to men and women in India can be analysed by means of Table 5.1 which contains (a) sex-ratio (b) literacy rate (c) life expectancy and (d) work participation rate.

Table 5.1 Status of women - Kerala and India, male and female, 1991

Sl. No. Indicators	India		Kerala	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
1. Sex ratio	N.A	929.00	N.A	1036.00
2. Literacy	64.13	39.29	93.62	86.17
3. Life expectancy	59.10	58.10	69.00	72.00
4. Work participation	51.61	22.26	47.58	15.85

Source: State Planning Board, Economic Review, Government of Kerala, Trivandrum, Various Issues

Note : N.A - Not applicable

Table 5.1 clearly indicates that, except in the case of work participation rate, the status of women in Kerala is better than men and women in the rest of India.

Data on various indicators of economic and social status of women compared to men in Kerala are given in Table 5.2.

Table 5.2 Status of women in Kerala

Sl. No.	Indicators	Reference period	Female	Male
1.	Literacy	1991	86.17	93.62
2.	Life expectancy	1991	72.00	69.00
3.	Work participation	1991	15.85	47.58
4.	Employment in enterprises	1990	25.19	74.81
5.	Enrolment in schools	1992	49.04	50.96
6.	Enrolment in colleges	1992	52.78	47.22
7.	Teachers in technical institutions	1992	14.72	85.28
8.	Small-scale industrial units	1992	23.39	76.61
9.	Industrial training	1992	26.60	73.40

Source: Same as Table 5.1

Indicators relating to employment like work participation rate, employment in enterprises, teachers in technical institutions and entrepreneurs of small scale industrial units show as per Table 5.2, that participation of women is lower than that of men in Kerala. But, the social indicators like literacy, life expectancy and enrolment in colleges (unlike enrolment in schools) highlight the better status attained by Kerala women in their society.

Though women outnumber men in Kerala, their representation in the Legislative Assembly is only six out of 144 MLAs and one out of 25 MPs in the Parliament. Out of 150 IAS officers, only 13 are women. Although we have a good number of women entrepreneurs in Kerala, it is a fact that they are either making pickles or stitching garments⁹.

Thus an overview of women's status in Kerala indicates that:

- (i) their participation in social development is remarkable
- (ii) the same degree of achievement is not recorded in the economic front as employees and entrepreneurs and
- (iii) socio-economic status of Kerala women is better than men and women in the rest of the country in certain respects.

The role of women in rural development programmes can be ascertained from the data relating to IRDP, TRYSEM and DWCRA. IRDP intends to assist rural families below the poverty line to take up self-employment through a package of assistance comprising subsidy and credit. TRYSEM imparts training to rural youths in the age group of 18-35 to take up self-employment. DWCRA is a sub-scheme of IRDP meant to

provide employment to rural women below the poverty line. Data pertaining to share of women in these special programmes are given in Table 5.3.

Table 5.3 Share of women in Rural Development Programmes, 1988-92

Sl. No.	Year	IRDP (families in %)	TRYSEM (Individuals in %)	DWCRA (groups Nos)
1.	1988-89	40.92	60.24	193
2.	1989-90	38.01	64.87	136
3.	1990-91	45.17	66.61	265
4.	1991-92	48.75	66.84	347

Source: Same as Table 5.1

Women participation in the rural development programmes of government is increasing consistently over the years as per Table 5.3. Since there is statutory quota for women in IRDP, development authorities have to observe it. For instance, in IRDP, the statutory reservation for women is 40 per cent at present. The authorities are capable of achieving such physical targets. Whether the benefits are allotted in the name of women or actually owned and utilised by women beneficiaries themselves, are disputable issues in development literature.

The major observations regarding rural development programmes are:

- (i) the participation of women is statutorily ensured through reservation and
- (ii) women participation is consistently increasing over the years.

Statutory provisions for participation, called as administrative participation by Glass¹⁰ ensures involvement in benefit sharing stage alone. Whether the beneficiary is participating in other stages of development process is a matter to be examined and concluded. The degree of actual women participation at different stages and the influence of various variables on the existing degree of participation are analysed in detail by field data in the commencing parts.

5.4 Actual women participation

This section of the chapter analyses the primary data to find out the (a) degree of participation (b) type of participation (c) stages of participation and (d) method of participation. The interrelations of the degree, stages and type of participation are also highlighted. The impact of type of the organisation and nature of programme on the degree, stages and type of participation are also ascertained in the analysis.

5.4.1 Degree of participation

Innumerable factors and forces influence the exact degree of participation of a woman beneficiary. According to the extent of divergence of actual and ideal conditions, real participation differs from ideal participation. A participant need not always be blamed for lower participation. It implies that, even if a woman has perfect propensity to participate, by the very nature of the programme and the type of organisation, actual degree of participation can diverge from the expected level of participation.

The absolute value of participation does not convey any meaning. Normally, it is expressed as a percentage of the expected level of participation. It is called as the degree of effective participation. In the present analysis, the degree of participation is, thus, expressed as a percentage of absolute or realised participation to required or maximum participation. The value of maximum participation is estimated on the basis of certain avenues of participation identified for beneficiaries; such avenues for participation exist in all stages of a programme from pre-planning to post-evaluation. In the present study there are 21 identified avenues for beneficiary participation in the various stages of programme implementation. Each avenue scores one mark or value each if a beneficiary participates in that stage. Thus

the maximum expected value of participation is 21. The 21 avenues for participation at different stages of programme implementation are as follows:

- a. Pre-implementation stage
 1. Briefing about the programme and organisation
 2. Selection as beneficiary
 3. Cost sharing
 4. Self interest or forced by others to join

- b. Implementation stage
 5. Benefit sharing
 6. Proper utilisation of benefit
 7. Receipt of inputs and assistance
 8. Role in management of scheme/production/monitoring/supervision

- c. Modification/improvement of the scheme
 9. Discussion about the scheme with colleagues and authorities
 10. Assistance and suggestions to improve
 11. Programme for training/skill formation
 12. Marketing of finished products

- d. Evaluation/follow-up
 13. Opinion about the programme
 14. Opinion about the organisation
 15. Opinion about the development personnel

16. Opinion about assistance for development
 17. Role in technical evaluation and follow-up
- e. Inside-outside interaction
18. Visit to organisation/other offices
 19. Voluntary/honorary service
 20. Attendance in the meetings of association/organisation
 21. Briefing about the programme/organisation to others

5.4.1.1 Participation and type of organisation

The rate of participation of 360 women beneficiaries was calculated on the basis of the data collected through the interview schedule used in the sample survey. Of the 360 women respondents, 90 women were from government organisations for rural development (DRDAs) and 270 women were from nine non-governmental organisations selected. Since the major objective of the study was to find out the degree of participation of women beneficiaries in the development programmes of GOs and NGOs, organisation-wise participation of women are given in Table 5.4. Effective participation is the ratio of absolute participation to required participation, the value of which is 21. Z-values to measure the significant divergence in mean participation rates of different beneficiaries among different types of organisations are given in Appendix II.

Table 5.4 Degree of women participation - organisation-wise

Sl. No.	Organisation	Absolute participation	Effective participation (%)	Participants above satisfactory participation rate (%)
1.	Government	09.32	44.38	07.78
2.	Christian	13.47	64.14	48.66
3.	Secular	13.10	62.38	42.50
4.	Average NGO (X'an & secular)	13.30	63.33	45.92
5.	Aggregate average (GO + NGO)	12.31	58.62	36.38

Source: Survey Data

There is significant difference between the mean participation rates of GOs and NGOs and their constituents. The difference is statistically significant also (at 5 per cent level). The Z-values are, for GOs and NGOs (3.3078), GOs and Christian NGOs (3.4997) and GOs and Secular NGOs (2.0468). The aggregate average participation rate is 58.62 per cent. It indicates that women participation in development programmes of GOs and NGOs is only moderate in general and very poor (44.38%) in GOs in particular, because it is assumed in the study that satisfactory level of participation rate should be 65 per cent (See para 5.4.2). However, the average

participation rate is comparatively higher in non-governmental organisations (63.33%). Among the NGOs, Christian organisations have the highest participation rate (64.14%).

The number of participants above the satisfactory participation rate is 36.38 per cent of the total women beneficiaries and they are highest among Christian organisations (48.66%) and lowest in GOs (07.78%). The average participation rate and the number of beneficiaries above the satisfactory level show that women participation is remarkably poor in GOs.

The major inferences of Table 5.4 are, thus, the following:

- (i) In general, women participation is only moderate in the development programmes in Kerala.
- (ii) Organisational difference between GOs and NGOs does make a difference in the rate of participation of women beneficiaries. The difference is statistically significant also. It proves the hypothesis that the type of organisation can create differential impact on participation rates.
- (iii) More number of the participants in NGOs are above the satisfactory participation rate compared to that of GOs.

5.4.1.2 Participation and nature of programme

The relation between degree of participation and type of organisation is already examined. The next attempt is to find out the relation between degree of participation and nature of benefit or programme. The benefit from a programme may be (a) output through a production scheme (b) factory type direct employment (c) training or skill and (d) facility like housing, sanitation, smokeless chulah, short stay home etc. The change in the degree of participation due to differences in the nature of programme can be observed from Table 5.5.

Table 5.5 Participation rate and nature of programme

Sl. No.	Nature of programme	GO	NGO	Average (GO + NGO)
1.	Production	50.00 (5.0)	76.19 (5.8)	64.10 (10.8)
2.	Employment	44.86 (7.2)	62.29 (54.7)	60.24 (61.9)
3.	Skill	41.90 (12.8)	62.24 (8.3)	49.95 (21.1)
4.	Facility	Nil (-)	62.14 (6.2)	62.14 (6.2)
5.	Average	44.38 (25.0)	63.33 (75.0)	58.62 (100.0)

Source: Survey Data

Note : Number of women beneficiaries in each category as a percentage to total women beneficiaries in brackets

Women participation is the highest in the production schemes like animal husbandry, poultry, kitchen garden etc. which are basically house-based programmes where women can participate easily and leisurely. Women are participating relatively better in facilities also which are again house-based schemes. By observing the relation of the degree of participation and the nature of the programme, one can understand that (a) nearer the programme to the house, higher will be the participation and (b) the higher participation rate in NGO is influenced by the nature of the programmes attuned for women to work at home. The proximity of the programme to the house enables women beneficiaries to involve in programmes at ease and also leisurely at convenient times. The two observations prove the hypothesis that participation rate and nature of the programme are interrelated.

Thus, it can be concluded that the type of the organisation and nature of the programme are capable of influencing the degree of participation of women beneficiaries in the development programmes.

5.4.2 Type of participation

Though there are several methods of classifying participation, a relevant classification is active and passive participation. Active participation occurs at a range of participation above 65 per cent, which is assumed as the

satisfactory level of participation in the present analysis. Sixty five per cent or above is taken as the satisfactory level because (a) the rate should be above 50 per cent where participation and non-participation are equal (b) a figure above 50 per cent can be two-third which is a generally accepted critical value and (c) critical value should be a rate slightly higher so as to influence decisions or to make participants active in the affairs which affect them. According to the possible ranges of participation from zero to 100 per cent, the typology of participation can be on the basis of different ranges as following

- (i) highly active participation - 85% to 100%
- (ii) active participation - 65% to 85%
- (iii) moderate participation - 45% to 65%
- (iv) passive participation - 25% to 45% and
- (v) highly passive participation - zero to 25%

5.4.2.1 Type and organisation

The typology of participation on the basis of different classes of effective participation is illustrated in Table 5.6. The percentage of participants in each organisation in each class is given in Table 5.6 to get an idea about the number of beneficiaries at different classes of active, non-active and satisfactory level of participation.

Table 5.6 Type of participation - organisation-wise

Sl. No.	Type of participation	Range of participation (%)	Number of participants(%)		
			GO	NGO	Total
1.	Highly active	100-85	Nil	02.59	01.94
2.	Active	85-65	07.78	43.33	34.44
3.	Moderately active	65-45	35.55	48.89	45.56
4.	Passive	45-25	50.00	05.19	16.39
5.	Highly passive	25-00	06.67	00.00	01.67

Source: Survey Data

The women participants above the satisfactory level of participation (active and highly active) constitute 36.38 per cent of the total participants. Though the average participation rate of women beneficiaries in NGOs (63.33%) vide Table 5.4 is below the active range (65% - 100%), about 46 per cent of them are at active or above satisfactory level of participation. None of them are highly passive. In fact, participants in passive category are only 5.19 per cent in NGOs. But in the case of GOs 56.67 per cent are in the passive and highly passive category. The number of women beneficiaries in the active participation range is only 7.78 per cent in GOs, where none is in the highly active range. Table 5.6 indicates that, irrespective of organisation there

are women beneficiaries who are active in participating in development programmes. But, they constitute a minority in GOs and of course a considerable number in NGOs. It is proved that organisation can make differential impact on degree of participation and it is reiterated here that the number of participants in the satisfactory range is different for GOs and NGOs. Thus the major inferences of Table 5.6 are the following:

- (i) The number of women participants in the satisfactory or above level of participation is only moderate (36.38%) and majority (63.62%) are below the satisfactory range
- (ii) Organisation is a factor which creates differential impact on number of participants in satisfactory or below satisfactory range of participation and
- (iii) Irrespective of the type of the organisation, there may be a few participants who can attain active participation.

5.4.2.2 Wilful and automatic non-participation

Yet another meaningful classification of non-participation is wilful non-participation and automatic non-participation. Policy-wise implication is that whether the

non-participation is personal (wilful non-participation) or institutional (automatic non-participation). Among the various avenues for participation, there are certain factors for participation which are purely personal. But there are certain factors which are beyond the control of the participants such as the type of organisation or the nature of the programme. For instance, in the pre-implementation stage, cost sharing, consultation with beneficiaries etc. can be made compulsory or voluntary by the organisation. Organisation can also give training or marketing service etc. which are not in the purview of individual participants. If such provisions are there in the organisation, the beneficiary can be more involved in the programme. But in the present study it is examined whether beneficiaries are utilising given institutional arrangements or not.

Non-participation of a participant may be due to non-involvement in given institutional factors or personal factors according to which automatic and wilful non-participation are estimated. At the same time it is to be noted that individual non-participation in institutional factors may create automatic non-participation. But it does not imply that institutional factors are adequate or inadequate in an organisation which has to be estimated separately on the basis of expected and actual arrangements. In brief, automatic non-participation is not a reflection of the adequacy or the

absence of institutional arrangements for participation but only the individual propensity to utilise the given opportunities.

Table 5.7 points out the proportion of actual participation and non-participation (the difference between maximum and actual participation). The composition of average non-participation (wilful and automatic) and the share of the different types of non-participation to total non-participation are also given separately.

Table 5.7 Type of non-participation - organisation-wise

Sl. No.	Type of participation non-participation	Percentage share of participation/non-participation		
		GO	NGO	Total
1.	Average participation	44.38	63.33	58.62
2.	Average non-participation	55.62	36.67	41.38
2.1	Automatic non-participation	26.98	21.25	22.69
2.2	Wilful non-participation	28.64	15.42	18.69
3.	Share of automatic non-participation in total non-participation	48.50	57.96	54.82
4.	Share of wilful non-participation in total non-participation	51.50	42.04	45.18

Source: Survey Data

The proportion of non-participation to participation is 1:1.42 which implies that participation is greater than non-participation (column 5, row 1 and 2). In the total non-participation, the major contributor is automatic non-participation (54.82%). Wilful non-participation is relatively higher among the participants of GOs. As far as NGOs are concerned, major share of non-participation (57.96%) is caused by the non-involvement in given institutional factors like nature of programme and type of organisation. It implies that, the higher participation in NGOs is the result of personal characteristics of the participants. It also indicates that average participation rate can be increased to the extent of 25 per cent or more if participants are willing to utilise the existing arrangements for the same. By an increase of 25 per cent of participation, all the participants will attain satisfactory level of participation (65% to 85%).

Non-involvement in given arrangements may be, due to ineffectiveness of arrangements or personal reasons. Thus the important inferences from Table 5.7 are the following:

- a. The major contributor to non-participation is automatic or institutional
- b. There exist wide variations among the beneficiaries of GOs and NGOs in utilising given arrangements for participation and

- c. Due care is required for better utilisation of given opportunities for participation by institutions as well as individuals.

5.4.2.3 Range and type of non-participation

At different ranges of participation what will be the share of different types of non-participation is a matter to be examined. Table 5.8 highlights the relation between different types of non-participation to different ranges of participation.

Table 5.8 Women non-participation - range-wise (in %)

Sl. No.	Range of participation	GOS		NGOs		Total	
		ANP	WNP	ANP	WNP	ANP	WNP
1.	100-85	Nil	Nil	66.67	33.33	66.67	33.33
2.	85-65	48.84	51.16	62.01	37.99	61.25	38.75
3.	65-45	58.49	41.51	56.33	43.67	56.79	43.21
4.	45-25	43.70	56.30	51.74	48.26	45.50	54.50
5.	25-zero	44.00	56.00	Nil	Nil	44.00	56.00
6.	Total	48.50	51.50	57.96	42.04	54.82	45.18

Source: Survey Data

Note : ANP - Automatic Non-participation
WNP - Wilful Non-participation

Participation and wilful non-participation are moving in the opposite direction as per Table 5.8. As the participation rate declines, the share of wilful non-participation increases (or wilful participation declines). It implies that the cause of increasing non-participation is wilful. However at the higher levels of participation automatic non-participation is the determining factor because participants would have already utilised their maximum propensity to participate in that stage. It is the increasing share of wilful non-participation in lower participation rates which automatically reduced the share of institutional factors. It does not however imply that at lower participation rates beneficiaries are utilising more of the given institutional arrangements.

The major inferences of Table 5.8 are the following:

- (i) The degree of participation and wilful non-participation are inversely interrelated. Higher the rate of participation, higher will be the wilful participation or higher will be the influence of personal factors. It proves that, like the organisation and the programme, the participant is also an important factor in determining the degree of participation. It also proves the hypothesis that higher the participation, lower will be the wilful non-participation.

- (ii) Since automatic non-participation is higher in the higher stages of participation where participants have proven propensity to participate, effective strategies to utilise given institutional arrangements for participation will yield better involvement of progressive beneficiaries in the development programmes.

5.4.2.4 Type of participation and nature of programme

Type of participation implicit in different ranges and nature of programme may be inter-dependent. The direction of the relationship between type of participation and nature of programme can be examined with the help of a two-way table. The percentage share of participants in different programmes with respect to varying ranges of participation is given in Table 5.9.

In the production programmes, maximum number of participants (48.72%) are in the 85-65 range while in employment (49.78%), skill (43.42%) and facility (50.00%) majority are in the below satisfactory (65-45) range. Participation changes according to the nature of the programme. For instance, of the total number of participants in each programme, the participants above the 65 per cent of the participation rate (satisfactory level) are 58.98 per cent

Table 5.9 Range of participation and nature of programme

Sl. No.	Range of participation	Nature of programme - % of participants			
		Production	Employment	Skill	Facility
1.	100-85	10.26	00.90	Nil	Nil
2.	85-65	48.72	37.22	18.42	45.45
3.	65-45	20.51	49.78	43.42	50.00
4.	45-25	17.95	11.20	34.21	04.55
5.	25-zero	02.56	00.90	03.95	Nil
6.	Average participation rate	64.10	60.24	49.95	62.14
7.	Rank in participation rate	1	3	4	2
8.	Rank in size of satisfactory participants	1	3	4	2

Source: Survey Data

in production programme, 45.45 per cent in facility, 38.12 per cent in employment and 18.42 per cent in skill. The average participation rate is the highest in production programmes where the percentage of participants in the satisfactory level of participation is the highest. The rank in the average participation rate obtained in each type of programme and the

rank in the size of satisfactory participants are identical. It reinforces the earlier observations of Table 5.5 that participation and nature of programme are interrelated.

5.4.3 Stages of participation

Like the degree and type of participation, the stages of participation are also important. Since actual participation is the sum total of the involvement in all the five stages of programme implementation, it will be significant to identify the stages at which participation is promoted or constrained. The five stages of participation as mentioned earlier are (a) pre-implementation (b) implementation (c) modification (d) evaluation and (c) interaction.

5.4.3.1 Stages and degree of participation

The subject matter of Table 5.10 is the degree of participation of women beneficiaries at different stages of programme implementation. The degree of participation in each stage is given as a ratio of absolute participation in one stage to expected participation in that stage.

Table 5.10 Stages and degree of women participation, organisation-wise

Sl. No.	Stages of participation	Degree of participation (in %)		
		GO	NGO	Total
1.	Pre-implementation	21.50	73.75	60.75
2.	Implementation	68.25	72.00	71.00
3.	Modification	33.50	38.50	37.25
4.	Evaluation	50.60	66.80	62.80
5.	Interaction	46.50	64.75	60.25
6.	Aggregate average	44.38	63.33	58.62

Source: Survey Data

In general, the highest women participation is in the implementation stage and the lowest participation is in the stage of accepting/offering advices/suggestions for modification/improvement of the programmes. It can be concluded that (a) for the same organisation, degree of participation will be different in different stages of programme implementation and (b) organisation has a role in varying participation rates in various stages.

5.4.3.2 Stages and type of non-participation

Reasons for varying degrees of participation at different stages can be probed by interrelating

- a. Stages of participation with type of participation (or its absence) and
- b. Stages of participation with nature of benefit.

At what stages the share of wilful or automatic non-participation are higher will highlight the relation between stages and type of non-participation, which is given in Table 5.11.

Table 5.11 Stages and type of non-participation (in %)

Sl. No.	Stages of participation	ANP	WNP	Total NP
1.	Pre-implementation	25.10	09.76	18.16
2.	Implementation	19.82	08.92	14.91
3.	Modification	28.92	29.36	29.12
4.	Evaluation	17.01	23.03	19.72
5.	Interaction	09.15	28.93	18.09
6.	Total	100.00	100.00	100.00

Source: Survey Data

Note : NP - Non-participation
 ANP - Automatic Non-participation
 WNP - Wilful Non-participation

The highest degree of non-participation is occurring at the stage of modification/improvement of a programme. In this stage automatic and wilful non-participation are also at the highest. Lowest non-participation is at the implementation stage where wilful non-participation is also the lowest. Automatic non-participation is the lowest at the interaction stage where organisation has a role to arrange visit to office, formation of beneficiary association etc. Except in the initial two stages of programme implementation, (pre-implementation and implementation stages), wilful non-participation is greater than automatic non-participation. In fact wilful non-participation is increasing in the later stages of programme implementation. Automatic non-participation is greater than wilful non-participation in pre-implementation and implementation stages. Women beneficiaries are, thus, found to be reluctant to participate in the later stages of programme implementation on personal grounds than institutional factors.

5.4.3.3 Stages and nature of programme

Another type of relation exists between stages of participation and nature of the programme. It indicates whether degree of participation change according to the nature of the programme, and if it changes, at what stages the changes are predominant or not. Inferences from Table 5.12

reveal such interrelations. The percentage distribution of total participation in each programme is noted against different stages of participation.

Table 5.12 Stages of participation and nature of programme

Sl. No.	Stages of participation	Nature of programme (in %)				Average participation rate
		Production	Employment	Skill	Facility	
1.	Pre-implementation	19.43	21.58	13.43	19.51	60.75
2.	Implementation	26.48	22.71	24.72	21.60	71.00
3.	Modification	12.00	11.42	15.06	08.02	37.25
4.	Evaluation	25.33	25.30	24.33	26.83	62.80
5.	Interaction	16.76	18.99	22.46	24.04	60.25
6.	Total	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	N.A
7.	Average participation rate	64.10	60.24	49.95	62.14	58.62

Source: Survey Data

Note : N.A - Not Applicable

For the production schemes and skill formation programmes, the highest participation is at the implementation stage. Production programme which has the highest participation among the nature of programmes has also the

highest participation in the implementation stage, where participation is highest among different stages. But in the programmes for employment and facility, participants are highly involved in the evaluation stage at which participation of beneficiaries of production and skill generating schemes are also considerable. Facilities have the highest participation in evaluation and interaction stages. Skill generating programmes achieved the highest participation in the implementation stage, followed by evaluation and interaction stages. In all stages, except pre-implementation, participation of employment programme has third position.

The production programmes have the highest participation and skill programmes the lowest participation. But, both have the highest participation at implementation and evaluation stages. It implies that nature of the programme do not make any change in the degree of participation at different stages or according to the stages of participation, degree of participation do not change in different programmes.

The relation between stages of participation and nature of the programme was statistically tested by applying Kendal's Co-efficient of Concordance (W). The formula used was,

$$W = \frac{S}{\frac{1}{12} K^2 (N^3 - N)}$$

$$\text{where } S = \sum (R_j - \bar{R}_j)^2$$

K = No. of sets of rankings or number of judges

N = number of objects ranked

The critical value of 'S' with given N and K compared to table value for Kendal's Co-efficient shows whether there is any significant association or concordance in ranks obtained. The estimated value of 'S' should be greater than the table value for significant relations. By ranking the programmes according to stages and ranking the stages according to programmes, Kendal's Co-efficient was worked out. It was found that there was no significant association in rankings. For ranking of stages with nature of programme, 'W' was 0.4375 and 'S' was 70. For ranking of programme with stages, 'W' was 8.033 and 'S' was only one. Both were insignificant because they were below the table values. It can be hence inferred that programme-wise participation rates have no association with stage-wise participation rate or vice versa. It disproves the hypothesis that stages and nature of programmes are associated.

The analysis of degree, stages and type of participation done in the preceding sections shows their interrelations with type of organisation and nature of the programme. It also proves the hypothesis that degree, stages and type of participation are interrelated.

5.4.4 Method of participation

In order to find out women participation in the development programmes of GOs and NGOs, 21 avenues were identified under ideal conditions. Among the various methods, which were the ones generally resorted to by women, and whether there have been any organisational influence in the methods adopted, are being analysed in this section. Methods of participation of women in detail according to type of organisation are given in Table 5.13. The sum of responses of women beneficiaries to all the 21 identified statements are calculated and ranked in ascending order to find out the major methods of participation.

The major inferences from Table 5.13 are the following:

Since all the respondents are beneficiaries, benefit sharing naturally has obtained the first rank in the method of participation. The generally accepted methods of participation in the order are, having positive opinion about organisational personnel, visit the office of the organisation, proper utilisation of benefits, voluntary joining in the organisation, the habit of discussing the problems of the programme with others, conveying positive opinion about the organisation, receiving advice/inputs from

Table 5.13 Methods of women participation

Sl. No.	Method	● GOs		NGOs						Total (GO + NGO)	
		Sum of Responses	Rank	X'an		Secular		X'an+Secular		Sum of Responses	Rank
				Sum of Responses	Rank	Sum of Responses	Rank	Sum of Responses	Rank		
1.	Cost sharing	22	15	29	17	39	17	68	17	90	17
2.	Method of selection	0	19	148	2	117	3	265	2	265	10
3.	Discussion	64	6	117	12	113	4	230	8	294	6
4.	Visit to office	89	2	123	11	118	2	241	5	330	3
5.	Consultation with beneficiaries	0	19	133	9	91	10	224	11	224	13
6.	Assistance and suggestions to improve	10	16	43	16	46	16	89	16	99	16
7.	Utilisation of benefit	70	4	142	5	113	4	255	3	325	4
8.	Receipt of inputs and assistance	44	10	134	8	90	12	224	11	268	8
9.	Marketing of finished products	06	17	01	21	0	21	01	21	07	20
10.	Assisting organisation	06	17	24	18	15	19	39	18	45	19
11.	Attendance in association/meeting of organisation	30	14	143	3	95	9	238	7	268	8
12.	Programme for training/skill formation	45	8	85	14	61	14	146	14	191	14
13.	Briefing others about organisation/programme	38	12	83	15	49	15	132	15	170	15
14.	Opinion about programme	34	13	126	10	100	8	226	10	260	11
15.	Self-interest or forced by others to join	55	7	136	6	104	7	240	6	295	5
16.	Opinion about organisation	45	8	136	6	91	10	227	9	272	7
17.	Opinion about personnel	84	3	143	3	108	6	251	4	335	2
18.	Opinion about development activities	65	5	110	13	81	13	191	13	256	12
19.	Role in management of scheme	42	11	10	19	19	18	29	19	71	18
20.	Role in technical evaluation & follow-up	0	19	04	20	02	20	06	20	06	21
21.	Benefit-sharing	90	1	150	1	120	1	270	1	360	1

Note: GOs - Governmental Organisations

NGOs - Non-Governmental Organisations

the organisation, attendance in committee meetings etc. Least resorted participation methods are role in monitoring and evaluation, dependence on organisation for marketing, assisting organisation, role in administration, cost sharing etc. in the order.

The methods generally resorted to by women differ between different organisations. While visit to office is important in GOs and secular NGOs, briefing during selection and attendance in meetings are important for Christian NGOs. While role in monitoring and evaluation are least important methods for all organisations, proper utilisation is equally important for all of them. Since the range of the sum of responses to participative methods accounts from six to 360 and there exists wide variations in sums, it can be inferred that there is no consistency or universality among the beneficiaries regarding the method of participation.

A detailed analysis is made in this chapter about women participation in development programmes with respect to degree of participation, type of participation, stages of participation and method of participation in combination with type of organisation and nature of programme. The changes in degree of participation with respect to all these variables were estimated and the underlying relations were examined. The next attempt is to identify the interrelation of socio-

economic characteristics of beneficiaries, organisational personnel, development personnel and local leaders on the degree of participation. These are dealt with in the next chapter.

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CHAPTER VI

DETERMINANTS OF WOMEN PARTICIPATION

The degree, stages, method and type of women participation in the development programmes of GOs and NGOs have been assessed and analysed in the previous chapter. The analysis has estimated not only the existing rate of participation at different stages, but also revealed the impact of the type of the organisation, nature of the benefit and the stages of implementation on the degree of participation. Besides these variables, there are many other determinants which influence the degree of participation. In the present study, 19 broad variables relating to the beneficiaries, organisations and benefits and their 76 sub-components are being taken to analyse their influence on participation. The relevant variables are the following:

- (i) age
- (ii) sex - male or female
- (iii) education - illiterate, primary, high school, above high school
- (iv) family size
- (v) facilities at home
- (vi) family income

Table 6.1 Participation and beneficiary characteristics

Sl. No.	Range of participation	Degree of participation	FS	AG	FI	PI	FA	SM	WD	SH
1.	Below 50	44.2	5.5	27.4	10048	1260	3.1	52	5.9	1.9
2.	50-60	54.9	5.3	28.2	12022	2096	3.4	66	6.8	1.8
3.	60-70	64.5	5.0	25.7	12118	2041	3.2	53	6.7	1.8
4.	70-80	73.0	5.1	26.8	10977	2515	3.1	49	6.9	1.6
5.	80-90	82.4	5.5	26.7	12322	3593	3.1	59	6.2	1.3
6.	Above 90	93.0	5.0	42.0	39250	0960	3.5	12	2.0	1.0

Source: Survey Data

Note : Participation in percentages, FS - Family size, AG - Age in years, FI - Family income in Rs., PI - Project Income in Rs., FA - Facilities at home out of 5-point grades, SM - Experience in months, WD - Hours of work per day, SH - Cost sharing nature of the programme.

The major observations from Table 6.1 are the following:

- (i) As the family income, project income and cost sharing habit increase, the degree of participation also increase. It implies that as the family/project income and cost sharing habit increase, the tendency of the beneficiaries to participate will also increase.

Increased family income may result in increased sociability and increased project income enrich the interest to involve more in the project. Cost sharing habit is denoted by 'two' for no such habit and 'one' for the existence of the habit. Since nature of the programme varies, all beneficiaries neither say 'Yes' nor 'No' unanimously, leading to a summated average in between one and two. Nearer the value to one, higher the tendency to share cost or vice versa. In Table 6.1, it can be seen that higher participation rates are attached with higher cost sharing habit (that is, declining value of cost sharing from two to one).

- (ii) A noteworthy feature of highly participative group (above 90) is that their family size, experience and project income are the lowest, while age, family income, facilities at home and cost sharing habit are the highest. Cost sharing habit and family income as already observed are associated with high participation for the study group as a whole. Higher the family income, higher will be the facilities at home and lower will be the family size, as is generally observed and even empirically proved (e.g. social capillarity thesis in population growth). But, project income, experience and participation should go hand in hand. In the

present study it is observed that project income and participation have positive relation. The implication of low experience or low project income and high participation in a particular group cannot be generalised and it may be quite accidental that highly participative group have shorter years of experience in the programme/work of the selected organisations.

Therefore, as hypothesised, characteristics of beneficiaries and their participation rates are proved to be interrelated.

6.2 Other relevant variables

Other characteristics of women beneficiaries taken for analysis are,

- a. attitude towards women participation
- b. socio-psychological make-up
- c. religion
- d. education and
- e. occupation

6.2.1 Attitude and psychological make-up

Attitude and socio-psychological make-up are qualitative parameters and they are estimated on the basis of

responses of women beneficiaries towards a set of pre-determined questions or statements. As far as attitude measurement is concerned, 21 statements of equal importance have been given which will fetch a maximum of 21 score value. Attitude index is calculated as following:

$$ASI_j = \frac{AS_j}{AS_{max}} \times 100$$

where,

ASI = attitude index

j = respondent

AS = attitude score

AS_{max} = maximum obtainable score

AS_{max} is 21 in the study. For the group as a whole, attitude index is calculated as the arithmetic mean index, i.e., AGI_j/N , where AGI_j is the sum of index numbers of respondents of a group and N is the total number of respondents in the group.

In the case of socio-psychological make-up, 25 statements/questions have been taken to measure the attribute. It contains questions regarding media contact, self-esteem, social belongingness, personal efficacy, social participation, work at leisure etc. Score values obtained have been transformed into percentages of actual and expected values.

It can be written as,

$$SPI_j = \frac{SP_j}{SP_{max}} \times 100$$

where,

SPI = Socio-psychological index

SP_j = Actual score value of j^{th} respondent

SP_{max} = Maximum score value

Table 6.2 contains indices of attitude and socio-psychological make-up. SPI_j/N is simple arithmetic mean index for a particular group, where, SPI is the sum of index numbers of respondents in a group and N is total number in the relevant group.

Table 6.2 Attitude and socio-psychological indices

Sl. No.	Range of participation	Average value of participation	Attitude index	Socio-psychological index
1.	Below 50	44.2	64.5	68.0
2.	50-60	54.9	67.8	67.8
3.	60-70	64.5	66.3	69.9
4.	70-80	73.0	69.4	71.9
5.	80-90	82.4	74.6	78.2
6.	Above 90	93.0	Nil	Nil
7.	Aggregate average	58.62	67.89	70.20

Source: Survey Data

As the degree of participation increases, as denoted by range of participation in ascending order and average value of participation, attitude towards women participation and socio-psychological make up of the respondents also increases. There is a direct relationship between degree of participation and attitude towards women participation and socio-psychological make-up. The average value of attitude (67.89) and socio-psychological make-up (70.20) are above the average degree of participation (58.62). Sound attitude and socio-psychological abilities are required to attain the expected level of participation. Hence the major inferences of Table 6.2 are the following.

- (i) Higher the positive attitude and psychological qualities, higher will be the rate of participation.
- (ii) Attitude and psychological qualities are not the only variables determining the given rate of participation. That is why relatively higher attitude and psychological qualities have not resulted in very high participation rates.
- (iii) Hypothesis stating that the attitude and socio-psychological make-up are influencing women participation is proved.

6.2.2 Religion, education and occupation

The relation of degree of participation with religion, level of education and occupation are analysed herewith. Table 6.3 gives the participation rates of respondents categorised on the basis of the above characteristics.

Table 6.3 Participation rates - religion, education and occupation-wise

Sl. No.	Category of respondents	Participation rates
1.	Hindu	58.51
2.	Christian	60.31
3.	Muslim	61.48
4.	Illiterate	60.67
5.	Primary education	54.22
6.	High School education	59.76
7.	Above High School education	59.15
8.	Industry occupation	64.60
9.	Service occupation	59.90
10.	Agriculture occupation	60.40
11.	Unemployed	54.11

Source: Survey Data

The average participation rates of Hindu, Christian and Muslim beneficiaries are 58.51, 60.31 and 61.48 respectively. It is peculiar to note that age, family/project incomes, facilities at home, experience, attitude and sociability are the lowest among Muslim beneficiaries though they have the highest participation rates. It implies that though many factors which have shown direct influence on participation rate may be insignificant or even negative in a given case, their participation may be more strongly influenced by few other variables to enable them to achieve high rate of participation. Inference is that, though participation may be positively or negatively influenced by various variables in general, in the case of a particular group or individual, participation rate may be high or low against the general tendency of given variables if a single or a few other variables have strongly influenced their propensity to participate.

As the education level improves from illiteracy to primary, high school and above high school, participation rates make no consistent change as is clear from the corresponding participation rates of 60.67, 54.22, 59.76 and 59.15 respectively except in the case of Primary and High School education where the difference is significant (Appendix II row 6). Occupational classification of women participants

show that the highest participation is with industrial jobs and lowest in unemployed group. The difference in participation rates are also found significant (Appendix II, rows 7-10).

6.2.3 Programme/organisation for women

The interrelations between women participation and certain characteristics of the programme and organisation can be looked into. The variables taken are (a) cost sharing programmes, (b) organisations exclusively for women or general and (c) programmes specific to women or general.

The rate of participation of women in programmes without cost sharing is lower (57.03) than that of cost sharing programmes (64.97). As assumed, in general, sharing cost of a project will increase the propensity of beneficiaries to participate in the programme. Women participation is higher (62.34) in organisations exclusively for women than in general development organisations (59.11). The difference in participation rate is statistically significant (see Appendix II, row 12). This is in favour of the normal assumption that organisations exclusively for women enhance participation of women than an organisation meant for both the sexes. Similarly, women participation in the programmes specifically for women are higher (60.27) than

general development programmes (57.01). The difference is also statistically significant (Appendix II, row 13). When organisation and programmes are tailored to the needs of women, naturally their propensity to participate will also increase. The implication is that those who are desirous of increased women participation have to resort to promotion of women organisations and women programmes.

Degree of participation of different groups of women beneficiaries classified on the basis of socio-economic characteristics, nature of programme, type of organisation and other variables were analysed so far. There were 19 such variables. Among them 13 variables have shown that the rate of participation will be strongly influenced by these variables (Appendix II) because participation rates of beneficiaries in these categories were found to be significantly different. They are (i) type of development organisation (GO, Christian NGO and Secular NGO), (ii) religion, (iii) level of education, (iv) occupation, (v) cost sharing habit, (vi) nature of organisation (general or exclusively for women), (vii) nature of the programme (for women only or general), (viii) project income, (ix) family income, (x) nature of benefit, (xi) experience or service, (xii) socio-psychological make-up and (xiii) sex. The details of 27 sub-components of statistically significant variables

and their corresponding Z-values at five per cent level regarding mean participation rates are given in Appendix II.

6.3 Gender dimensions

In all women studies, gender dimensions are normally given due significance. Though the central problem of the present study is the organisational differences in women participation, gender differences in participation rates are also analysed herewith as an allied variable. Rates of participation of men and women are presented in Table 6.4.

Table 6.4 Participation in GOs and NGOs - sex-wise

Sl. No.	Organisation	Participation rates	
		Female	Male
1.	Government	44.38	46.38
2.	Christian NGO	64.14	63.48
3.	Secular NGO	62.38	55.57
4.	NGOs (rows 2&3)	63.33	59.52
5.	GOS and NGOs (rows 1&4)	58.62	53.95

Source: Survey Data

The male participation rate in general is lower than that of the female participation rate and the difference in mean participation value is statistically significant at five

per cent level (Z-value = 2.8943). Male participation is higher than female participation in GOs and lower in NGOs. Organisational difference in participation rate is pronounced between male and female participants. The low male participation in NGOs may be due to the predominance of female-oriented (traditionally women preferred jobs) and female-dominated (number of female participants considerably higher than males) jobs and programmes of NGOs. Table 6.5 gives an insight into the sexual division of programmes and the corresponding impact on participation. No male dominated programme has been surveyed either in the GOs or NGOs.

Table 6.5 Participation and sexual division of programmes

Sl. No.	Nature of the programme	GO		NGO		Total	
		Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
1.	Female oriented	47.38	49.52	62.82	52.38	59.33	50.00
2.	Female dominated	39.91	Nil	66.10	70.38	61.71	70.38
3.	Male oriented	39.62	45.81	57.95	56.71	43.52	51.81
4.	Aggregate average	44.38	46.38	63.33	59.52	58.62	53.95

Source: Survey Data

Among the different programmes, female participation is the highest in the female-dominated programmes such as

programmes of organisations exclusively for women (printing/binding, chain-making and pottery), where the majority of the participants are females. Garment making, animal husbandry, tailoring, electronics (booster and stabiliser), fibre products etc. are female-oriented jobs where also female participation (59.33) is higher than male participation (50.00). Female participation in female-dominated and female-oriented programmes is greater than the aggregate average female participation. In male-oriented programmes, women participation is lower than their average participation rate as well as the participation rate of males.

Except in female-oriented programmes, that is, in female-dominated and male-oriented programmes, male participation is higher than females. In female-dominated jobs, male participation rate is higher, only due to accidental reasons. The very limited number of males who are working with females in the female-dominated jobs are in the supervisory posts with obligatory responsibility and hence have high participation.

The major inferences from Table 6.5 are the following:

- (i) The lower participation rate of males compared to females is due to the predominance of female-oriented jobs in the selected NGOs.

- (ii) Female-oriented and female-dominated programmes ensure high participation rate for women.

The socio-economic characteristics of male and female beneficiaries are given in Table 6.6 to confirm whether the general findings are binding on the sex-wise characteristics of the participants.

Table 6.6 Socio-economic characteristics - sex-wise

Sl. Characteristics No.	Unit	Female	Male	Z-value at 5 % level
1. Participation rate	Per cent	58.62	53.95	2.89
2. Family size	Number	5.20	5.16	NS
3. Age	Years	26.91	31.07	2.87
4. Family income	Rs.	11695	14404	2.82
5. Project income	Rs.	2147	7129	6.73
6. Facility at house	Number	3.19	3.69	2.31
7. Experience in organisation	Months	55.73	43.27	NS
8. Working period	Hours	6.59	7.90	3.56
9. Cost-sharing habit	Number	1.73	1.86	2.83
10. Attitude to participation	Per cent	67.89	74.44	3.35
11. Sociability	Per cent	70.20	76.86	3.82

Source: Survey Data

Note : NS - Not Significant

With low participation rate, socio-economic characteristics of males can be normally assumed to be in a disadvantageous position compared to females. But Table 6.6 shows that family size, age, family income, project income, facility at house, working hours, attitude to participation and sociability are better for males. Cost sharing habit and experience in organisation are less among males compared to females. Even with favourable positions in socio-economic characteristics, male have relatively low participation due to the nature of the programme and organisation (dominance of female-oriented programmes in NGOs). Except family size and experience in the organisation, all other classifications make significant difference in the participation rates of male and female beneficiaries.

6.4 Institutional arrangements

Though participation is purely a personal matter based on the propensity of the beneficiaries to participate, it is found that the organisation and nature of the programme can influence the actual rate. Since nature of the programme cannot be altered drastically, organisation is the major factor left out to supplement personal factors for participation. By taking into account the possible institutional arrangements for beneficiary participation, the present level of arrangements in the selected organisations

can be estimated and related to the degree of participation of beneficiaries in those organisations. The eleven arrangements for participation of beneficiaries in the selected organisations are the following.

- (i) Method of selection of project area/beneficiaries
- (ii) Consultation (before/during/after) with beneficiaries
- (iii) Cost sharing
- (iv) Committee/association of beneficiaries
- (v) Provision of meeting beneficiaries
- (vi) Proper utilisation of benefit
- (vii) Complementary input and technical advice
- (viii) Monitoring and supervision
- (ix) Training camps, workshops, awareness camps
- (x) Help beneficiaries to solve problems production, marketing and personal
- (xi) Evaluation/follow-up

In Table 6.7, selected organisations are ranked according to the institutional arrangements for participation. The degree of participation of beneficiaries is recorded against each organisation. Spearman's Rank Correlation for arrangements and participation is calculated to test the presence or absence of relations between these attributes. Selected organisations are presented in the order of their rank in institutional arrangements for participation for easy

observation of relations with the degree of participation. Degree of institutional arrangement is expressed in percentage as a ratio of actual and expected arrangements.

Table 6.7 Institutional arrangements and degree of participation

Sl. No.	Name of institution	Degree of arrangement	Rank in arrangement	Degree of participation	Rank in participation
1.	NGO - Y6	63.64	1	70.43	1
2.	NGO - Y7	54.55	2	70.19	2
3.	NGO - Z9	54.55	2	70.14	3
4.	NGO - Z10	54.55	2	69.86	4
5.	NGO - Y8	36.36	5	62.67	5
6.	NGO - Z12	27.27	6	61.14	6
7.	GO - X1	18.18	7	60.19	7
8.	NGO - Y4	18.18	7	58.10	8
9.	NGO - Y5	18.18	7	56.81	9
10.	NGO - Z11	18.18	7	50.00	10
11.	GO - X2	09.09	11	38.10	11
12.	GO - X3	09.09	11	38.10	12
13.	Average value-Total	31.82	--	58.62	--
14.	Average value-GO	12.12	--	44.38	--
15.	Average value-NGO	38.38	--	63.33	--

Source: Survey Data

Institutional arrangements for women participation are generally poor (31.82%). It is relatively worse in GOs (12.12%) compared to NGOs (38.38%). Another major inference from Table 6.7 is that there is positive relation between institutional arrangements and degree of participation, i.e., as the institutional arrangements for women participation is increasing, the degree of their actual participation is also found increasing. It implies that, institutions can positively contribute to the cause of augmenting or ensuring high participation of the beneficiaries.

It can be observed from Table 6.7 that institutional arrangements and degree of participation are apparently related. But it can be tested statistically, whether there is any relation and even if there is any relation, it is significant or not. Since the parameters are attributes (non-parametric), Spearman's Rank Correlation is applied for which ranks in institutional arrangements and ranks in degree of participation are found at first. The formula used is,

$$r_k = 1 - \frac{6 \sum D^2}{N^3 - N} \quad \text{where,}$$

'D' is the difference between ranks and 'N' is the number of the total population. r_k is found to be 0.9301. The table value for Spearman's Rank Correlation (r_k) is 0.746 at one

per cent level for 10 degrees of freedom. Hence r_k is significant.

By using a different method also, 't' value is calculated.

$$\text{i.e., } t = r_k \sqrt{\frac{N - 2}{1 - r_k^2}} = 8.0076 \text{ which is statistically}$$

significant at one per cent level, because table value for 't'-test for 10 degrees of freedom is 2.764. Thus it is found that institutional arrangements and degree of participation are positively correlated. It proves the hypothesis that higher the institutional arrangements for participation, higher will be the degree of participation.

Among the 11 institutional arrangements prescribed for participation, the most frequent methods used by the selected organisations in the order of importance are the provision of meeting beneficiaries and ensuring beneficiary participation during selection of the project/area/beneficiary. Arrangements for participation in monitoring/supervision and evaluation/follow-up are not made under organisational initiatives.

6.5 Personnel and participation

Organisation is normally represented by organisational leaders and development personnel. Organisational personnel

are leaders of the organisation, either as members of General Council or as Director Board members. Development personnel are administrative, technical and field staff of the organisation. The attitude, perception and socio-psychological make-up of these personnel influence the propensity of the beneficiaries to participate to a greater extent. Hence in this section an attempt is made to know whether any relation exists between personnel and beneficiary participation. Personnel implies - (a) organisational personnel and (b) development personnel of the selected development organisations.

6.5.1 Organisational personnel

Organisational personnel (OP) of NGOs consists of members of the General Council of the organisation or members of the Board of Directors. Organisational personal (OP) of GOs relevant for the present study are members of the Governing Body of selected DRDAs, viz., people's representatives, representative of financial institutions and important agencies. OP of NGOs normally belong to the local area but there are people from different parts of the State or even from outside the State.

Organisational personnel represent the philosophy, objective and strategy of the organisation. It differs among

different organisations. They influence the programmes and the beneficiaries of the respective organisations. The attitude and perception of OP towards people's participation in general, and women participation in particular, are important variables promoting or preventing the participation of women beneficiaries. The sample size of OP was 30, apportioned equally from GOs and NGOs.

In order to quantify the attitude of OP towards women participation, 21 statements were taken which scored a total of 21 values. Thus the maximum obtainable attitude score (ASmax) was 21. Table 6.8 carries the result of attitude of OP towards women participation.

Table 6.8 Attitude of OP to women participation

Sl. No.	Range of attitude score (in %)	Share of respondents (in %)		
		GOs	NGOs	Total
1.	100-90	33.33	33.33	33.33
2.	90-80	53.33	46.67	50.00
3.	80-70	Nil	13.33	06.67
4.	70-60	Nil	Nil	Nil
5.	60-50	13.34	06.67	10.00
6.	Below 50	Nil	Nil	Nil
7.	Average value	85.47	85.86	85.67

Source: Survey Data

The attitude of OP to women participation is highly positive because 90 per cent of them are in a range of 70 per cent and above of the attitude index. Attitude of OP in NGOs (85.86) is relatively better than GOs (85.47).

The perception of OP about people's participation is quantified on the basis of their responses towards a set of pre-determined statements. The statements contain idea about participation at different stages of programme planning and implementation, appropriateness of participation, possible determinants of participation, meaning and techniques of participation etc. Table 6.9 reflects the degree of perception of OP regarding people's participation in development programmes.

Table 6.9 Perception about participation of OP

Sl. No.	Range of perception score (in %)	Share of respondents (in %)		
		GOs	NGOs	Total
1.	100-90	86.67	60.00	73.34
2.	90-80	13.33	26.66	20.00
3.	80-70	Nil	06.67	03.33
4.	70-60	Nil	06.67	03.33
5.	Below 60	Nil	Nil	Nil
6.	Average value	96.00	93.33	94.67

Source: Survey Data

All the OP have high perception regarding people's participation in development programmes. The position is relatively better among GOs whose share of OP in the higher range is comparatively better. The average perception value for OP is higher (96%) in GOs than in NGOs (93.33%), making an aggregate average perception index of 94.67 per cent.

With highly sound attitude and perception towards beneficiary participation in development programmes, it is attempted to understand whether their socio-psychological make-up are in tune with the above observations. The socio-psychological make-up of an individual is framed on the basis of their idea about self-esteem, sociability, personal efficacy, media contact, activities at leisure, organisational connections etc. Table 6.10 is intended to offer such an understanding of OP's degree of socio-psychological propensities.

About 83 per cent of the OP have very good socio-psychological capabilities with above 70 per cent of the score value. On an average, the score value (in percentage) is 83 for OP in GOs and 80 for OP in NGOs. In the NGOs, there are a few personnel (20 per cent) in the top most range of 100-90 score value.

Table 6.10 Socio-psychological make-up of OP

Sl. No.	Range (in %)	Share of respondents (in %)		
		GOs	NGOs	Total
1.	100-90	Nil	20.00	10.00
2.	90-80	53.33	40.00	46.67
3.	80-70	33.33	20.00	26.67
4.	70-60	13.34	13.33	13.33
5.	60-50	Nil	06.67	03.33
6.	Average value	83.00	80.00	81.63

Source: Survey Data

The attitude, perception and socio-psychological make up of OP of GOs and NGOs are found to be very sound in the survey. Performance of development personnel in these parameters can be estimated subsequently.

6.5.2 Development personnel (DP)

The development personnel (DP) implies the staff (paid or honorary) of the development organisation. For GOs, all development personnel are paid, and for NGOs, honorary staff are possible. DP consists of administrative staff, technical staff and field workers. The salary and service conditions of DP in GOs are well defined and protected by the Service Rules of the State. But in the case of DP in NGOs, they are working

under conditions of lower remuneration and uncertain future. However, there are personnel with missionary zeal, heightened commitment and token honorarium. Service conditions of DP, as in the case of OP are different in GOs, and NGOs. The attitude, perception and socio-psychological make up of DP in GOs and NGOs and their relation, if any, to the degree of beneficiary participation is an area relevant for the present study.

The sample size of DP is 61, of which 31 are from GOs and 30 from NGOs. The statements and methods adopted to quantify attitude, perception and sociability are the same for DP and OP. The attitudes of DP towards women participation in the development programmes are given in Table 6.11.

Table 6.11 Attitude of DP to women participation

Sl. No.	Range of attitude score (in %)	Share of respondents (in %)		
		GOs	NGOs	Total
1.	100-90	12.90	23.33	18.03
2.	90-80	35.48	36.68	36.07
3.	80-70	32.27	13.33	22.95
4.	70-60	19.90	23.33	18.03
5.	60-50	06.45	03.33	04.92
6.	Below 50	Nil	Nil	Nil
7.	Average value	78.78	81.26	80.02

Source: Survey Data

perception rate of 86.45 per cent. Aggregate average perception rate for OP has been 94.67 per cent (Table 6.9). The socio-psychological abilities of DP for participation are given in Table 6.13.

Table 6.13 Socio-psychological make-up of DP

Sl. No.	Range (in %)	Share of respondents (in %)		
		GOs	NGOs	Total
1.	100-90	03.24	13.33	08.20
2.	90-80	35.48	40.00	37.70
3.	80-70	35.48	20.00	27.87
4.	70-60	12.90	20.00	16.39
5.	60-50	Nil	06.67	03.28
6.	50-40	12.90	Nil	06.50
7.	Average value	77.00	80.00	78.50

Source: Survey Data

The size of respondents in the range of 70 or above (as score value) for socio-psychological abilities is about 74 per cent for DP. Their average score value (78.50%) is lower than that of OP (81.63%). The score value for socio-psychological abilities of DP for GOs is 77 per cent and 80 for NGOs.

6.6 Local leaders

Local leaders are opinion formulators and influence the values of societies. In the present study 30 local leaders, of which 18 females and 12 males, from the project area of the development organisations were selected to understand the ideas of local leaders towards women participation. The same set of statements and methods as used for OP and DP were used to measure the socio-psychological make-up, attitude and perception of local leaders. Table 6.14 reflects the socio-psychological make up, attitude and perception of local leaders towards women participation in the development programmes.

The socio-psychological make-up, attitude and perception of local leaders towards women participation are at very high rates. They are equal or better than the values for the same variables for OP and DP of development organisations. Socio-psychological make-up of males (84.2%) are better than females (83.5%). Attitude towards women participation has scored high value (88.4%) among female leaders than male leaders (80.7%). However, male leaders have better perception (98.3%) than female leaders (94.6%) regarding people's participation.

Table 6.14 Socio-psychological make-up, attitude and perception of local leaders

Sl. No.	Range	Number of respondents (in %)								
		Socio-psychological make-up			Attitude			Perception		
		Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
1.	100-90	25.0	27.8	26.7	33.3	38.9	36.7	75.0	88.9	83.3
2.	90-80	41.7	38.9	40.0	33.3	50.0	43.2	16.7	11.1	13.3
3.	80-70	33.3	33.3	33.3	Nil	11.1	06.7	Nil	Nil	Nil
4.	70-60	Nil	Nil	Nil	16.7	Nil	06.7	08.3	Nil	03.4
5.	60-50	Nil	Nil	Nil	16.7	Nil	06.7	Nil	Nil	Nil
6.	Average value	84.2	83.5	83.9	80.7	88.4	85.1	98.3	94.6	96.8

Source: Survey Data

6.6.1 Participation scale

The opinions of Development Personnel, Organisational Personnel and Local Leaders about people's participation in general are measured scientifically on the basis of Likert Scale. Twenty four statements have been selected ultimately on the recommendations of experts or judges which could contain and measure the opinions of respondents towards participation. A five point scale has been used to express the degree of responses, viz., (a) strongly agree (b) agree (c) no remarks (d) disagree and (e) strongly disagree. From strongly agree to strongly disagree marks have been assigned in descending order of five to one. Since there are 24 statements, maximum score value will be 120 and minimum will be 24. The respondents getting 72 marks are neutral, above 72 are favourable and below 72 are unfavourable to the idea of people's participation. Table 6.15 reflects the number of respondents favourable, unfavourable or neutral to the idea. The participation score is given in decile group.

Table 6.15 Number of respondents in participation scales - OP, DP and LL

Sl. No.	Absolute participation score	GO		NGO		Total		LL	Total
		DP	OP	DP	OP	DP	OP		
1.	Below 60	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil
2.	60-70	03	Nil	Nil	Nil	03	Nil	Nil	03
3.	Neutral (72)	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil
4.	70-80	05	03	06	03	11	06	05	22
5.	80-90	17	06	14	06	31	12	22	65
6.	90-100	05	06	10	06	15	12	00	27
7.	100-110	01	Nil	Nil	Nil	01	Nil	03	04
8.	110-120	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil
9.	Total	31	15	30	15	61	30	30	121

Source: Survey Data

None of the respondents has scored an absolute participation score below 60. Majority of the respondents (53.72%) are in the group of 80-90, followed by 90-100 group (22.31%) and 70-80 group (18.18%). None is in the neutral group. Except very few, almost all (97.52%) of the respondents are favourable to the idea of people's participation. All organisational personnel and local leaders are in the favourable scale.

6.6.2 Leaders, personnel and participation

It is hypothesised that participation of beneficiaries is influenced not only by their own characteristics, nature of the programme and type of the organisations, but by the characteristics of other respondents in the system, viz., the organisers, development personnel and local leaders. The characteristics taken for analysis were attitude, perception and socio-psychological make-up (Tables 6.8 to 6.15). Attitude includes opinion about participation in general and women participation in particular. The major observations from these analysis are the following.

- (i) Socio-psychological make-up, attitude and perception of OP, DP and local leaders are sound or satisfactory.
- (ii) Attitude, perception and psychological make-up of OP are better than DP. If DP are better educated about participation (its objective, method etc.) it would have better impact on women participation.
- (iii) DP of NGOs have better attitude, perception and socio-psychological make-up compared to DP of GOs. But OP of GOs have better perception and socio-psychological make-up and slightly lower attitude compared to OP of NGOs.

Now, it can be analysed whether there exists any relation between degree of beneficiary participation and the characteristics of non-beneficiary respondents in the system. The relation is analysed with the help of a two-way table. In Table 6.16 four characteristics of three groups of non-beneficiary respondents in the system are presented organisation-wise. The local leaders in the project area are attached to the concerned organisations. Two marks for the first and one mark for the second rank are given. The scores of GOs and NGOs with each characteristic for each group of respondents are found. Since there are four variables and three respondent groups, the maximum score value will be 24 and minimum will be 12. Higher the score value, better the performance. To test the relation of characteristics and participation, the score values are compared in such a way that better score goes with higher participation. It implies that score value of NGO should be greater than GO. The actual position for inference is given in Table 6.16.

It can be observed from, Table 6.16 that by summing up the score values of GOs and NGOs, NGOs have obtained better score value (21) than GOs (17). The lower degree of participation (44.38) of GOs correspond to lower score value in their characteristics and higher degree of participation (63.33) of NGOs correspond to higher score value. It indicates that relevant characteristics of other respondents in the system and degree of beneficiary participation are interrelated. It also proves the hypothesis regarding the relation between relevant characteristics of beneficiaries and non-beneficiaries in the system, that is, they are interrelated and will move in the same direction.

6.7 Conclusion

The role of 76 variables in determining the degree of women participation in the development programmes of GOs and NGOs in Kerala was examined with simple statistical tools. Twenty seven variables were found statistically significant in causing considerable difference in degree of participation of women beneficiaries. Impact of institutional arrangement on participation was analysed and proved that they are intimately related. The influence of organisers, development personnel and local leaders in determining beneficiary participation was analysed by comparing the objective values of their characteristics with the extent of beneficiary participation

in the respective organisations. The analysis concluded that they are related and move in the same direction.

Detailed analysis have pointed out that though at times when several variables which are found positively related to participation are silent, beneficiaries' propensity to participate may be high due to the strong influence of one or a few other positive variables. For instance, nature of the programme, type of the organisation or characteristics of participants/respondents are equally important and the given rate of participation is assumed to be a function of all these variables. But dominance of anyone of these variables can upset or nullify the low profile of other variables in the case of a few individuals or group. It constrains the attempts to enhance participation uniformly among all the beneficiaries like any other policy instrument used by social scientists to tame the unpredictable human behaviour.

CHAPTER VII

CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

Within the framework of a theory of women participation and a methodology tailored to the needs, an attempt was made in the study to find out the different dimensions of women participation and their determinants. The present chapter of the thesis discusses the major conclusions of the study and policy implications emerging from them. It also contains suggestions to improve women participation in the development programmes of various organisations and areas for further research.

7.1 Conclusions and policy implications

Participation of the people in the programmes meant for them is not an area of contention at present. Except for the apprehensions of a very few, the idea is accepted world wide. Invisible work of the women who constitute half of the human resource is also getting recognition. With the acceptance of women and their participation in development programmes as a necessity, the basic issue is to identify the factors which promote/prevent it. The policy implications emerging from the findings are analysed herewith.

An examination of the Kerala economy highlights that the Physical Quality of Life Index and the Human Development Index are satisfactory. Due to cent per cent literacy and progressive culture, women are treated more or less equal in Kerala. In population, women outnumber men. However unemployment of educated youth, relatively high incidence of poverty, low work participation rate, low per capita income etc. reflect the gloomy side of the picture. These characteristics of the economy and society might have generally influenced the findings.

The participation of women in the development programmes is required in Kerala not merely to serve any democratic ideology but to accelerate the growth itself. With the long traditions of non-governmental organisations and the successful experience of development bureaucracy of governmental organisations, the development organisations are honestly striving to ensure women participation in their development programmes. Participation of women beneficiaries are assumed to be a function of type of organisation, nature of programme and characteristics of participants.

In many of the government development programmes like IRDP, TRYSEM etc. women participation is statutorily ensured. Besides, there are programmes like DWCRA, aid to mahila samajams etc. exclusively for women. Women are also

accommodated in various development councils as ex-officio members. These types of administrative arrangements have obvious impact on women participation though not a substitute for total participation.

From the analysis of the empirical data, the actual degree of women participation is found to be unsatisfactory. Majority of the participants (63.62%) are below the satisfactory participation rate. In the cases of average participation rate and number of participants above the satisfactory rate, GOs are far below NGOs. It shows that the type of organisation can result in differential impact on women participation. The claims of progressive nature of Kerala women and the theoretical recognition of women work are also found to be not reflected in real participation. Hence conscious efforts have to be undertaken by all development organisations, especially the government organisations to promote women participation. Government organisations have to be less bureaucratic and more flexible to accommodate participative initiatives of the people.

It is observed that degree of participation is significantly varying with respect to the nature of the programme. Highest participation is in the home-based production schemes like animal husbandry, poultry, kitchen gardening etc. followed by schemes for facilities at home.

Nearer the programme to the house, the higher will be the participation. Hence programmes should be attuned to the needs of women to work at home as followed by many of the NGOs.

A participant need not always be blamed for lower participation when provisions are beyond the control of the participants. But in the study, provisions for participation are within the reach of the participant and bifurcated into institutional and personal. It is observed that automatic non-participation constitute 54.82 per cent of the total non-participation. Though the average rate of participation and institutional arrangements for participation of NGOs are higher than GOs, automatic non-participation is also higher among NGOs. It implies that institutional arrangements for participation at NGOs are either ineffective or not fully utilised by beneficiaries, where higher participation is due to personal factors. Hence due care is required for better utilisation of given opportunities for participation by institutions and individuals.

Yet another inference is that the degree of participation and wilful non-participation are inversely related. It implies that higher the participation, the higher will be the influence of personal factors. It proves that like the organisation and programme, the participant is also

an important factor in determining the degree of participation. That is why in all organisations and programmes a few people are in satisfactory or above satisfactory level of participation as evidenced in the analysis of range of participation, type of organisation and nature of programme (Tables 5.6 and 5.9). Besides the inbuilt institutional arrangements for participation, efforts should also be made, therefore, to motivate beneficiaries to participate in the programme by their own means at different levels.

Participation of the same beneficiary or beneficiaries of the same organisation is found to be different at different stages of programme formulation and implementation. NGOs have the highest participation in pre-implementation stage, while GOs have the lowest participation for the same. It shows that NGOs are giving importance to participation at both pre-implementation and implementation stages. Hence beneficiaries are brought to a known programme which will increase the participation rate. Different stages of a programme should be phased out. Institutional arrangements can be adopted separately to ensure participation of beneficiaries specifically at different stages.

Women beneficiaries are found to be unable to participate in the later stages of programme implementation

due to personal factors rather than non-utilisation of institutional arrangements. Institutional arrangements in the later stages are being fully utilised and in the initial stages are relatively less effective. Hence institutions and participants have to give more attention to the initial stages of programme implementation in the given conditions.

It is inferred that programme-wise participation has no association with different stages of participation though participation is influenced by both the nature of the programme and the stages of participation. Programme and stages are not interrelated. It denotes that though the nature of programme has influence on the extent of participation it may not be uniform at all stages. Since all stages are equally important, if a particular programme is to increase participation, it should increase participation at all stages. Participation at different stages denotes at what stage the organisation or participant is lagging and measures can be adopted accordingly to enhance total participation.

Among the various methods of participation, benefit sharing is the most important method since all respondents are beneficiaries. Personal methods are more used than institutional methods. Most important methods resorted are visit to the office of the organisation, proper utilisation of benefits, maintaining a positive opinion about organisational

personnel etc. Role in monitoring and evaluation are the least important methods, may be due to the nature of the programme or type of organisation. The method of participation differs among the beneficiaries and between organisations. Institutional methods can be strengthened by the organisation and personal methods can be improved by the beneficiaries.

As family/project income and cost sharing habit are increasing, the tendency of the beneficiaries for participation is also found increasing. Increased project income enhances the interest in project and cost sharing improves the responsibility. Hence, while selecting or formulating projects it is to be observed that project is giving direct income to the beneficiaries and should have compulsory cost sharing components.

Positive attitude and socio-psychological make-up are found to be directly related to the degree of participation. However satisfactory level of attitude and psychological qualities have not resulted in satisfactory degree of participation. It implies that participation is not the function of given variables alone though they are positively contributing. It shows the need to maintain proper care on organisational, personal and other variables in participation.

Analysis of participation rate among different religious groups and their socio-economic characteristics have revealed that in the case of a particular group or individual, high or low participation may be due to the powerful influence of certain variables which may not be significant in general, but compensating the effects of major variables. It is also noted in the analysis of participation of male and female that though male beneficiaries had favourable socio-economic characteristics than females, participation rates of males were lower. Analysis of participation and beneficiary characteristics also showed that the highest participation group has unfavourable characteristics (Tables 6.1, 6.6 and paragraph 6.2.2). It implies that the theory of participation can explain only general tendencies and not all specific cases or situations. It constraints the attempts to enhance participation uniformly among all beneficiaries.

It is observed that women participation is higher in organisations exclusively meant for women than in general development organisations. Similarly, women participation in the programmes specifically formulated for women is higher than in general development programmes. When organisation and programmes are tailored to the needs of women, their propensity to participate increases. It implies that those who are eager to enhance the participation of women have to

promote organisations and programmes for women until women are getting equal opportunities for participation.

Among the different programmes, female participation is the highest in the female-dominated programme than female and male-oriented programmes. Male participation is lower than female in general due to the predominance of female-oriented programmes in the selected NGOs. These observations reiterate the former conclusion that female-dominated and female-oriented programmes have better chances to ensure women participation. Hence programmes can be female-oriented and majority of beneficiary members may be women for increased women participation.

Analysis has shown that higher the institutional arrangements for participation, higher will be the degree of participation. It shows the significance of organisations and their arrangements for participation. Organisations, hence, have to accommodate inbuilt institutional arrangements and make them effective so that beneficiaries can participate more meaningfully.

Attitude, perception, participation scale and socio-psychological make-up of non-beneficiary respondents like OP, DP and local leaders are relatively high, especially of OP. OP of GOs are better than that of NGOs. But in the case of

DP, NGOs are better. The performance of NGOs is better than GOs when all the four attributes are taken together. It is also observed that higher the performance of behavioural characteristics of non-beneficiary respondents, higher will be the participation of beneficiaries. It indicates that though the characteristics of OP/DP/local leaders and women participation are interrelated, satisfactory performance of the former has not resulted in the satisfactory rate of participation of the latter. It implies that the better idea and attitude of non-beneficiary respondents of the programme are neither not translated effectively into action or those attributes are only a few among the various variables influencing the rate of participation. Positive attitudes and ideas have to be not only strengthened/created, but also to be effectively converted into positive activities.

It is observed that women participation in development programmes warrants certain preconditions such as democratic commitment of organisations, monetarily beneficial, home-based/adjacent production programmes, cost sharing compulsion, institutional arrangements, positive behavioural characteristics, organisations/programmes exclusively for women etc. Certainly there can be exceptional individuals or groups who are influenced by variables other than the normally influential variables. However by considering the value and

utility of participation, measures have to be suggested to enhance and ensure participative initiatives of women in development programmes. Few suggestions in these directions are given in the following part of the chapter.

7.2 Suggestions to enhance participation

On the basis of the findings, a few tentative suggestions which may help to enhance/ensure the participation of women in development programmes are made.

All efforts to promote participation initiatives can be viewed only in the general context of the Kerala economy and its development, as a policy instrument to hasten the pace of progress. The socio-economic infrastructure of the State is quite adequate to accelerate any level of development. The society is progressive and women are educated. Bureaucracy of government organisations has ample experience in achieving successful welfare measures. At the same time, NGOs have pretty long years of service in the State, nurturing the needs of the local people. All these favourable factors can be fruitfully utilised to break the ground for effective participative initiatives of women.

Government as the most powerful organisation in the society has a primary duty to promote women participation in

development programmes. Following are some of the suggestions which can be initiated by the government.

- (i) Besides the existing thrust of welfare programmes for women, separate development programmes may be chalked out to fulfil the needs of women. Projects which satisfy the felt needs of women, their monetary ambitions, proximity to the house, emphasis on individual interest rather than group interest etc. may be looked into. Within the broad framework of the programmes given by the Central Government, the States should be given the freedom to exclude or include programmes according to the characteristics and requirements of the State. Similarly, beneficiaries should also be given the opportunity to select the programmes suiting their interests, rather than fitting them into a programme by the concerned officers.
- (ii) Government can adopt considerable reservations to women in decision-making bodies and welfare and development programmes. Women may be given equal opportunities for education, training, extension and decision making. Government can enact laws which ensure equal rights and opportunities for women with men in development programmes.

- (iii) A separate cell may be constituted at the state and district levels to co-ordinate, monitor and evaluate the work of various departments and their programmes meant for women.
- (iv) Government can promote exclusive organisations and programmes for women. Government can support quasi-governmental (Nehru Yuvak Kendra), pseudo-governmental (co-operatives), non-governmental and self-help groups for women. Government grants and aids may also be routed through exclusive women organisations wherever they are prevailing. Such organisations can also help those women who successfully complete the training programmes of the government viz., TRYSEM to find suitable outlets-paid or self, and solve their unrecognition to a certain extent. This will further improve the quality of the training, both from the part of the trainees and the trainers.
- (v) Government may resort to development partnership with NGOs in government programmes. Government participation in the programmes of people and their grassroot level organisations are also welcome.
- (vi) In all stages of a programme, viz., preplanning, planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation,

inbuilt provisions may be made for the adequate representation of women. Beneficiaries may also be encouraged to participate actively in the programmes and not as mere benefit seekers. Project implementation authority or personnel may be properly trained and authorised to promote participative initiatives.

- (vii) Beneficiary associations may be promoted and they may be encouraged as a venue for interaction between personnel and participants. Conscientisation camps, training to improve skills and counselling to improve family atmosphere may be arranged as a part of development programmes. Extension/conscientisation/counselling programmes should be given to both male and female members of beneficiary's family so that the inhibition on women participation can be removed without male resistance.

Measures to increase women participation to be adopted by NGOs are the following.

- (i) NGOs being less bureaucratic and more close to people should not only introduce inbuilt institutional arrangements for participation at all stages of a

programme but also ensure their effective utilisation by beneficiaries.

- (ii) NGOs should act only as catalyst to enable people for self development and self reliance. Programmes should be in tune with the felt need of the people and project management may be viewed in such a way that NGOs can withdraw gradually from the area without harming the success and continuity of the programmes. Resources and leadership should be mobilised from the target group right from the beginning of the programme, at least to a certain extent, which can be increased subsequently. Participants may be trained to improve skill and to develop positive attitudes.
- (iii) Personnel, participants and the public may be conscientised for women equality and dignity so that women can participate more liberally and effectively in the development process.
- (iv) NGOs can promote beneficiary association, encourage exclusive self-help groups for women development, coordinate NGO initiatives, solicit partnership with GOs/other NGOs/self-help groups etc.
- (v) By accepting GOs and NGOs as third party organisations for development and considering self-help as the best

help, the correct method for improving women participation is formation of exclusive women groups to satisfy their felt needs. Beneficiaries may mobilise money, manage their programmes and share the benefits. Women self-help groups should be self reliant in resources and should manage without external control. They can resort to participation of government or NGOs in their programmes. They can also hire the services of technical institutions/experts and avail credit or other facilities or inputs which will facilitate their objectives. But none of these affairs should infringe their autonomy.

More concrete and objective suggestions can be made only if the nature of the programme, participants and organisation are known. An understanding of the values and culture of the society in which the development organisations and beneficiaries are existing makes the suggestions more specific and realistic. However certain measures can be generally adopted by all organisations and in all programmes to enhance and ensure the participation of women beneficiaries. Suggestions made here are indicative in these directions.

7.3 Scope for further research

By formulating a theoretical framework for people's participation and analysing the problem with empirical evidences, a few areas are noticed as interesting for further research.

- (i) Though participation is accepted as a value and a means, no attempt was made to measure the impact of participation on the performance of the project. A proper methodology developed to iterate the impact of participation can objectively establish the economic implications of participation.
- (ii) The thrust of the present research was degree and determinants of women participation, of which male-female comparison was incidental only. However, a detailed study can be conducted on the gender dimensions of people's participation in development programmes.
- (iii) Different dimensions of participation in GOs and NGOs have been analysed so far. The same type of analysis can be extended to organised and informal self help groups of people involved in development activities.

- (iv) Studies on participation are generally concentrated on micro-economic experience such as women participation in the development programmes of GOs or NGOs. Studies can also be initiated on macro areas like organised participative initiatives in the society to get control or influence regulatory institutions and resources. These are the attempts to evaluate participation as a means to transfer power to people who are the ultimate source and masters of power.
- (v) Grassroot level participative initiatives to improve living conditions and surroundings like people's movement for environmental protection, pollution-free atmosphere, prohibitions of liquor and narcotic drugs, dowry and drudgery etc. have to be seriously considered and studied as organisational innovations or collective wisdom to solve the problems of the people by the people themselves. The issues of refugees and rehabilitation also come under group endeavour for social problems and hence deserve academic consideration.

Participation is not merely an ideology. It has developed as a social technology to accelerate development in the society. Effective utilisation of participation as a strategy demands better perception about the idea and the

methodology. The study has attempted to introduce a theoretical framework - degree, type, stage and method of participation, various variables involved and their potential relations. A scientific methodology is also applied to objectively estimate different concepts of participation, various determinants and causal relations. The study is pioneering in this sense. By undertaking new studies with respect to various participative initiatives, both the conceptual framework and operational methodology can be improved. More studies in this area can enrich the idea of participation and perfect it as an effective tool of democratic transformation of a developing society.

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APPENDIX-I

Status of women - some indicators

Country	Sex-ratio	Work participation		Life expectancy at birth (years)		Infant mortality rate		Average age at first marriage	
	Females per 100 males (1990)	Labour force % of total population * (1989-91)	Women labour as % of labour force (1990)	Female (1991)	Male (1991)	Female (1991)	Male (1991)	Female	Male
High-income countries				80	73	08	11		
USA	105	50	45	79	72	09	13	23.3	25.2
Japan	103	53	41	82	76	05	07	25.1	28.6
France	105	43	43	81	73	08	10	24.3	26.4
Germany	108	50	40	79	73	08	10	23.6	27.9
U.K.	105	50	43	79	72	08	10	23.1	25.4
Middle-income countries				71	65	44	54		
Brazil	101	43	35	69	63	60	73	22.5	25.9
Iran	97	26	18	65	65	83	91	NA	NA
South Korea	100	42	34	73	67	16	22	NA	NA
Saudi Arabia	84	29	07	71	68	33	44	NA	NA
South Africa	101	39	33	66	59	65	79	NA	NA
Low-income countries				58	61	96	104		
India	93	38	26	60	60	125	123	18.7	23.4
Bangladesh	94	30	07	52	53	136	130	16.7	23.9
China	94	59	43	71	67	37	48	22.4	25.1
Sri Lanka	99	43	37	74	69	19	25	24.4	27.9
Pakistan	92	28	11	59	59	139	137	19.8	24.9

Source: CMIE, World Economy and India's Place In It, Economic Intelligence Service, October 1993

Note : * Any year between 1989 & 1991

NA - Not Available

APPENDIX-II

Significant difference in mean participation values between
selected categories of women participants
(significance at 5% level)

S1. No.	Category of participants	Z-value
1.	GOs and NGOs	3.3078
2.	GO and Christian NGOs	3.4997
3.	GOs and Secular NGOs	2.0468
4.	Hindu and Christian participants	2.8622
5.	Hindu and Muslim participants	2.8199
6.	Primary and High School education	3.0424
7.	Industry and service occupations	2.1234
8.	Service occupation and unemployed	3.6493
9.	Agriculture and unemployed	3.3637
10.	Industry and unemployed	3.5739
11.	Cost sharing and not sharing	4.8146
12.	General and women organisation	3.4997
13.	General and women programmes	2.0468
14.	Project income below Rs.1000 and Rs.1000-3000	2.3160
15.	Project income below Rs.1000 and Rs.3000-5000	2.0786
16.	Project income below Rs.1000 and above Rs.5000	2.9235
17.	Family income below Rs.3000 & above Rs.11,000	2.9581
18.	Production and employment benefit	4.1519

Sl. No.	Category of participants	Z-value
19.	Employment and skill benefits	3.1345
20.	Production and facility benefit	3.4310
21.	Production and skill benefit	5.6595
22.	Experience 6 months and 6-12 months	4.7767
23.	Experience 6 months and 12-36 months	3.5374
24.	Experience 6 months and above 36 months	2.9732
25.	Socio-psychological index below 50 & above 80	3.1015
26.	Socio-psychological index 50-60 & above 80	2.6004
27.	Male and female	2.8943

APPENDIX-III

INTERVIEW SCHEDULES

RESPONDENT INTERVIEW SCHEDULE I

Level of Participation
Beneficiaries

1. Name & Address of the :
respondent

2. Name of the organisation :

3. Name of Project/Production:
Unit

4. - Religion/Caste :

5. Family particulars:

Name of family members	Age	Sex	Educa- tion	Occupation	Income per month	Assets	Asset income

5.A. Facilities at house : Concrete house/vehicle/TV/
radio/electricity/water
connection (well with motor)
/sufficient appliances/well-
furnished/savings in bank/
Any other.

6.A. If in a project/scheme:

Year of joining	Benefits received (Cash/kind skill)	Cost sharing (Kind/cash/service)	No. of other family participants	Income from project (pm/pa)	How you were selected

6.B. If in a production unit:

Year of joining	Temporary/permanent	Monthly income	Other benefits	Quantum of work/day	Nature of work or designation	Share capital contribution (cash, kind, service)
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7. Visit of Board of Directors/Paid staff

Name of Person	Periodicity of visits	Purpose	Topics of discussion
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8. How you were selected in the scheme/production unit:
9. Do you discuss the problems of the work/scheme to your officers/colleagues/others:
10. Have you ever visited the office of the organisation:
11. Whether you were consulted before/during/after selection of project regarding type of benefits etc.:
12. Have you contributed anything in cash/kind to the organisation:
13. Have you utilised the project properly or not:
14. Have you received any advice/co-operant inputs for project from organisation:
15. Do you depend on organisation to purchase inputs/to sell products:
16. Do you make suggestions to officers to improve production/project:
17. What is the response of officers to your suggestion:

18. What are the ways by which you assisted the organisation to improve the programme:

19. What is the rate of your attendance in:

Name of association	Periodicity of meetings	Presence of respondent	Presence of officers	Topics of discussion
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a. Association of Beneficiaries

b. Meetings of beneficiaries by organisation

c. Village development committee

20. Have you ever contacted government offices/other offices/people outside the organisation for the programme:

21. Have you ever attended training camps/workshops/demonstration classes:

22. How many persons have you briefed about the programme/scheme:

23. What do you think about the programme:

- it enhances substantially income/employment
- partial increase in income/employment
- least useful in anyway
- not useful as a permanent remedy
- better to receive something than nothing

24. Why you joined the programme:

- to get an income/employment
- to associate with the organisation
- officers known to me compelled to join
- others advised to join
- to involve in a collective activity

25. What do you think about the organisation:
- a. a good organisation doing good to the poor
 - b. an idealistic/ecclesiastical organisation
 - c. an organisation of influential
 - d. making organisation a facade
 - e. no answer
26. Your opinion about organisational personnel
- a. easily approachable
 - b. serious type
 - c. bureaucratic
 - d. pretentious
 - e. lovable and dependable
27. Opinion about assistance for development activities
- a. external assistance is not required for my development
 - b. only by external assistance I can develop
 - c. development assistance makes one idle
 - d. development assistance initiates self-sustained growth
28. Mention whether you have any role in the following matters: (Answer Yes/No)
- (i) In the management of production unit/scheme
 - (ii) Planning the project/scheme for you
 - (iii) Matters related to your production unit/scheme
 - (iv) Membership in Governing Council/Board of Directors
 - (v) Your advice in project implementation
 - (vi) Your assistance in monitoring and evaluation of programmes
29. Whether the benefit is actually owned/operated by the respondent.
- 29.A If the answer is No, who is owning and operating?
30. In the production scheme, how much time you require for resource utilisation of income generation in a day?
- 30.A How much time others spend for the same?

RESPONDENT INTERVIEW SCHEDULE II**Attitude to Women Participation**

Organisational Personnel/Development Personnel/Local Leaders
Beneficiaries

(Answer Yes/No to the following questions)

1. Do you feel that women are some how inferior to men?
2. Do you think that women have a right in family property?
3. Do you consult your wife/consulted by husband in all major decisions at home?
4. Do you think that:
 - a. Women can do their work independently
 - b. Women can do their work equally with men
 - c. Women cannot actively participate in social activities
 - d. Women are more a liability than an asset
 - e. If women are permitted for active participation they may be exploited.
 - f. In development programmes women cannot be consulted for better planning/implementation
 - g. Women can excel at home than at public programme
 - h. Earning women has only supporting role in total family income
 - i. Women are essential for economic well being of family/society
5. Do you take your wife for outing/social functions etc.?
Regularly/Rarely
6. At home whether you take food jointly with family members or separately/alone?
7. Do you feel that as an earning member you have better status in your family/among relatives/in society?
8. Whether your income is inevitable for the maintenance of your family?
9. Have you any property in your name?
10. Have you any savings in your name?

11. Who takes decision regarding the following matters in your family?
 - a. Household repairs
 - b. Deciding education of children
 - c. Purchasing household articles
 - d. Taking loans/giving loans to friends/neighbours etc.
 - e. Deciding manner of saving
 - f. Attending functions/religious ceremonies
 - g. Attending social gatherings in the village

12.
 - a. Are you a member of any Mahila Samajam or similar organisation?

 - b. If Yes, do you attend its meetings regularly?

 - c. If No, what prevents you from becoming a member of such organisation?
 - (i) Not allowed
 - (ii) Never asked to join
 - (iii) No use
 - (iv) No time
 - (v) Any other

13. Which of the following do you think is correct, in your case?
 - a. You are very often consulted regarding family and other matters.

 - b. You are rarely consulted

 - c. You are never consulted

14. Women are meant for child bearing and child rearing. Do you agree?

RESPONDENT INTERVIEW SCHEDULE III**Socio-Psychological Determinants**

OP/DP/Beneficiaries

1. Which of the following mass-media contact do you have?
 - a. Reading habit - Newspaper/magazines/books
 - b. Listening habit-Radio/TV/Cinema/Public lectures
2. Self-Esteem
 - a. Useful human being to family/society
 - b. Others respect/like you.
 - c. Belong to a dignified family by caste/property/tradition/other excellence.
 - d. Have a better dignity among colleagues/relatives/localities
3. Social belongingness
 - a. You are a part of community/family
 - b. You can serve society in many ways
 - c. You are serving society with your limited means
 - d. You like to involve in the social issues.
 - e. Social chaos affect you personally.
4. Personal efficacy
 - a. Capable of solving your problems independent or with consultation
 - b. Capable of assisting others to solve their problems.
 - c. Problems upset the mind for long time.
 - d. Work will yield desired result ultimately.
 - e. Better reward lead to better work.
5. What are your major activities at leisure?
6. Whether you participate in:
 - a. marriages of relatives/friends.
 - b. other ceremonies of relatives/friends.
 - c. festivals/fairs in your area.
 - d. interference in local issues if needed.
 - e. clubs, library/co-operatives/religions organisations
 - f. voting/election campaign/demonstration/donation

7. You cannot participate in social issues because of
 - a. Shyness
 - b. not required
 - c. no time
 - d. invites unnecessary problems to you
 - e. ultimately it demands money.
8. Have you ever participated/do you participate actively in the execution of any common village work?

If yes, specify for what purpose.

RESPONDENT INTERVIEW SCHEDULE IV

Attitude to Participation (General) - Participation Scale

(DP/OP/LL)

(Following are some statements regarding the issue of people's participation in Project Planning, monitoring, evaluation etc. There is nothing right or wrong about these statements. There is also nothing bad or good about them. You are free to record your immediate response. Responses may be recorded in numbers as (5) strongly agree (4) agree (3) no remarks (2) disagree (1) strongly disagree.

1. Peoples participation in developmental activities is quite necessary.
2. Beneficiaries are competent to participate in plan formulation and evaluation.
3. Participation will increase the efficiency of the programme.
4. Organisers of the programme are capable of knowing the needs of beneficiaries/employees.
5. People may be consulted while projects are formulated for them.
6. People have a positive role in the proper implementation of programmes.

7. Projects cannot be effectively implemented without the involvement of beneficiaries.
8. Project formulation, evaluation etc. are not highly technical affairs.
9. People are the right persons for project formulation and evaluation.
10. Participation is good and our people are competent.
11. Participation is ideal and it makes project effective.
12. Participation depends on the character and capacity of beneficiaries.
13. Participation depends on the character and capacity of both the organisers and beneficiaries.
14. Organisation cannot make a feeling of involvement of beneficiaries/employees in the programme without their actual participation.
15. Participation in project planning and implementation is not a tactical arrangement to get their confidence.
16. Beneficiaries are normally taken into confidence while preparing and implementing programmes.
17. Beneficiaries participate in planning and monitoring of projects to make them successful.
18. Since privacy, is not required in project planning and implementation, participation is desirable.
19. Organisation require beneficiaries participation not merely for the acceptance of programme and organisation among the people.
20. All projects can be implemented by people's participation.
21. Participation is possible at all stages of planning and implementation.
22. Participation gives more insight in planning.
23. People know their problems much better than the organisers.

24. People's needs cannot be assessed by the organisers better than the people themselves.
25. State your opinion about the people's participation in different stages of project of planning, monitoring, implementation and evaluation or management of production units.

RESPONDENT INTERVIEW SCHEDULE V

Perception About People's Participation

DP/OP/LL

(Here are few statements which may reflect your ideas about participation of people in production unit management and project planning, monitoring, implementation and evaluation. For each statement, several answers are given. You may please select by tick mark any one of the answers attached to each question. In certain cases you can even tick more than one answer)

1. What is the appropriate level of people's participation in development programmes or production unit management.
 - a. preparing period
 - b. plan formulation
 - c. implementation
 - d. monitoring and supervision
 - e. evaluation
 - f. all above
 - g. none above
 - h. few marked above
2. Who are the right people who can be permitted to participate in project planning/unit management
 - a. all beneficiaries/employees
 - b. enlightened beneficiaries/employees
 - c. local leaders
 - d. community leaders
 - e. professionals
 - f. field staff and technical officers
 - g. organisational heads
 - h. all
 - i. none
 - j. few marked above

3. People's participation varies with different stages of the planning (Yes/No)
4. People's participation varies with nature of people (Yes/No)
5. Participation varies with the nature of programme (Yes/No)
6. By people's participation in development programmes I mean
 - a. support to the programme
 - b. involvement of people
 - c. concurrence from the people
 - d. create acceptance among the people
 - e. propaganda for a programme
 - f. a technique to mobilise people
 - g. convey information regarding programmes
 - h. none above/all above/few above ticked
7. I have not actually thought about what is meant by people's participation (Yes/No)
8. No occasion had so far emerged to permit people's participation (Yes/No)
9. Please state your ideas about peoples' participation in development programmes - its meaning, techniques etc.

INSTITUTIONAL INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

Organisation - General

1. Name & Address of the Organisation :
2. Year of Registration :
3. Regional Jurisdiction :
4. Name of apex organisation :
5. Name of the institutions under the organisation (Separate sheet if necessary) :
6. Details of Projects (Separate sheet) (First list out projects in order of completed, ongoing, commenting - with year) :
 - (a) Name of Projects (b) Duration period (c) Purpose (d) Area (e) No. of beneficiaries (households) (f) Cost (g) Funding Agency (h) Cost-sharing basis
7. Details of General Council Members (Tick mark for Directors/Executive Committee Members) (Separate sheet)
 - (a) Name of members (b) Age (c) Education (d) Occupation (e) Year of first entry in Orgn. (f) Year of first entry in Council (g) Religion/Caste (h) Approximate annual income of family
8. Details of staff (Separate sheet)
 - (a) Name (b) Office/field (c) Designation (d) Age (e) Education (f) Entry Date in service (g) Salary (h) Temporary/Permanent
9. Frequency of meeting of General Council and Director Board.

10. What are the arrangements for the training and conscientisation of
 - a. Beneficiaries
 - b. Programme officers/field workers

(Collect Annual Statement of Activities for previous year and other printed/Cyclostyled materials)

Institutional Arrangements

- A. Preplanning Phase
 1. What are the criteria to select a project?
 2. How the area of implementation is selected?
 3. What is the criteria of selecting target group?
 4. How beneficiaries are identified & selected?
 5. What is the normal method of entering into an area before selecting it as a project area.
 6. Who are the persons consulted to select project/project area/beneficiaries?
 7. Have you any person or group of persons competent to advise in programme planning and implementation (or else who do such work)
 8. Whether you select programme and seek finance or seek project and locate people for the same or both
 9. Do women given any preference while selecting target group/project? Yes/No Why?
 - B. Planning Phase
 1. How the cost of project is (a) estimated and (b) mobilised?
 2. How the number of beneficiaries and type of benefits determined?
 3. Whether beneficiaries are consulted about nature and type of benefits before/during/after their selection
-
5. Whether training camps/get together/workshops to improve skill of beneficiaries are conducted?

4.
 - a. Is there any committee for the programme or generally for development activities in the target area.
 - b. Is there any association of beneficiaries
 - c. How do you create programme awareness among the people
 5. Is there any provision of meeting with beneficiaries at village/office/or group meetings
 6.
 - a. Is there anybody responsible to meet each and every beneficiary?
 - b. How many times in an year during implementation period, one beneficiary is met or called to office.
 7. What is the method of sharing cost?
 8. Is cost sharing (in kind/cash or both) a compulsory factor in your projects.
 9. Who are the contact persons (besides the field workers) for you in the target area.
 10. Is there any meeting of field workers and programme officers regularly. If so, how often?
 11. Is there any work diary system for field workers/officers.
 12. Is there any ledger for beneficiaries maintained.
 13. Who is the co-ordinator of field & office activities of the programme/organisation?
- C. Implementation Phase
1. After the distribution of benefits, is there any arrangement to see that it is properly utilised.
 2. Whether arrangements are made for better utilisation of benefits and who is responsible for the same.
 3. Do you arrange supplementary materials and timely advice to beneficiaries.
 4. What is the system of monitoring and supervision of projects under implementation.
 5. Whether training camps/get together/workshops to improve skill of beneficiaries are conducted?

6. Who does liaison work with other organisations/government offices/financial institutions and have you any contact persons in these offices.
 7. How do you tackle problematic beneficiaries?
 8. Whether you help beneficiaries to procure materials and sell products?
 9. Have you any dependable persons or institutions to get materials or sell products.
 10. Have you got your own arrangements for purchases and sales for beneficiaries.
 11. Have you technically competent persons to run the project or hire the service of such persons
 12. To weed out the undesirable developments in the organisation, what are the motivational methods normally adopted?
 13. How do you create confidence in the people to undertake schemes?
 14. How you arrange supportive service to undertake schemes?
 15. Have you any social education programme to equip the people for development and change?
- D. Evaluation Phase
1. Whether any mechanism for follow-up of target group activities exists.
 2. If yes, who are responsible for it?
 3. Whether evaluation report is demanded for any project by any funding agency?
 4. Have you any programme/meeting to have an evaluation/follow-up measure for the implemented programmes
 5. Whether a beneficiary in one project will be selected for another project.