

**GENDER ANALYSIS OF
LABOUR MARKET
OUTCOMES IN KERALA:
INSIGHTS FROM A VILLAGE LEVEL STUDY**

2021



Gender Analysis of Labour Market Outcomes in Kerala: Insights from a Village Level Study

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Abbreviations and Acronyms

ANM	Auxiliary Nurse Midwifery
B.Ed	Bachelor of Education
CDS	Centre for Development Studies
FGD	Focus Group Discussion
GoK	Government of Kerala
GoI	Government of India
IELTS	International English Language Testing System
ITC	Industrial Training Course
ITI	Industrial Training Institute
LFPR	Labour Force Participation Rate
LPG	Liquid Petroleum Gas
NCEUS	National Commission for Enterprises in the Unorganised Sector
NSS	National Sample Survey
NSSO	National Sample Survey Office
MGNREGA	Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act
OBC	Other Backward Caste
PSC	Public Service Commission
PDC	Pre-Degree Course
SC	Scheduled Caste
ST	Scheduled Tribe
SS	Subsidiary Status
TTC	Teachers Training Course
UPS	Usual Principal Status
UPSS	Usual Principal Subsidiary Status
VHC	Vocational Training Course
WFPR	Work Force Participation Rate

Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 Context of the Study

This study intends to understand the youth labour market behaviour in Kerala from a gender perspective. The inability of the State economy to translate high human development into better labour market outcomes has been a major concern in Kerala (Government of Kerala [GoK], 2021). Kerala's labour market is marked by (a) low labour force and workforce participation rates among women; (b) high unemployment rates among youth and women despite better educational attainment; (c) significant share of employment generated in low end informal sector jobs and; (d) continuing stream of labour outmigration to international destinations while interstate labour inflows to Kerala also continues to soar. Majority of existing studies that capture labour market dynamics in Kerala relies on secondary sources like the Employment and Unemployment Survey conducted by the National Sample Survey Office (NSSO) and decadal census data published by the Census of India. While analysis based on secondary data is appropriate to trace broad trends and patterns of employment and unemployment, they are not suitable to understand social and cultural norms that influence and determine labour market outcomes at the micro level. There exist a growing body of literature that captures the influence of cultural norms on household and individual decision making that determine individuals' entry from and exit to the labour market, specifically in the case of women (Contreras and Plaza, 2010; Taşseven, Dilek and Turgut, 2016; Heinz, Naila and Mahmud, 2017). This study assumes that social and cultural norms could be a crucial factor to explain Kerala's unique labour market situation. This link has not received enough attention in the existing literature. By undertaking a village

study and adopting a gender lens, this study seeks to answer: which factors determine labour market outcomes and how it varies across different population groups; how do social norms and culture influence household and individual decisions on acquiring skills, modulating job aspirations, job search and career choices of men and women; and what kind of policy interventions could improve labour market outcomes. This research deserves significance considering that recent policy documents by the Government of Kerala like Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment Policy (2017) and the draft of the Kerala State Labour Policy (2017) have categorically stated a need to improve labour market outcomes, particularly of women.

The rest of the Chapter is structured as follows: Section 1.2 sets the background of the study by highlighting key features and debates concerning Kerala's labour market. Section 1.3 presents specific objectives and research questions explored in the study. Section 1.4 examines the framework of research, including data sources, research methodology, details of the study area and limitations of the study. Section 1.5 discusses the profile of the households included in the survey. Section 1.6 concludes by outlining the structure of the report.

1.2 Understanding the Research Problem

The labour market dynamics in Kerala have received wide scholarly attention for two main reasons: conflicting trends in employment and unemployment compared to all India average and poor labour market outcomes of women despite State's high human development achievements. This requires attention considering that women in Kerala outperform men in the state and women at all India level in all conventional indicators of human development that captures education, health, and longevity (GoK, 2006).

Labour force participation rate (LFPR) captures the share of the working age population who report as either working or unemployed (seeking or available for work). Table 1.1 presents LFPR for male and female in Kerala. For comparison, corresponding figures at all India level is also provided. Data indicate following patterns: (a) huge difference between male and female LFPR in both Kerala and India; (b) difference in the female LFPR between rural and urban areas; higher at all India level and (c) LFPR for urban females is higher in Kerala in comparison with all India figures.

Table 1.1: Labour Force Participation Rate in Kerala and India, 2018-19
(UPSS, 15-59 years, in per cent)

	Rural			Urban			Total		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Kerala	76.5	35.5	54.6	79.9	35.0	55.4	78.1	35.2	55.0
India	80.6	28.3	54.5	79.6	22.5	51.6	80.3	26.5	53.6

Source: NSO, 2020

Work Force Participation Rate (WFPR) that captures the share of workers in the population, calculated as the ratio of the employed to the working age population, does not indicate a favourable picture for Kerala. Table 1.2 presents workforce participation for Kerala and India. Like LFPR, a considerable difference exists in the WFPR between male and female in both rural and urban areas. WFPR for rural males in Kerala is slightly lower than the national average, a reverse pattern is observed in urban areas. In the case of females, WFPR is higher in Kerala in both rural and urban areas.

Low LFPR and WFPR among women, despite high educational achievement, has generated considerable discussion among academics and policymakers. Factors like marital status, place of residence and economic status have an impact on the entry of women to the labour market (Sebastian, 2008). It is further noted that Kerala society, with its deep-rooted patriarchal value system, is hindering women's labour market entry (Devi, 2002; Eapen and Kodoth, 2005; Saradamoni, 1994). Due to the secondary position of women in family and society, their job search boundary is limited within their locality. At the same time, high value is attributed to a woman's non-economic and reproductive roles. Yet another pattern noticed is of young women continuing education and delaying labour market entry until they secure their preferred job (Mathew, 2015). This could be partly explained as a lack of attractive economic opportunity or how society, family, and individuals value women's work. This line of argument is corroborated by Sebastian (2008) that indicates the likelihood of single women to have employment is two times greater than married women with similar qualification. It is also observed that the probability of being part of the active labour force is higher for women coming from a lower economic background (Sebastian, 2008). Further, large scale male migration negatively affects the economic participation of women irrespective of educational attainment and religion (Mallika, 2011).

Table 1.2: Work Force Participation Rate in Kerala and India, 2018-19
(UPSS, 15-59 years, in per cent)

	Rural			Urban			Total		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Kerala	72.2	29.2	49.2	75.1	27.7	49.3	73.5	28.5	49.3
India	75.8	27.2	51.5	73.7	20.2	47.5	75.1	25.0	50.3

Source: NSO, 2020

Lack of adequate employment opportunities has always been a critical issue in Kerala. Unemployment in Kerala is particularly high in urban areas and among females in comparison with the national average. Female unemployment rate tends to be much higher in Kerala, in fact much higher than most states of India. In 2018-19, while the female unemployment rate in Kerala was 17.8 per cent in rural areas and 20.7 per cent in urban areas, the corresponding figure at all India level was 3.8 per cent and 10.3 per cent as presented in Table 1.3.

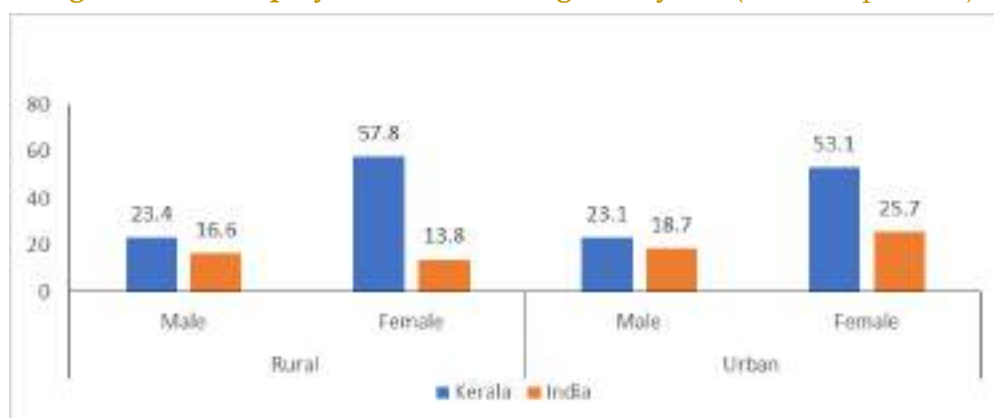
Table 1.3: Unemployment Rate in Kerala and India, 2018-19
(UPSS, 15-59 years, in per cent)

	Rural			Urban			Total		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Kerala	5.6	17.8	9.9	6.0	20.7	11.0	5.8	19.1	10.4
India	6.0	3.8	5.4	7.4	10.3	8.0	6.5	5.5	6.2

Source: NSO, 2020

Analysis of unemployment for those in the age group of 15-29 years, highlights the significance of the situation. The unemployment rate in Kerala is much higher in comparison with all India for male and female workers in rural and urban areas. The difference in unemployment figures (for those in 15-29 years) between Kerala and India is lesser for urban males, as presented in Figure 1.1.

Figure 1.1: Unemployment Rate Among 15-29 years (UPSS, in per cent)



Source: NSO, 2020

Data indicates that as education increases the unemployment rate also increases, as presented in Table 1.4. Unemployment seems to be severe among women with higher educational qualifications in both rural and urban areas of Kerala. To a large extent this is also true at the all India level.

Table 1.4: Unemployment Rate (UR) for persons of age 15 years and above by Education (UPSS, in per cent)

Qualification	Kerala				India			
	Rural Male	Rural Female	Urban Male	Urban Female	Rural Male	Rural Female	Urban Male	Urban Female
Illiterate	-	-	-	-	1.4	-	3.4	0.9
Literate upto Primary	0.7	-	0.3	0.2	2.7	0.6	3.4	1.5
Middle	1.2	2.9	0.8	1.8	5.3	1.7	5.4	4.3
Secondary	3.6	8.3	5.7	13.7	5.6	3.7	5.5	8.7
Higher Secondary	11.9	24.0	12.5	32.9	8.7	11.9	8.0	16.0
Diploma/ Certificate course	11.5	39.0	7.5	31.2	19.9	31.3	11.5	20.9
Graduate	18.3	38.3	13.8	34.7	17.0	33.9	12.9	20.5
Post graduate & above	8.7	41.2	5.3	29.8	16.3	36.8	7.3	18.6
Secondary & above	9.0	27.5	9.1	29.1	10.1	16.6	9.2	17.6
All	4.7	15.6	5.2	18.8	5.5	3.5	7.0	9.6

Source: NSO, 2020

Researchers has come up with different explanations for the unique labour market situation in Kerala. One set of studies attempts to link reasons for poor labour market outcome to the structure of the Kerala economy. For instance, due to structural transformation witnessed in the State economy demand for workers, particularly women, declined in primary and secondary sectors, but without commensurate employment growth, in the tertiary sector (Mazumdar and Guruswamy, 2006). The inability of educated youth to transform their knowledge and skill into better labour market outcomes is also a concern stated in official documents (GoK, 2017). Perhaps this is resulting in a mismatch between level and quality of education and employer demand, leading to higher unemployment rates. As noted by Prakash (2002), educated unemployment seems to be severe in a metro city like Kochi, where women constitute more than a proportionate share among educated job seekers. While educated unemployment continues to be an issue, concerns are also raised on the quality of educated job seekers, who do not have 'requisite skills, knowledge and work capacities' (Shaljan, 2002). Strong preference for white collar jobs among job seekers noted by earlier

researchers (Devi, 2002; Francis,1993), also has a role to play in high unemployment figures in Kerala.

Strong job preference of the unemployed is one of the reasons for long period of job search as noted by Devi (2002). In her study, nearly three-fourths of the women remained unemployed because they did not get their preferred job. Both educated and uneducated have a strong preference for regular government jobs, followed by part time government jobs and regular work in the private sector. Factors that determined job preference include proximity to home, social status, class consciousness, the security of the job and conformity with educational qualifications (ibid). Interestingly, families seem to have a definite role in mediating women's decision on education and employment; often choosing options that would enhance 'marriageability' of girls (Eapen and Kodoth, 2002). In a way, the occupational choice of women also adds to the problem of educated unemployment in Kerala. A high share of educated women is working as teachers in schools and clerical jobs. At the same time, as one moves up the occupation hierarchy, for instance, the share of women engaged in college/ university teaching and those holding important positions, in office gradually decreases (Alice, 2008). Excess labour supply in some of these jobs further reduces the employment prospect of women, also resulting in a highly gender segregated labour market in the State.

Large-scale international migration has played a definite role in Kerala's labour market. It appears that remittances played a role in increasing unemployment by facilitating job seekers to continue education and/or wait for their preferred job (Zachariah and Rajan, 2004). Apart from economic reasons, the social and cultural changes brought out by the Gulf migration has also played a role in determining career choices (ibid). One plausible impact is an unprecedented growth in private capital in the professional education (Thimothy, 2009) changing the skill profile, aspirations and career choice of first-time job seekers.

Further, labour migration also influences the labour market outcomes. For instance, international migration is becoming a less viable option as a safety valve to ease the unemployment situation of Kerala. Nationalisation policies followed in the Gulf countries and employer's preference to hire migrants with certified skills, even in the case of less skilled categories, is making the labour market for migrants very competitive. Studies suggest a steady decline in the share of migrants from Kerala in Gulf countries, from 93.8 per cent in 1998 to 86 per cent in 2011 (Abraham and Shibu, 2018). Not only this has led to a decrease in labour outflows but have resulted in an increase in return migration to Kerala. Of late, the local labour market is becoming

more competitive due to the surge of interstate migrants. Anecdotal evidence indicates that an increasing share of interstate migrant workers are joining in the service sector in Kerala, apart from construction and other manual work where they already had a dominance. Against this backdrop of emerging challenges faced by the labour market in Kerala from both internal and external factors, this study intends to have a gender analysis of labour market outcomes in Kerala.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

The broad objective of the study is to understand the factors determining labour market outcomes from a gender perspective. Towards the purpose, from the village level data, the study will:

1. Analyse household and individual characteristics of employed, unemployed and out of the labour force
2. Identify crucial factors that determine specific labour market outcomes for individuals (being employed, unemployed and out of the labour force) and how it varies across gender and social groups
3. Examine how social norms modulate individual decisions on -choice of education/ skills, job aspirations, job search patterns and job entry/exit

The study will address critical research questions like: Are the characteristics different for employed, unemployed and out of the labour force (in terms of social groups, educational qualifications/skills, sector and nature of employment (regular/casual/self-employed))? Is there any gender difference in the critical characteristics of employed, unemployed and out of the labour force? If yes, how gender operates in determining labour market entry and exit of individuals? Is there any difference in job search pattern across gender? Does marriage affect labour market outcomes of women? How long they waited to secure their first job? How do they search for jobs? Why do respondents remain unemployed? In other words, do they remain unemployed due to lack of jobs or because they are not able to secure the desired job? What are their job preferences? What are the main hurdles they face to secure their preferred job? Is there any difference across social groups? Is there any gender difference in arriving at the preferred jobs? How do variables like household responsibilities, gender stereotypes like certain jobs are suitable or not suitable for women interfere with their decision? How do variables affecting job preference operate—imposed by the individual or by the household? How serious is the issue of educated unemployment? What made respondents move out of labour force—stop looking/seeking a job?

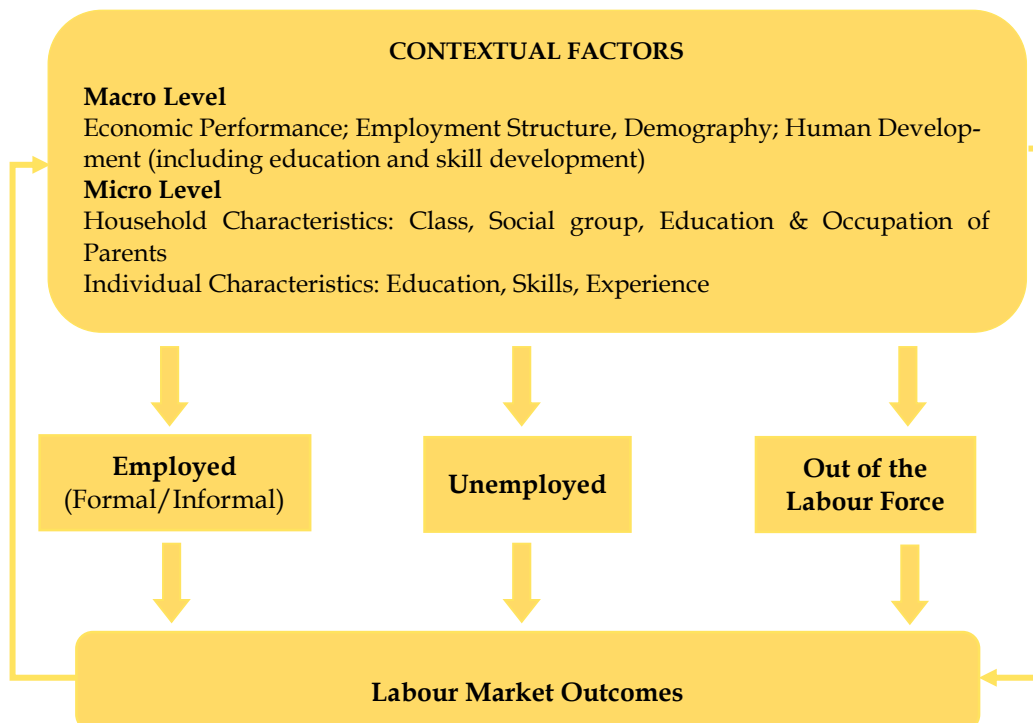
1.4 Approach and Research Methods

This section presents the framework for analysing the research problem, provides data sources, research methodology, an overview of the study area and limitations of the study.

1.4.1 Research Framework

Following the conventional definition, labour force is defined to include employed and unemployed. The study also takes into account individuals who are currently 'out of labour force' (those attending educational institutions, those engaged in household duties or those who have stopped looking for work) but planning to join the labour force if they find an appropriate and attractive opening or after upgrading skills. The framework of the study is presented in Figure 1.2. It is presumed that contextual factors have a definite impact (quantitatively and qualitatively) on the workers, unemployed and out of labour force and thereby to labour market outcomes. As it is beyond the scope of the study to capture all relevant variables that determine contextual factors of labour supply, the analysis will be limited to selected micro level factors. It needs to be noted that the study will focus only on the labour supply and do not cover the issue of disguised/under unemployment in its purview.

Figure 1.2: Framework of the Study



1.4.2 Data Sources and Sampling Framework

The study mainly depends on primary data collected from one Grama Panchayat viz., Maneed in Ernakulam district. Maneed has 13 wards, of which wards 11 and 13 were chosen for the survey. All households except those of interstate migrants in these two wards of the Panchayat were aimed to be covered in the survey. Migrant households were excluded as the social and cultural factors that shaped their labour market outcomes would be more closely related to the social and development factors in their State of origin.

The survey was conducted using a structured questionnaire which has four parts. Part A was designed to collect the socio-economic and demographic characteristics of the households and details of the household members. Subsequent sections were designed to capture information from Employed (Part-B), Unemployed (Part-C), and Out of labour force (Part D). Parts-B, C and D, were used to capture information from the household members in the age group of 18-40 years and had questions seeking information on employment aspirations, job search behaviour and follow up questions on unemployment and career plans of the individuals who are out of the labour force.

The survey aimed to interview all individuals currently residing in the household, between the age group of 18-40 as part of the survey. Initially a list of households was prepared using the voter's list. A few other households were traced during the initial field work. The list was finalised after including such households. Some households in the list could not be covered as the families had shifted residence, and a few other households did not cooperate with the survey. The total number of households covered by the survey is 644 (313 in Ward 11 and 331 in Ward 13). The total population of the surveyed households is 2537.

It needs to be noted that the Usual Principal Status (UPS) and Subsidiary Status (SS) definition used by the NSSO on employment and unemployment surveys was used to capture the activity status of the youth. A two-stage dichotomous procedure¹ is followed by the NSSO and based on the 'activity status', respondents are classified into Usual Principal Status (UPS) and Usual Subsidiary Status (USS). A person is considered employed in UPS if he/she has spent a relatively long time of the preceding 365 days from the

1. In the first stage, a person is counted as being 'in the labour force' or 'out of the labour force' depending on whether he/she is either engaged in economically gainful activities or reported as 'seeking or being available for such activities', based on the 'major time criterion' of the preceding 365 days. In the second stage, the labour force is further classified into 'employed' and 'unemployed' depending on the 'major time spent criterion'. For details, see NSSO (2001) *Concepts and Definitions Used in NSS*, GoI, New Delhi.

date of the survey on some economic activity. A person who is considered as a non-worker (i.e. unemployed or out of labour force), if pursued some economic activity in a subsidiary capacity is called a USS worker. The principal status pertains to those with stable employment while subsidiary status refers to irregular employment. The usual principal and usual subsidiary status workers together constitute the Usual Principal Subsidiary Status (UPSS) workers.

In addition to the survey, in-depth interviews were conducted with youth, who are employed, unemployed and out of the labour force, in the two selected Wards. Further, a detailed discussion was also conducted with elected representatives and government officials to understand labour market issues that are specific to the locality. Primary data collection was conducted during January-April, 2019. Investigators and supervisors were provided two-day training, including field visits prior to data collection. The supervisory staff monitored the data collection and conducted backchecking through home visits and phone calls to ensure the quality of data. Apart from editing the questionnaire in the field by the field supervisor, editing was also done at the CSES office before data entry to reduce errors.

Apart from primary data sources, research articles and relevant reports by government and international agencies were also consulted.

1.4.3 Study Area: Maneed

Maneed panchayat in Muvattupuzha Taluk of Ernakulam district was chosen to undertake the village level analysis. Maneed was selected for a detailed study due to the following reasons: a) proximity to an urban centre Kochi, which would provide immense educational and employment opportunities for the population; b) the Panchayat is not predominantly agrarian and so match with the general development pattern of Kerala; c) the locality also witness large scale labour migration—labour outmigration to international destinations and inflow of migrants from other states for low skilled jobs and; d) labour market in Maneed have similarity with state level picture—better educational status and high youth unemployment, particularly among women, thereby mimicking the state level pattern.

Maneed was selected as the second-best Panchayat in the district by the Government of Kerala in 2016-17. The geographical area of the Panchayat is 26.19 sq.km and the population, as per Census 2011 is 16,980 (8,408 men and 8,572 women) (Census of Kerala, 2011). Table 1.1 indicates that the share of cultivators, agricultural workers and those engaged in household industries together constitute only about one-fifth of the main workers for

both males and females. However, in the main worker category, in comparison with female workers, a higher share of males is engaged as cultivators and lower share as agricultural workers. A similar trend is visible in the case of marginal workers as well. Table 1.5 also indicates the prominence of 'other activities' in employment generated in the area.

Table 1.5: Details of Main and Marginal Workers in Maneed Grama Panchayat by Gender (in percent)

Worker Category		Proportion of Workers in each category				
		Culti- vators	Agricul- tural Worker	Workers in Household Industries	Other Activities	Total
Main Worker	Total	12.1	7.8	1.4	78.8	100.0
	Male	13.1	6.8	1.1	78.9	100.0
	Female	8.6	11.0	2.2	78.2	100.0
Marginal Worker	Total	7.9	17.3	2.5	72.3	100.0
	Male	11.2	15.4	2.2	71.2	100.0
	Female	3.3	20.0	2.9	73.8	100.0

Source: Census of Kerala, 2011

1.4.4 Limitations of the Study

A significant challenge in the fieldwork was the difficulty to get the respondents for interview in person. as majority of the youngsters are either working, studying, or engaged in some activity. Investigators had to spend considerable amount of time to locate respondents and arrange interviews, particularly to complete Part B, C and D of the questionnaire. This was overcome by organising interviews during early morning, late evenings and on holidays. Repeat visits were also required in many cases. As all the family members in the age group 18-40 had to be interviewed, some households expressed their concerns about interviewing multiple members of the household for a single survey, more when that involved young women respondents. In the initial stage, some households refused to be part of the study, particularly economically well-off households. As the survey progressed and the rapport with the residents improved, the research team could address such misunderstandings and ensure the cooperation of households in the locality.

1.5 Profile of the Surveyed Households

As noted earlier, the household survey had a section on the characteristics of the selected households and sections administered to different categories of respondents belonging to the age group of 18-40 years. There were 647 individuals belonging to this age group in the surveyed households.

Of them, only 538 individuals could be interviewed inspite of repeat visits and organising field work on holidays and weekends. The gender-wise employment status of the person in the age group 18-40 years who were interviewed is presented in Table 1.6.

Table 1.6: Employment Status of Persons in the Age group 18-40 years residing in the Sample Households by Gender

Employment Status	Number of Persons		
	Male	Female	Total
Employed	166	100	266
Unemployed	25	74	99
Student	48	70	118
Homemaker	-	55	55
Total	239	299	538

Source: Primary Survey

The socio-economic and demographic characteristics of the surveyed households are presented in Table 1.7. A little more than half of the sample households practise Hindu religion, followed by 48 percent of the households practising Christianity. Only 0.2 percent of the households follow Muslim religion. Nearly one-fourth of the households belong to Scheduled Castes (SC). There is no household belonging to Scheduled Tribe in the selected neighbourhoods. Two-thirds of the households have less than four members indicating that majority of the households have nuclear families. House ownership is very high with just 3 percent living in rented houses. The physical condition of the houses is also good. Roughly one third of the households belong to the deprived sections as revealed by the colour of the ration card.² Four in five houses are of size above 500 sq. feet and have three or more rooms. Almost all households have electricity connection and only one-tenth do not have LPG connection.

2. Currently there are four types of ration cards in Kerala – yellow, pink, blue and white each with different benefits. Of these, yellow and pink cards are given to the most deprived sections of the society. For instance, yellow cards are provided to the most economically backward sections (referred as Antyodaya Anna Yojana beneficiaries). With this card, they are entitled to 35 kilograms of food grains free of cost per month for a family, while pink card holders/priority card households are entitled to 5 kilograms of food grains at Rs. 2 per kg per each family member per month. Blue and white are non-priority card holders. Blue card holders are provided subsidised food grains by the State Government (2kg rice at Rs. 4 per kg per person for a month), while white card holders could purchase fixed quantity of food grains from ration shops at designated price. For details see *Economic Review 2018*, Kerala State Planning Board, Government of Kerala (GoK), Thiruvananthapuram.

Table 1.7: Socio-economic and Demographic Characteristics of the Surveyed Households

Characteristics	Number of Households	Percent of Households
Religion		
Hindu	334	51.9
Christians	309	48.0
Muslim	1	0.2
Caste		
SC	156	24.2
OBC	119	18.5
Others	369	57.3
Household Size		
1-4 members	425	66.0
5-8 members	218	33.9
Above 8 members	1	0.2
Households by ownership Status		
Owned	623	96.7
Rented	21	3.3
Colour of Ration Card		
Pink	30	4.7
Yellow	180	28.0
Blue	251	39.0
White	155	24.1
Not Holding	28	4.3
Floor Area (Sq.ft)		
Below 500	133	20.7
501-1000	303	47.0
1001-1500	137	21.3
Above 1500	71	11.0
Number of Rooms (Excluding Kitchen)		
1-2	113	17.5
3-4	400	62.1
5-6	115	17.9
7-9	16	2.5
Household with Electricity Connection	640	99.4
Households with Gas connection	644	100.0

Source: Primary Survey

Table 1.8 shows that nearly three-fourths (73 percent) of the sample households have at least one member with education above secondary level. Two in five households had a member with Graduation or above.

Table 1.8 Highest Level of Education in the Sample Households

Level of Education	Number of Households	Percent
Informal	14	2.2
Primary	16	2.5
Middle	26	4.0
Secondary	119	18.5
Higher Secondary	180	28.0
Diploma/Certificate Course	34	5.3
Graduate-General	129	20.0
Graduate-Technical	55	8.5
Postgraduate-General	53	8.2
Postgraduate-Technical	18	2.8
Total	644	100.0

Source: Primary Survey

1.6 Chapter Scheme

The report is organised into three chapters, including the introductory Chapter. Chapter 2 presents the youth labour market behaviour in the study area from a gender perspective, examining the case of employed, unemployed, students and homemakers. Chapter 3 concludes the report by summarising the main findings of the study and policy suggestions to improve labour market outcomes.

Chapter 2

Gender and Labour Market Behaviour of Youth: Evidence from the Field

2.1 Introduction

This Chapter examines features of the youth labour market in Kerala based on extensive fieldwork (primary survey and in-depth interviews) conducted in Maneed, a village in Ernakulam district. Labour market behaviour of youth, defined to include those in the age group of 18-40 years, is analysed in detail, which will cover, employed, unemployed and out of the labour force (students and homemakers).¹ The Chapter is divided into three main parts, apart from the Introduction. Section 2.2 presents youth employment and unemployment, while Section 2.3 analyse factors affecting the choice of education and educational attainment. Youth labour market behaviour, which covers the pattern of job search, employment behaviour and aspiration of youth, is explored in Section 2.4. Section 2.5 concludes the Chapter.

2.2 Youth Employment and Unemployment

Key indicators that capture employment like Labour Force Participation Rate (LFPR), Work Force Participation Rate (WFPR), sector of employment, nature of employment and unemployment are analysed here.

2.2.1 LFPR

LFPR is the sum of all workers who are employed and actively seeking employment (unemployed) divided by the total population. Table 2.1 shows that 80 per cent of male and more than half of the female are participating in the labour market. It is important to note that the gap in

1. In the sample, those reported their status as out of labour force are either students or homemakers.

LFPR between males and females, increases as one move to higher age groups. The highest female LFPR, 79.7 per cent, is reported in the 26-30 age group.

Table 2.1: LFPR among Youth (in per cent)

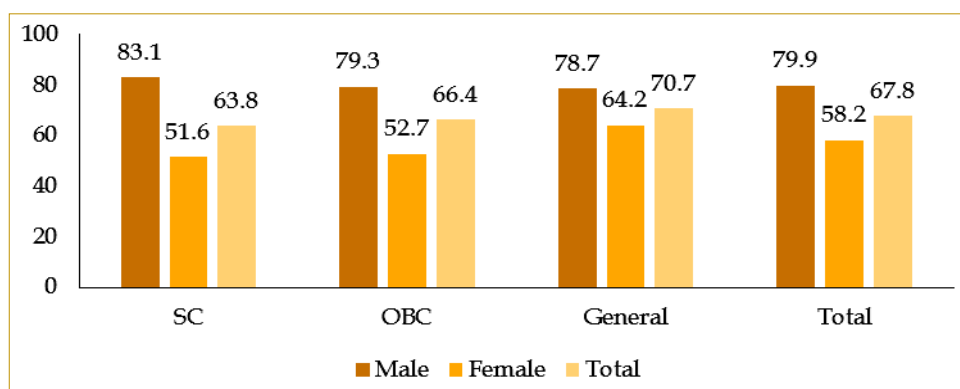
Age Group	18 - 19 yrs	20 - 25 yrs	26 - 30 yrs	31 - 35 yrs	36 - 40 yrs	Overall
Male	3.7	70.0	97.9	100.0	100.0	79.9
Female	-	51.4	79.7	74.5	62.9	58.2
Total	1.6	60.6	87.1	86.6	78.2	67.8

Note: Base is 538 (266 employed (166 males & 100 females), 99 unemployed (25 males and 74 females), 118 students (48 males and 70 females) and 55 homemakers (55 females) residing in the household.

Source: Primary Survey

Not much difference exists in LFPR across social groups. More than three fourths of the male population in every social group is either employed or a job aspirant. However, as presented in Figure 2.1, females in the general category are more likely to participate in the labour force in comparison with SC and OBC. This pattern contradicts with secondary data sources like NSSO, that records high LFPR for SC in comparison with General category. One could partly explain such deviation as emerging from the location of the study area and the age group of study participants; location closer to city and study covering youth. The gap in the LFPR between males and females is more pronounced in the case of SC groups.

Figure 2.1: LFPR among Youth by Gender and Social Groups (in per cent)



Note: Base is 538 (266 employed (166 males & 100 females), 99 unemployed (25 males and 74 females), 118 students (48 males and 70 females) and 55 homemakers (55 females) residing in the household.

Source: Primary Survey

2.2.2 WFPR

WFPR, calculated as the number of employed people divided by the total population, indicates the share of the working population. WFPR calculated for 18-40 age group provides the following results. Share of employed is a little less than half of the population in the age group of 18-40, while the

remaining are studying, unemployed or have stopped looking for employment. No one below the age of 20 years is employed, and WFPR gradually increases for higher age categories. Female WFPR is 33.4 per cent, as compared to 69.5 per cent for males, as presented in Table 2.2. It is significant to note that for all age groups, females record lower WFPR compared to male. Females in the 20-25 age group, register the lowest WFPR. Female WFPR gradually increases at higher age categories, perhaps pointing towards higher participation in employment post childbearing responsibilities. Yet another factor that could have an impact of delayed entry to the labour market is higher educational attainment rates, which is applicable for both males and females.

Table 2.2: WFPR among Youth (in per cent)

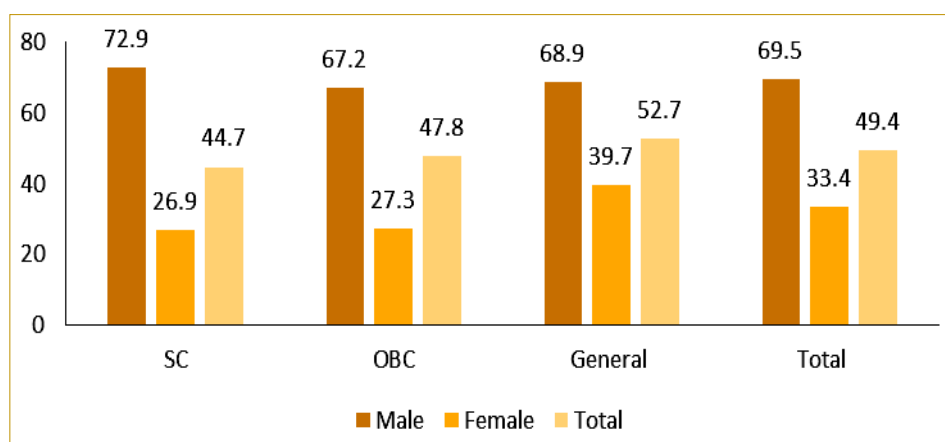
Age Group	20-25 yrs	26-30 yrs	31-35 yrs	36-40 yrs	Overall
Male	48.6	87.2	91.3	100.0	69.5
Female	23.6	40.6	45.1	45.7	33.4
Total	35.9	59.5	67.0	68.1	49.4

Note: Base is 538 (266 employed (166 males & 100 females), 99 unemployed (25 males and 74 females), 118 students (48 males and 70 females) and 55 homemakers (55 females) residing in the household; no one below the age of 20 yrs reported as working.

Source: Primary Survey

There also exist variations in the WFPR among the social group, as presented in Figure 2.2. General category records highest WFPR and SC the lowest. When it comes to female WFPR, SC and OBC display poor performance in comparison with the general category. SC category presents conflicting pattern, recording the highest male WFPR and lowest female WFPR.

Figure 2.2: WFPR among Youth by Gender and Social Groups (in per cent)



Note: Base is 538 (266 employed (166 males & 100 females), 99 unemployed (25 males and 74 females), 118 students (48 males and 70 females) and 55 homemakers (55 females) residing in the household.

Source: Primary Survey

2.2.3 Employment by Sector

The service sector accounts for 61 per cent of employment generated in the study area. Secondary and service sectors together engage 93 per cent of male workers while female workers are predominantly involved in service sector activities—79 per cent, as presented in Table 2.3. Share of women engaged in education and health services is around 38 per cent. It is important to note that in Maneed, the share of youth engaged in agriculture related activities is merely 1.5 per cent. Despite being a rural region in the periphery of Kochi, the sectoral composition of employment generation mirrors that of an urban region, with the domination of service driven activities like transport, health and education. The study also attempted to understand the occupational hierarchy in specific sub sectors like health and education that engages a higher share of women workers in the service sector. Data reveal that 72 per cent of women in the education sector work as teachers and 65 per cent of women in the health sector are nurses (not presented in the Table). Majority of women who are working as teachers have qualified plus two and Teaching Training Course (TTC) and in the case of nurses plus two and Auxiliary Nurse Midwifery (ANM) and are working at the lower end of the occupational hierarchy. However, in the case of male workers, such occupational segregation was not visible. Males employed in the education sector possess better education (B.Ed and/or postgraduate) and are working as plus two teachers or as a librarian.

Table 2.3: Sectoral Share of Youth Employment (in per cent)

Sector	Male	Female	Total
Primary Sector	6.6	3.0	5.3
Agriculture, Forestry & Fishing	1.8	1.0	1.5
Mining, Electricity & Water supply	4.8	2.0	3.8
Secondary Sector	44.0	18.0	34.2
Manufacturing	8.4	13.0	10.2
Construction	35.5	5.0	24.1
Service Sector	49.4	79.0	60.5
Trade, Hotel & Food Service	6.0	11.0	7.9
Transport	19.3	-	12.0
Finance	1.8	8.0	4.1
Information & Communication	6.6	5.0	6.0
Education	3.0	18.0	8.6
Health	2.4	20.0	9.0
Public Administration & Defence	4.2	2.0	3.4
Professional & Administrative Services	-	5.0	1.9
Others	6.0	10.0	7.5
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Base	166	100	266

Source: Primary Survey

2.2.4 Nature of Employment

Among the employed, regular wage/salaried worker dominates, followed by casual workers, as presented in Table 2.4. A clear difference exists in the nature of employment between male and female workers. In comparison with males, a higher share of females is engaged in self-employment and regular work. Although 'regular work' signifies regularity of employment, data is to be interpreted with caution as regular employment does not always guarantee better quality work. For instance, those who are engaged in domestic work but receive a monthly salary are often considered as having regular employment. Among SC and OBC, more females are engaged in self-employment in comparison with males. In the case of General category, equally, 11 per cent of male and female workers are self-employed. However, though female record a higher share among self-employed, all of them are own-account workers, mostly running small shops or providing low skill services.

A detailed probe would be required to identify reasons—financial, social networks and others—that prevent establishing own enterprises. A higher share of general category workers is engaged in regular wage/salaried job, contrary to the higher share of SC and OBC in casual work, particularly for males. In the case of females in regular employment, they are majorly engaged in small private firms that guarantee monthly wages but not the regularity of work (not presented in Table).

Table 2.4: Nature of Employment by Social Group (in per cent)

Nature	SC			OBC			General			Total		
	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T
Self employed	2.3	16.0	7.4	7.7	20.0	11.1	11.9	11.7	11.8	8.4	14.0	10.5
Regular wage/salaried	62.8	72.0	66.2	51.3	73.3	57.4	71.4	88.3	78.5	64.5	82.0	71.1
Casual worker	34.9	12.0	26.5	41.0	6.7	31.5	16.7	-	9.7	27.1	4.0	18.4
Base	43	25	68	39	15	54	84	60	144	166	100	266

Source: Primary Survey

2.2.5 Unemployment Rate

In the study area, 27 per cent of youth is reported as unemployed—either seeking or available for work. As presented in Table 2.5, the highest level of unemployment is among those in the 20-25 and 26-30 age categories. Data indicate severe unemployment for female in all age categories. It is only in the 36-40 age category, unemployment for women declines. Perhaps it could be due to the gradual withdrawal of women from the labour market, as also noted in secondary data sources (Thomas,2020).

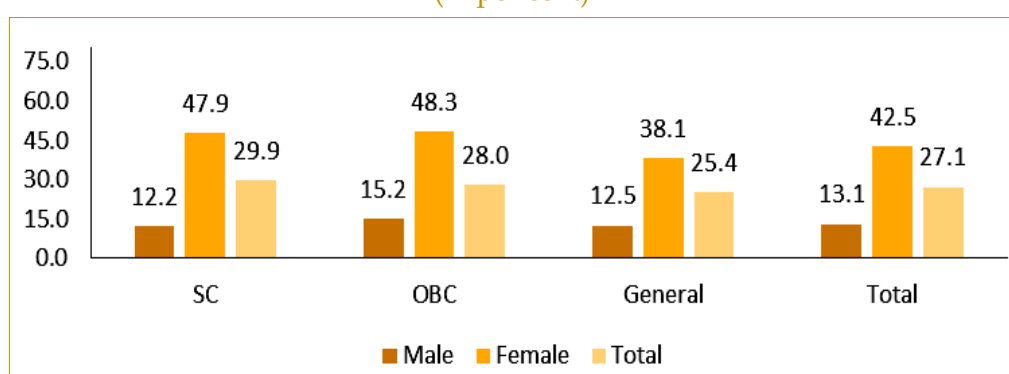
Table 2.5: Unemployment Rate among Youth (in per cent)

Age Group	18-25 yrs	26-30 yrs	31-35 yrs	36-40 yrs	18-40 yrs
Male	32.6	10.9	8.7	-	13.1
Female	54.1	49.1	39.5	27.3	42.5
Total	41.4	31.7	22.6	12.9	27.1

Note: Base is 365 (266 employed (166 males & 100 females), 99 unemployed (25 males and 74 females), youth residing in the household.

Source: Primary Survey

As presented in Figure 2.3, unemployment is at the highest level for those belonging to SC and OBC and lowest for general category. However, gender wise analysis indicates that SC males record the lowest unemployment rate.

Figure 2.3: Unemployment Rate Among Youth by Gender and Social Groups (in per cent)

Note: Base is 365 (266 employed (166 males & 100 females), 99 unemployed (25 males and 74 females), youth residing in the household.

Source: Primary Survey

f.

2.2.6 Duration of Unemployment

More than half (54%) of the job seekers are unemployed for more than a year, as presented in Table 2.6. Long term unemployment is visible among females as 60 per cent among them have been unemployed for more than a year, while the corresponding figure for males is 36 per cent. For females in the higher age group, 31-40 years, 70 per cent are waiting for a job over one year.

Table 2.6: Duration of Unemployment (in per cent)

Duration	Male	Female	Total
Less than 6 months	32.0	12.2	17.2
6 months to 1 year	32.0	28.4	29.3
1 to 3 years	12.0	24.3	21.2
3 to 5 years	4.0	16.2	13.1
5 years and above	20.0	19.0	19.2
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Base	25	74	99

Source: Primary Survey

2.2.7 Reasons for Unemployment

When respondents were probed on reasons for unemployment, searching for a suitable job, is cited by 80 per cent of male job seekers, while only 31 per cent of females cited the same reason as presented in Table 2.7. Gender wise data shows that 58 per cent of women remain unemployed to fulfill childbirth and other family responsibilities. Relocation following marriage is also cited as a reason for unemployment among women. In the case of unemployed males, only 4 per cent cited such reasons. Only four out of 99 unemployed said that they have plans to start self/joint enterprise.

Table 2.7: Reason for Unemployment (in per cent)

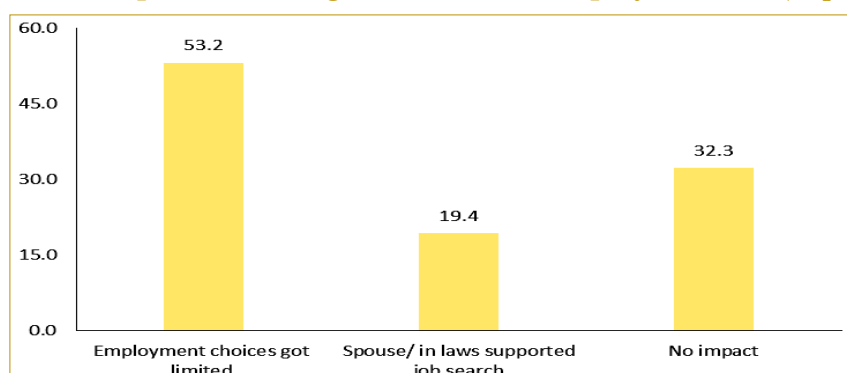
Reason	Male	Female	Total
Preparing for suitable job	80.0	31.1	43.4
Marriage/family responsibilities	4.0	58.1	44.4
Low qualification	16.0	4.1	7.1
To establish self/joint enterprise	4.0	4.1	4.0
Others	12.0	10.8	11.1
Base	25	74	99

Note: Multiple responses.

Source: Primary Survey

During the survey, an attempt was made to understand how marital status impacted females job search pattern. A little more than half of the married, unemployed female youth indicated that their employment choice got limited due to family responsibilities, as presented in Figure 2.4. This could be due to restrictions imposed on them regarding location, nature of work, work timing etc. by the spouse or his family. However, 19 per cent of unemployed married females reported that spouse and family supported their effort to secure employment, and for another 32 per cent marriage did not affect their job search.

Figure 2.4: Impact of Marriage on Female Unemployed Youth (in per cent)



Note: Base is unemployed married females (N=62); multiple responses.

Source: Primary Survey

A few job seekers had refused job offers in the past. It is interesting to examine the reasons to reject the offer as presented in Table 2.8. While females have cited reasons like lack of approval of family, long commuting distance, difficult to manage household duties and childbirth, for male's reasons were more work related, like low salary, the employer not good etc. It is important to recognise how gender influences a female's decision to refuse job offers even though she has been experiencing long term unemployment.

Table 2.8: Reasons to Refuse Job offer by Unemployed (in per cent)

Reason	Male	Female	Total
Low salary	50.0	-	18.2
Family did not approve	-	28.6	18.2
Employer not good	25.0	-	9.1
Long commuting distance	-	57.1	36.4
Difficult to manage household duties	-	14.3	9.1
No accommodation	25.0	-	9.1
Childbirth	-	14.3	9.1
Health problems	-	14.3	9.1
For higher studies	25.0	-	9.1
No response	-	14.3	9.1
Base	4	7	11

Note: Multiple responses.
Source: Primary Survey

It is important to note that some of them were forced to leave their job as their spouse or family was not supportive of their employment. This was also true for professionally qualified.

Sandhya², 26 years old married female shares her story:

"I am a B. Tech graduate and was working in an IT firm. After marriage, my husband insisted me to take a break for six months. I was not ready, but I had to accept finally as there was no one to support." - says Sandhya.

2.3 Choice of Education & Educational Attainment of Youth

While the previous section examined patterns of employment and unemployment, this section seeks to understand educational attainment among the youth (employed, unemployed, students and homemakers).

2. Name of respondents are changed to protect their identity.

Discussion is organised into deciding on a particular educational stream, educational attainment, reasons for discontinuing education and educational qualification when initiating job search.

2.3.1 Educational Choice

Choice of education, post matriculation is a crucial factor that determines the job prospects of an individual. For majority of respondents the educational choice was one's own as presented in Table 2.9. Parents do tend to play a minor role in deciding the educational choice, more so in the case of females.

Table 2.9: Decision on Educational Choice Post Matriculation of Youth
(in per cent)

Decision	Male	Female	Total
Yourself	92.5	91.0	91.6
Parents	4.3	7.1	5.9
Others	3.2	2.0	2.5
Base	186	255	441

Note: Multiple responses.

Source: Primary Survey

The study enquired factors that motivated respondents to choose an educational stream. Interest in the subject and job prospects top the reasons for educational choice for males and females across all categories as displayed in Table 2.10. For female respondents, education institution near to their residence is an important reason for choosing an educational stream, in comparison with male respondents. Interestingly, migration prospect does not figure in as a significant reason, which is a little surprising in Kerala.

Table 2.10: Reasons for Educational Choice Post Matriculation of Youth

Reason	Male	Female	Total
Liked the subject	52.7	54.5	53.7
Job prospects	51.1	45.5	47.8
High/low marks	5.4	3.5	4.3
Financial situation	2.7	2.4	2.5
Near to residence	1.6	3.5	2.7
Migration prospects	2.7	3.1	2.9
Suitability to gender	-	0.8	0.5
Others	7.0	6.3	6.6
Base	186	255	441

Note: Includes youth who have education higher secondary and above; multiple responses.

Source: Primary Survey

Relationship between educational choice and social background of respondents categories attempted. Data indicate that job prospects are the primary consideration for the general community in comparison with SC and OBC in currently employed, unemployed, and out of labour force categories, as noted in Appendix Table I. Among the unemployed category, more than one-fourth of the females in the socially backward class considered their interest in the subject, as compared to males, in choosing a particular course.

An attempt was made to understand how far the choice of education post matriculation was attractive to the presently employed youth. An overwhelming majority found their course of education interesting, as they played a key role in selecting their stream of education post matriculation. As presented in Table 2.11, all students reported being liking their current educational choice. One-fourth of the unemployed males reported educational choice post matriculation was not matching their likes. A higher share of female respondents reported that the decision regarding post matriculation study was according to their aptitude as compared to males. Regardless of the social group, more than three-fifths of homemakers, and students indicated that the choice of the educational stream was according to their interest.

Table 2.11: Liking the Course Selected among Youth (in per cent)

Response	Employed			Unemployed			Home-makers	Students			Overall		
	M	F	T	M	F	T	F	M	F	T	M	F	T
Yes	94.8	97.6	96.0	75.0	95.4	89.9	94.4	100.0	100.0	100.0	93.5	97.3	95.7
No	5.2	2.4	4.0	25.0	4.6	10.1	5.6	-	-	-	6.5	2.7	4.3
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Base	115	84	199	24	65	89	36	47	70	117	186	255	441

Note: Includes youth who have education higher secondary and above.

Source: Primary Survey

2.3.2 Educational Attainment of Youth

Respondents in the study area have impressive educational qualifications as presented in Table 2.12. For example, respondents who qualified above degree (Degree and Post graduation) are 31 per cent. In addition, data indicates female respondents having attained higher education qualifications compared to males in all categories (employed, unemployed, students and homemakers).

Table 2.12: Highest Level of Education Received by Youth (in per cent)

Education	Employed			Unemployed			Students			Homemakers		Overall		
	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	F		M	F	T
Primary (1-4)	-	1.0	0.4	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.3	0.2
Middle (5-7)	3.0	2.0	2.6	-	2.7	2.0	-	-	-	3.6	-	2.1	2.0	2.0
Matric (8-10)	37.3	13.0	28.2	20.0	16.2	17.2	6.3	8.6	7.6	36.4	-	29.3	17.1	22.5
High. Secondary	31.9	30.0	31.2	40.0	21.6	26.3	77.1	65.7	70.3	27.3	-	41.8	35.8	38.5
ITI/ITC	4.8	1.0	3.4	4.0	-	1.0	-	-	-	-	-	3.8	0.3	1.9
Degree-General	8.4	14.0	10.5	24.0	31.1	29.3	14.6	18.6	16.9	21.8	-	11.3	20.7	16.5
Degree-Technical	4.8	14.0	8.3	8.0	17.6	15.2	-	4.3	2.5	3.6	-	4.2	10.7	7.8
PG-General	5.4	17.0	9.8	4.0	4.1	4.0	2.1	1.4	1.7	-	-	4.6	7.0	5.9
PG- Technical	0.6	1.0	0.8	-	4.1	3.0	-	-	-	-	-	0.4	1.3	0.9
Others	3.6	7.0	4.9	-	2.7	2.0	-	1.4	0.8	7.3	-	2.5	4.7	3.7
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	-	100.0	100.0	100.0
Base	166	100	266	25	74	99	48	70	118	55	55	239	299	538

Source: Primary Survey

Analysis of educational attainment by the social group indicates that in comparison with the general category, SC and OBCs lags as presented in Appendix Table II. Such a pattern is noticeable for both general and technical education.

2.3.3 Discontinuing Education

Evidence from the primary survey indicates that a significant share of respondents has discontinued their education at some point. For example, in the case of presently employed, 15 per cent discontinued their education, while for homemakers, the share is as high as 65 per cent. Majority of respondents reported having discontinued education cited loss of interest in their studies, as the primary reason as presented in Table 2.13. At this point too, what is remarkable is the reason for women to quit education. Among female respondents, 12.5 per cent had to discontinue their education due to childbirth. Among male respondents, 6.5 per cent reported having discontinued their education after securing a job.

Table 2.13: Reason to Discontinue Education by Youth (in per cent)

Reason	Employed			Unemployed			Home-makers	Overall		
	M	F	T	M	F	T	F	M	F	T
Lost interest	74.2	87.5	76.9	90.0	52.2	63.6	58.3	78.0	59.7	66.7
Started working	6.5	-	5.1	-	4.3	3.0	2.8	4.9	3.0	3.7
Financial problems	9.7	-	7.7	-	-	-	2.8	7.3	1.5	3.7
Marriage	-	-	-	-	4.3	3.0	16.7		10.4	6.5
Childbirth	0.0	12.5	2.6	-	4.3	3.0	-		3.0	1.9
Other Family reasons	9.7	-	7.7	-	-	-	2.8	7.3	1.5	3.7
Supplementary/ back paper	6.5	-	5.1	0.0	4.3	3.0	8.3	4.9	6.0	5.6
Accident/health issues	3.2	0.0	2.6	-	-	-	-	2.4	-	0.9
Others	-	-	-	10.0	39.1	30.3	8.3	2.4	17.9	12.0
Base	31	8	39	10	23	33	36	41	67	108

Note: Multiple responses.

Source: Primary Survey

An attempt was made to understand if there is any difference in reasons to discontinue education across social groups. As presented in Appendix Table III, lack of interest in studies is cited as the main reason for every social class. One-tenths of unemployed females in the SC community and 9.1 per cent of homemakers in the general category had discarded education for the job.

2.3.4 Educational Attainment when Starting Job Search

In the case of employed youth, an attempt was made to find out the share of those who have started a job search after completing education. As presented in Table 2.14, one-fourth of the presently employed respondents initiated job search before completing education (while pursuing a course or after discontinuing a course). For instance, a significant share of male

respondents, 23 per cent initiated job search after discontinuing education. Such pattern seems to be true in all social groups. Out of the 41 respondents who have reported to have discontinued their education, 73 per cent belong to SC and OBC categories. Further, the majority of those who have discontinued education have either done at secondary (56%) or the higher secondary level (27%) (not presented in the table).

Table 2.14: Educational Status when Initiating Job Search by Employed by Social Group (in per cent)

Status	SC			OBC			General			Total		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Pursuing	8.6	9.1	8.8	8.3	-	6.0	12.5	13.6	13.0	10.4	10.5	10.4
Completed	60.0	68.2	63.2	61.1	71.4	64.0	68.8	78.0	73.2	64.4	74.7	68.7
Discontinued	31.4	18.2	26.3	27.8	21.4	26.0	15.6	5.1	10.6	23.0	10.5	17.8
Took break from education	-	-	-	2.8	7.1	4.0	-	-	-	0.7	1.1	0.9
Others	-	4.5	1.8	-	-	-	3.1	3.4	3.3	1.5	3.2	2.2
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Base	35	22	57	36	14	50	64	59	123	135	95	230

Note: Base is respondents who were employed at 18 years and above.

Source: Primary Survey

2.4 Youth Labour Market Behaviour

In this section, the focus will be to understand the labour market behaviour of employed, unemployed, students and homemakers. Factors like job search behaviour, preparation to secure a job, reasons to quit jobs and employment preferences are explored.

2.4.1 Job Search Behaviour

As presented in Table 2.15 majority of employed respondents managed to secure a job within one year of their job search. However, a higher share of females reported having to spend more than one year in securing a job. Strong preference for a certain type of job and employment location could be one of the reasons for a long search period to find a job.

Table 2.15: Waiting Time to Secure First Job by Employed (in per cent)

Delay	Male	Female	Total
No delay	17.8	18.9	18.3
Up to 1 year	65.2	57.9	62.2
More than 1 year	17.0	23.2	19.6
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Base	135	95	230

Note: Base is respondents who were employed at 18 years and above.

Source: Primary Survey

Table 2.16: Reasons for Longer Job Search Period among Employed (in per cent)

Reason	Male	Female	Total
To obtain a government job	4.3	4.5	4.4
Not successful in securing job	43.5	50.0	46.7
Obtain job matching qualification	4.3	22.7	13.3
Obtain a job at the preferred destination	8.7	9.1	8.9
Obtain job with higher salary/benefits	30.4	--	15.6
Marriage/family responsibilities	--	13.6	6.7
Others	17.4	9.1	15.6
Base	23	22	45

Note: Base is those who have waited for more than one year to secure a job and who are employed at 18 years and above; multiple responses.

Source: Primary Survey

Data in Table 2.16 shows that for the majority of the respondents, labour market entry was delayed as they failed to secure a job. Marriage and family responsibilities also increase the waiting period for females. A reason noted for more extended waiting period among males is to secure a job with higher salary/benefits.

Table 2.17: Reasons for Longer Job Search among Employed by Social Group (in per cent)

Reason	SC	OBC	General
To obtain a government job	13.3	-	-
Not successful in securing job	60.0	66.7	28.6
Obtain job matching qualification	13.3	11.1	14.3
Obtain job at preferred destination	-	11.1	14.3
Obtain job with higher salary/benefits	6.7	11.1	23.8
Marriage/family responsibilities	6.7	-	9.6
Others	6.7	22.2	14.3
Base	15	9	21

Note: Multiple responses.

Source: Primary Survey

As presented in Table 2.17, 60 per cent of SC and 67 per cent of OBC respondents waited for more than a year to secure a job said that they failed to obtain any job. Share of respondents from the general category who cited a similar reason was merely 29 per cent. At the same time, Analysis of data by social groups on the reasons for the delay in securing a job indicates that higher the social positioning, stronger job preferences. Nearly one-fourth of the general category waited for more than one year to meet their job preferences like high salary/benefits. Interestingly, no one from the SC category waited to get a job at the preferred destination. In contrast, 11.1 per cent from OBC and 14.3 per cent from general category delayed their entry into the labour market for the same reason.

Table 2.18: Number of Jobs Applied during the last six months by Unemployed (in per cent)

Number	Male	Female	Total
Did not apply	24.0	56.8	48.5
Less than five	56.0	39.2	43.4
Five to twenty	16.0	2.7	6.1
Cannot recollect	4.0	1.4	2.0
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Base	25	74	99

Source: Primary Survey

Unemployed youth were asked on the number of jobs they had applied during the last six months. It is important to note that although unemployed are seeking a job, 49 per cent had not applied for a single job, as presented in Table 2.18. In the case of females, 57 per cent have not applied for any job during the last six months. It is not clear if the reason for not applying for a job is lack of interest, lack of information or unable to find a suitable job vacancy.

2.4.2 Source of Job Search Related Information

Friends and relatives continue to be an important source of information on seeking information on jobs, as presented in Table 2.19, 71.1 per cent of the currently employed and more than half of the unemployed respondents relied on friends and relatives to secure information on job vacancies. Three-fourths of the homemakers also depended on friends and relatives. Among the unemployed females, 44 per cent relies on Kerala Public Service Commission (PSC) advertisement. Social media has also emerged as an important source; 14 per cent of job seekers rely on WhatsApp or Facebook to find suitable job. Other sources like a private recruitment agency, employment exchange is also trusted by job seekers.

Table 2.19: Modes of Job Search by Youth (in per cent)

Mode	Employed			Unemployed			Home maker	Overall		
	M	F	T	M	F	T	F	M	F	T
Friends & relatives	76.5	62.0	71.1	60.0	52.7	54.5	75	74.3	59.1	66.8
Online job portal	5.4	10.0	7.1	32.0	13.5	18.2	-	8.9	10.8	9.8
PSC	16.3	32.0	22.2	36.0	47.3	44.4	16.7	18.8	37.1	27.9
News paper	12.0	23.0	16.2	36.0	35.1	35.4	41.7	15.2	29.0	22.0
Private recruitment agency	10.2	12.0	10.9	20.0	2.7	7.1	-	11.5	7.5	9.5
Employment exchange	9.0	9.0	9.0	8.0	14.9	13.1	8.3	8.9	11.3	10.1
Competitive exam/ interview	6.6	9.0	7.5	8.0	5.4	6.1	-	6.8	7.0	6.9
WhatsApp/Facebook groups	-	-	-	28.0	9.5	14.1	8.3	3.7	4.3	4.0
Others	8.4	9.0	8.6	-	6.8	5.1	8.3	7.3	8.1	7.7
Base	166	100	266	25	74	99	12	191	186	377

Note: Multiple response.

Source: Primary Survey

2.4.3 Preparations to Secure Job

During the survey, an attempt was made to understand preparations currently undertaken by the unemployed to seek employment. It was reported that 49 per cent of the unemployed are not undertaking any specific preparations to seek employment while 40 per cent are doing self-study to prepare for a job. Coaching classes for competitive exam/interview are undertaken by 8 per cent of job seekers. No respondent reported having enrolled in a skill upgradation training or internship/apprenticeship to gain experience to increase their competitiveness in the job market.

Table 2.20: Preparations to Secure Employment by Unemployed (in per cent)

Preparations	Male	Female	Total
Coaching for competitive exam/interview	8.0	8.1	8.1
Self-study	36.0	41.9	40.4
No preparation	52.0	47.3	48.5
Others	-	1.4	1.0
No response	4.0	1.4	2.0
Base	25	74	99

Note: Multiple responses.

Source: Primary Survey

Majority of job seekers who are attending coaching classes for competitive exams are reported attending coaching for PSC. A few female job seekers who are qualified nurses are attending IELTS training to migrate abroad.

Table 2.21: Students with Part-time Job (in per cent)

Job Status	Male	Female	Total
Employed	14.6	4.3	8.5
Not Employed	85.4	95.7	91.5
Base	48	70	118

Source: Primary Survey

An attempt was also made to understand the labour market behaviour of students. It was noted that 15 per cent of male students and 4 per cent of female students are currently engaged in part-time jobs as they attend educational institutions, as presented in Table 2.21. Except for a minor share of female students, rest were willing to join the labour market. It is interesting to note that not much gender difference exists in the approach of students, in their decision to be economically active once they finish their education (see Table 2.22).

Table 2.22: Preference to Work in Future among Students (in per cent)

Will work	Male	Female	Total
Yes	100.0	98.6	99.2
No	-	1.4	0.8
Base	48	70	118

Source: Primary Survey

A small percentage of students are preparing for the job market. Interestingly, the share of female students who have attended some coaching classes is higher than male students, as presented in Table 2.23. An attempt was also made to find out the type of coaching attended by students to enter the labour market. It was found that the majority are opting for PSC and bank coaching, while there are also students attending civil service coaching.

Table 2.23: Students Going to Coaching Centres (in per cent)

Coaching	Male	Female	Total
Yes	6.3	10.1	8.5
No	93.8	89.9	91.5
Base	48	69	117

Note: Base is students wishing to work in future.
Source: Primary Survey

2.4.4 Reasons to Quit the Previous Job

During the field study, an attempt was made to understand the reasons for shifting jobs and to explore if there exist any gender difference in reasons to shift employment. Among the currently employed, 59.6 per

cent of males and 59 per cent of females had shifted earlier job. As presented in Table 2.24, a significant share of women, 32 per cent, who quit a job did so due to family related reasons following marriage or child birth. For men, the majority quit their job after obtaining better employment. Again, more women left a job due to issues in the workplace compared to men. In a way, reasons cited by females to quit the previous job indicate a lack of drive to pursue a career or cultural norms that shape career aspiration of females.

Table 2.24: Reasons to Quit the Previous Job by Employed (in per cent)

Reason	Male	Female	Total
Obtained better job	44.4	25.4	37.3
Issues at the workplace	19.2	27.1	22.2
Marriage/family responsibilities	4.0	32.2	14.6
Completed job contract	16.2	13.6	15.2
Others	18.2	8.5	14.6
Base	100	58	158

Note: Base is respondents who had left a previous job; multiple responses.

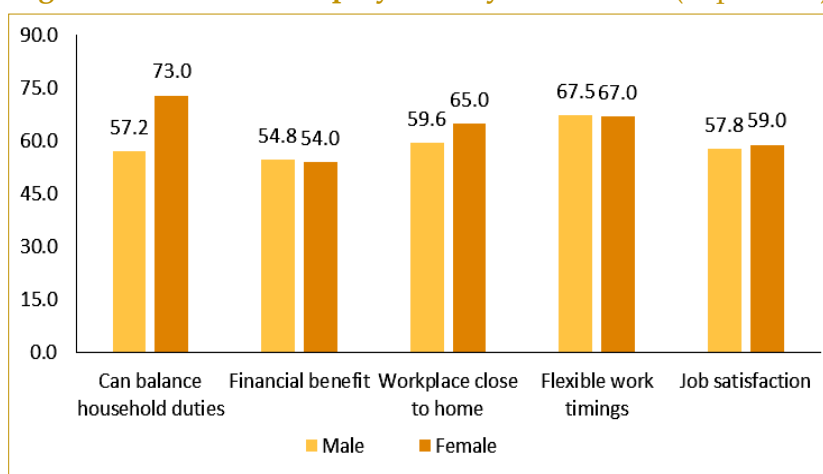
Source: Primary Survey

Neenu, a 28-year old woman illustrated the change marriage brought into her profession. A graduate in General Nursing, Neenu is now working as a saleswoman in a medical shop near to her husband's home. After marriage, she did not even seek nursing jobs.

"It is not possible to go for night duty these days as I have a two year old kid. That is why I started searching for daytime work. I have not been in the nursing profession for the past two and a half years and doubt if I will be able to rejoin"- she says.

During the survey, employed respondents were asked to reveal the merits of their current jobs. There was a commonality observed in the responses of male and female respondents with respect to financial benefit from the job, flexible work timings and job satisfaction. However, balancing household responsibilities and proximity to the workplace have been cited as merits of the current job by a higher share of females as presented in Figure 2.5.

Figure 2.5: Merits of Employment by Individuals (in per cent)



Note: Base 266 employed youth (166 males & 100 females); multiple responses.

Source: Primary Survey

It is important to recognise that 76 per cent of those who are currently unemployed held a job previously (72.0 per cent of males and 77.0 per cent of females). To those respondents who had worked earlier, questions were asked on reasons to quit the previous job. It is important to note that 61 per cent of females reported the marriage and/family responsibilities as the reason to quit their previous job as presented in Table 2.25. In the case of males, issues at workplace figure as the major reason.

Table 2.25: Reason to Quit the Previous Job by Unemployed (in per cent)

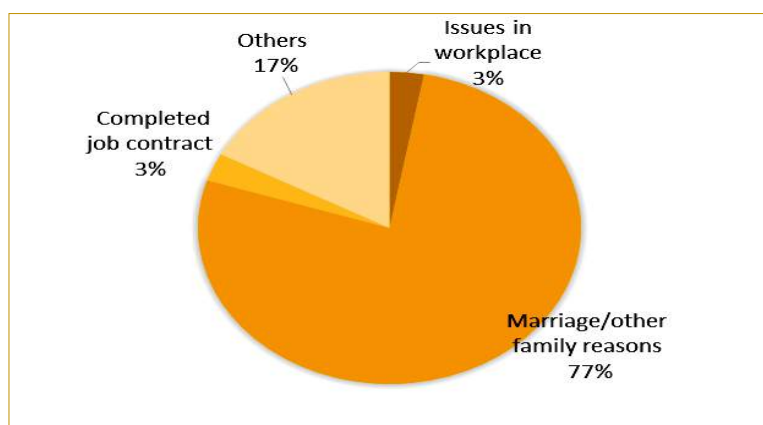
Reason	Male	Female	Total
Marriage/family reasons	5.6	61.4	48.0
Issues at the workplace	44.5	8.8	17.3
Completed job contract	16.7	8.8	10.7
To seek treatment	11.1	7.0	8.0
To continue education	5.6	3.5	4.0
To seek a better job	-	3.5	2.7
Others	16.7	8.8	10.6
Base	18	57	75

Note: Base is those who held previous job among currently unemployed; multiple responses.

Source: Primary Survey

Among home makers (N=55) three-fourths were once employed. They had to quit employment mostly due to family reasons. Figure 2.6 picturises the gravity of the issue. Results from the survey point out how marriage and family responsibilities limit employment prospects of women.

Figure 2.6: Reasons to Quit Job by Homemakers (in per cent)



Note: Base is the number of homemakers who were once employed (N= 35); multiple responses.
Source: Primary Survey

Among the homemakers, merely 22 per cent have ever attempted to seek employment. Among those who sought jobs, roughly half could not secure any job owing to lack of family support, the responsibility of looking after children and in-laws and other family related reasons. A significant share did not enter the labour market as they consider themselves lacking adequate qualification. There were also homemakers reportedly having no interest in work, as presented in Table 2.26. In the survey, a predominant share of homemakers is above 25 years. It is evident that the share of homemakers increases at higher age groups.

Table 2.26: Reasons for not Seeking Employment by Homemakers (in per cent)

Reason	Percentage
Not interested to work	14.0
No qualifications	16.3
Marriage/family responsibilities	61.9
Others	14
Base	43

Note: Multiple responses.
Source: Primary Survey

In depth interviews with homemakers pointed out family responsibility as the major reason for them to remain as 'housewives'. Very few seem to have received support from husband and in-laws to get employed. As seen in the case of unemployed married females, there exists a negative relationship between marriage and being employed; either female is forced to stop working for a while or to withdraw from the labour force.

Nikitha, a 30-year-old housewife's experience is a testimonial to the role of family and gender stereotyping play in limiting the educational and job prospects of women. After getting trained in a vocational course at the

higher secondary level, Nikitha joined for B. A Sociology in a college in her native place. She had to discontinue the course when she was married off to Maneed, the study area.

"I was offered a job when I was married off to Maneed. My husband and his family were not supportive of my decision to be employed, pointing out that the place of work was too far from home. I am not looking for jobs at present as I have to manage household duties along with looking after the kid" - Nikitha says.

Geetha, a 39-year-old woman, once worked as a nurse with the Ministry of Kuwait, is now a homemaker without any income as she had to come back to take care of her sick mother in law. She is not planning to look for jobs in the recent future as she oversees looking after her husband's mother. Remya, a 37-year-old housewife is going through the same experience.

"After marriage, it became my responsibility to look after my paralysed mother-in-law. There is no scope for me to seek or go for jobs. I am a B. Com graduate and was working in the finance sector before marriage. I can't go for work in the current situation as I am burdened with handling the household duties along with taking care of my sick mother in law" - Remya says.

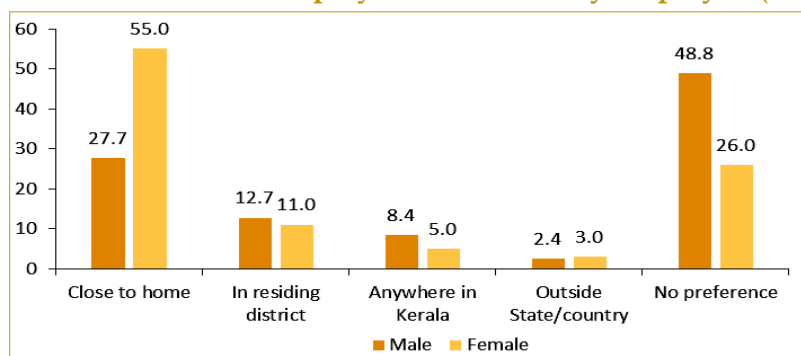
Analysis of the impact of marriage on the labour market behaviour of the youth suggests that females are the worst affected. In most cases, the activity status of a married female is regulated by the decisions of her husband and family. Data indicate a strong linkage between the employment prospects and marital status of female youth in the study area.

2.4.5 Gender and Career Preferences

An important factor that determines employment prospects is the job seeker's preference on location and employer type. This was thought to be of relevance as there exist an earlier research which argues that strong preference for government jobs is contributing to high unemployment among the youth in Kerala (Mathew, 1995).

Data from the survey points towards a preference to obtain job near to their home, while they were searching for jobs during the beginning of their career. Female job seekers tend to have a strong preference for jobs near their residence, perhaps conditioned by social and cultural norms. A job either closer to their home or in their residing district was preferred by 66 per cent of women, as presented in Figure 2.7. Percentage of women who have had no preference with respect to the location of their employment was only 26 per cent in comparison with 49 per cent of males.

Figure 2.7: Preference on Employment Location by Employed (in per cent)

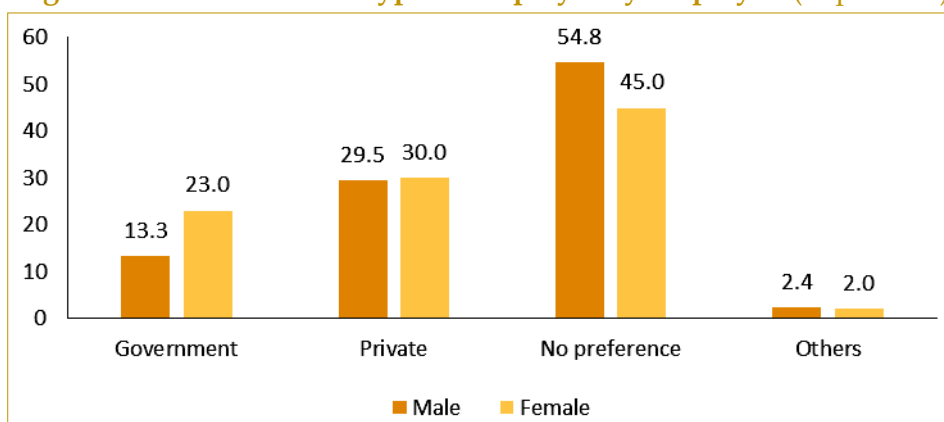


Note: Base is 266.

Source: Primary Survey

As noted in Figure 2.8, it is difficult to conclude from the data any strong preference for a government job, for the currently employed while searching for jobs. However, females indicated a stronger preference for government jobs in comparison with males. A positive factor emerging from the data is a positive attitude with respect to the sector of employment as a majority of job seekers were ready to work in the private sector or did not have a strong preference for employment in any sector. This could be possible due to the fact that better jobs are available in the private sector and/or job seekers are more realistic in the job search as they are aware of the competition to secure a government job.

Figure 2.8: Preference for Type of Employer by Employed (in per cent)



Note: Base is 266.

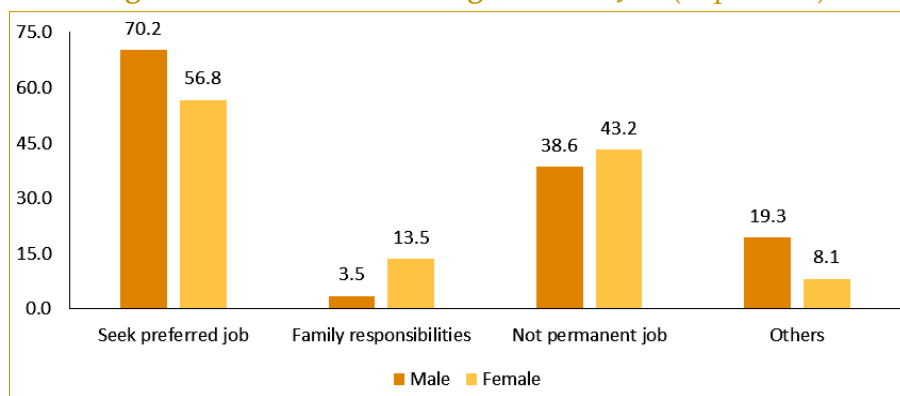
Source: Primary Survey

Among the currently employed youth, a small share (7.9%) had refused job offers. Majority of those who refused job offer were women who cited family and caring responsibilities as the major reason for refusing job offer.

Among the employed respondents, no major difference exists in the share of individuals who would like to change their job; 66 per cent of employed males and 63 per cent of employed females wish not to change the job. However, among those wishing to change their current jobs, a striking difference in priorities was noted between gender. As presented in Figure 2.9, while 70 per cent of males want to shift their job to seek a preferred job, a similar reason was cited by only 57 per cent of females. A significant share

(13 per cent) of females want to shift their present job to fulfil family responsibilities better. During in-depth interviews, several currently employed males who are seeking job change cited the desire to secure a job matching their skill and experience. What is interesting is the share of respondents, both male and female, looking for jobs of a more permanent nature.

Figure 2.9: Reasons to Change Current Job (in per cent)

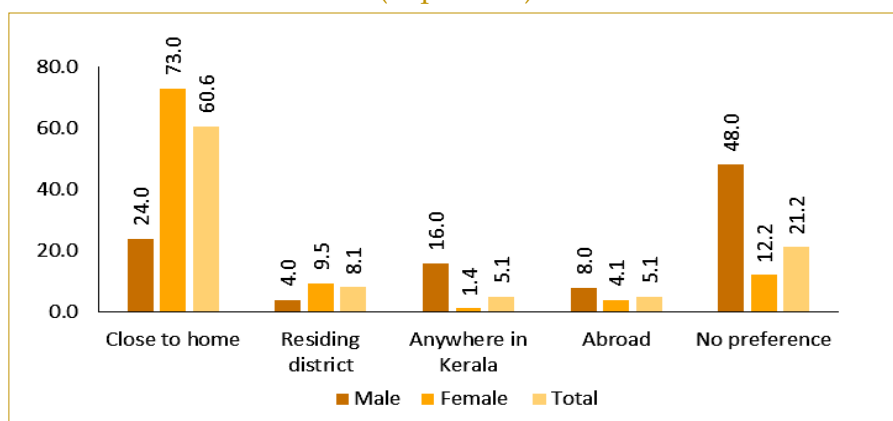


Note: Base is employed seeking job change (N=94); multiple responses.

Source: Primary Survey

Interestingly, unemployed youth also seems to hold a strong preference concerning location and sector of employment. As presented in Figure 2.10, while a majority of the males are open to working anywhere to secure a job, in the case of females, 73 per cent prefer a position which is near to their current residence. Another 10 per cent of female job seekers are open to working in the home district, Ernakulam. Perhaps this seems to be a major hurdle in securing a job among females. As mentioned earlier, 58 per cent of female unemployed reported the marriage and/family reasons as one of the major reasons for remaining unemployed. Unemployed females' preference for jobs could also be conditioned by their marriage and/family responsibilities.

Figure 2.10: Preference for Location of Employment by Unemployed (in per cent)

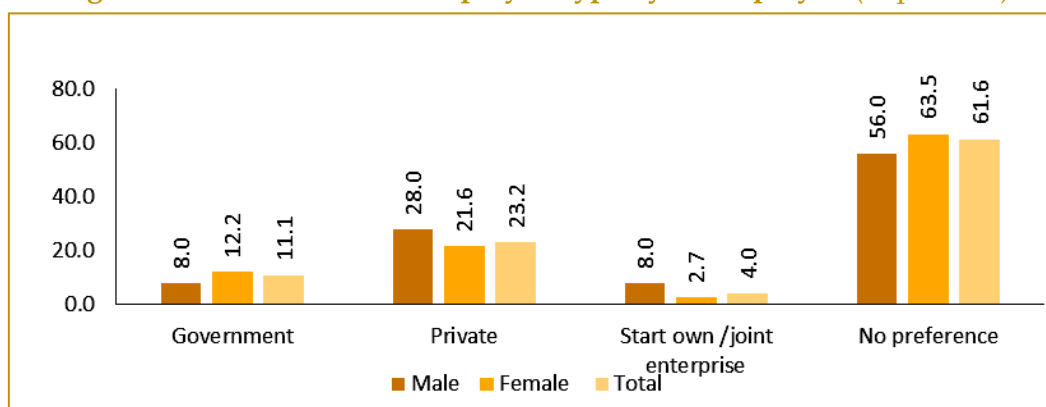


Note: Base is 99.

Source: Primary Survey

Preference for employer type shows that majority in both male and female job seekers do not have any preference as presented in Figure 2.11. The share of unemployed who prefer to secure government jobs is merely 11 per cent; although the share of females desiring government jobs is slightly higher than males. Merely five female job seekers reported having included in the selection list/short list of PSC and other competitive examinations. No significant difference was visible in the employment location or employer type across social groups.

Figure 2.11: Preference for Employer Type by Unemployed (in per cent)



Note: Base is 99.

Source: Primary Survey

Desired features of the job indicated by unemployed youth show how gender stereotypes limit the job prospects of females. Among the unemployed female, 97 per cent want a future job to match with their family interests as presented in Table 2.27. They are looking for a job near to residence with low work pressure to balance their household/caring duties. Convenient work timing is of high importance, and many female job seekers said that they could go for work only if it is acceptable to their spouse and in-laws.

Table 2.27: Desired Features of Future Job as noted by Unemployed (in per cent)

Reasons	Male	Female
Suitable to meet family duties	68.0	97.3
Match career choices/skills	100.0	94.6
High salary through long working hours/commuting	36.0	18.9
Friendly work environment	28.0	25.7

Note: Base is unemployed youth (N=99); multiple responses.

Source: Primary Survey

In contrast, all male job seekers are looking for a job matching their choices. Those who want to give preference to family over employment is lesser in comparison to that of female job seekers. Moreover, 36 per cent of males are ready to compromise issues at work if the salary is high, while females do

not seem much impressed by this option. It is evident that most of the females do not prefer to work in distant places with long working hours compromising family duties even if the salary is high. This could be interpreted as the strong job preference regarding location, work time, and nature of work by the female youth in Kerala, leading to high level unemployment among them. But the real barrier for females to get employed is the social conditioning that burdens them with domestic responsibilities, for which the survey results stand testimony to.

What is surprising is the limited number of job seekers contemplating to start self/joint enterprises. Merely 8 per cent of males and 2.7 per cent of female job seekers are even open to the idea of setting up self/joint enterprises, despite several schemes like Mudra schemes to encourage entrepreneurship. Those respondents in the survey who desired to start enterprises prefer stationery store, beauty salon and buy auto rickshaw. Experience of one of the respondents who have interest in self-employment explains why people remain indifferent to the idea of their own/joint enterprise.

Sheeja is a 35-year old unemployed woman who is challenging gender stereotypes on jobs suitable for women. She managed to meet her livelihood by engaging in various subsidiary employments. Now she desires to buy an auto rickshaw.

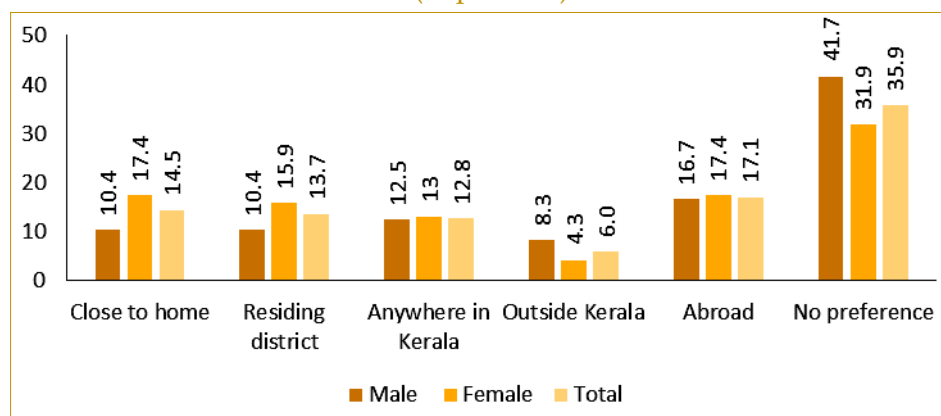
".... I started job search at the age of 32 and took membership in 'Haritha Karma Sena' organised jointly by the Agriculture Department and the Panchayat. I learned activities like climbing coconut trees and driving tractors. Now the former is my major source of income. Even though I have plans to buy an auto rickshaw, issues in getting bank loans have blurred my hope" - Sheeja says. "I don't have the financial capacity to buy an auto rickshaw. That's why I have approached the bank many times, but it seems they are not interested in giving money. Where can I go for cash if they continue to avoid me like this? Many of those who wanted to start small enterprises have dropped the plan owing to financial issues"-she adds.

Sheeja is a typical example of how entrepreneurial aspirations of unemployed people remains unfulfilled owing to difficulties in securing bank loans.

In comparison with currently employed and unemployed, the youngest group of participants in the survey do not give much preference regarding the location of employment, as presented in Figure 2.12. Only 14.5 per cent of them have responded that they would like to get employment near home. It is remarkable that 17.4 per cent of females wish to go abroad for employment. In the study area, there is a great interest in migrating abroad

for work. The data suggest that female students look forward to migration prospects different from the trend observed in the case of employed and unemployed female youth. In-depth interviews with students indicated that 10 per cent of students are currently attending/planning to attend the International English Language Testing System (IELTS) training to prepare for migration (not presented in the Figure). While it could be true that youngsters have a wide choice with respect to the location of employment, preference for migration should be interpreted with caution as most of them may be responding as a 'future preference'. While in the case of employed and unemployed, they might have made some efforts to secure employment and their preference for jobs and location may be more seasoned from their prior job search experience.

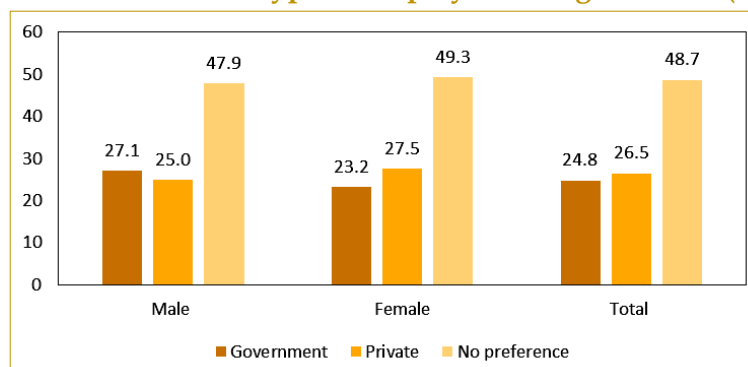
Figure 2.12: Preference for Location of Employment among Students (in per cent)



Note: Base is students wishing to work in future (N= 117).
Source: Primary Survey

Data on the type of employer preferred by students suggest that nearly half of them do not have any preference as noted in Figure 2.13. This applies to both males and females. Strikingly, no one from the student population prefers to establish self/ joint enterprise. It seems that issues with starting self-enterprises faced by the previous generation have discouraged them from such endeavours.

Figure 2.13: Preference for Type of Employer among Students (in per cent)



Note: Base is students wishing to work in future (N= 117).
Source: Primary Survey

Homemakers, though staying out of the labour market, too have labour market aspirations as indicated by the survey results. Among the homemakers, 76 per cent would like to re-join the labour force if they secure appropriate opportunities.

Among those who are planning to seek employment, only 12 per cent considers that there is a high probability to secure employment. In comparison, 81 per cent considers their employment prospects are low, and the remaining as no probability to secure employment.

Interestingly, among the homemakers who want to enter the labour market has a clear preference with respect to the location and type of employer. Concerning location, 91 per cent of homemakers want a job close to home, while another 5 per cent want it in their home district. Concerning the type of employer, 50 per cent of homemakers who want to enter/re-enter the labour market would prefer employment in the private sector, 14 per cent planning to seek employment in the government sector and the remaining 24 per cent is not having any clear preference.

It is also important to recognise that during the fieldwork, the research team also met women who are content with their out of labour force status. For instance, Mary 39-year-old housewife, who had dropped out from her degree course following marriage is happy that her husband earns for the whole family and thinks it is quite normal for her to stay out of the labour force being a married woman.

"I have never felt like going for a job as my husband is employed. I never searched for jobs as well. Some people criticise me for not completing my graduation. Still, I don't have any regret over it. I am pleased that I am fulfilling my responsibilities as a wife and mother. That is enough for me"- she says.

The story of Mary is a typical example to show how far women have been influenced by the idea of a gendered division of labour.

2.5 Conclusions

The Chapter based on field study attempted to understand the youth labour market in the study area. Analysis indicates higher educational attainment among youth in the labour market and potential labour market entrants; a significant share is also possessing technical education. It is important to note that job seekers and students do not hold a strong preference for government employment and depends on a variety of sources to seek information about job openings. While there does not emerge any concrete evidence on gender discrimination in securing education, there do exist distinction in labour market outcomes between males and females. Data

analysis indicated that for females, marriage and family responsibilities affects entry into and exit from the labour market as well as the nature of their participation. This is often true for the type of jobs and location of jobs thought to be suitable for females along with their family responsibilities. Results clearly point towards how education, labour market entry and exit of females is modulated by family/individuals based on social constructs on gender roles. Perhaps this partly explains why a major share of the female youth in the state remains unemployed or stay out of the labour force. At the same time, males in the labour market are positively affected by gender stereotyping as they tend to play the 'male breadwinner family role'.

Chapter 3

Concluding Comments

3.1 Introduction

The study attempted to understand the youth labour market outcomes in Kerala from gender perspective based on evidence drawn from a village study conducted in Maneed, Ernakulam. The focus of the research was to capture the labour market behaviour of employed, unemployed, students and homemakers who are in the age group of 18-40 years. Apart from the Introduction, this chapter is organised as follows: Section 3.2 discusses main findings of the survey and in-depth interviews conducted with employed, unemployed, students and homemakers and; Section 3.3 outlines policy changes to improve labour market outcomes of the youth.

3.2 Labour Market Outcomes in the Study Area

3.2.1 Poor Labour Market Indicators

Despite better educational attainment, survey data points towards poor labour market outcomes among the youth in the study area – WFPR tend to be low, particularly for women, while educated unemployment is emerging as a pertinent issue.

3.2.2 Employment Preference

Respondents are open to working in the public or private sector while seeking for a job. But what is worrying is the low share of respondents who are open to the idea of starting self/joint enterprises. This is true even for unemployed and homemakers who want to re-enter the labour force.

3.2.3 Pattern of Job Search

The study finds a significant difference in the intensity of searching for a job by men and women. The unemployed youth currently searching for jobs were asked about the number of job applications they submitted six months preceding the survey. While 57 per cent of women who are currently searching for jobs have not applied for a single job during the

last six months, the corresponding proportion for men is only 24 per cent. This implies that unemployed men are more active in job search compared to unemployed women.

3.2.4 Job Preference

Previous studies have suggested that the strong preference for government jobs contributes to high unemployment among the youth in Kerala. But only 12 per cent of unemployed women and 8 per cent of unemployed men expressed a preference for government jobs. The study also found that there is not much inclination towards self-employment or for starting own enterprises. Only 8 per cent of male job seekers and 3 per cent of female job seekers are open to the idea of self-employment or starting enterprises on their own. But data from the survey points towards a strong preference to obtain a job near their home among female job seekers, perhaps conditioned by social and cultural norms. While three-fourths of the male job seekers are open to working anywhere, nearly three-fourths of female job seekers prefer a job near their current residence. This would essentially limit the scope of their job search, which, in turn, adversely affect their job prospects.

3.2.5 Mediating Employment Decisions

Survey data indicates that gender differentials in labour market outcomes become visible not in the choice of education or the pattern of job search but in securing a job. This mainly operates in defining jobs or features of jobs that are desirable for women. Or more specifically, jobs that are suitable for women to balance their household/caring responsibilities. A major reason given by women for discontinuing education or quitting employment is marriage/childbirth. In depth interviews with women respondents reveal that after marriage, the decision to participate in the labour market and nature of participation (in terms of preferred jobs and locations) are dictated or mediated by the family. That could be one of the reasons why technically qualified women continue to remain unemployed.

3.2.6 Cultural Conditioning of Labour Market Behaviour

While males seem to have benefitted from their 'breadwinner' role that improves their access to the 'public sphere', mostly through employment, females are confined to the 'private sphere' mostly engaging in domestic labour. Irrespective of the level of education, females are forced to give preference to family over employment, especially after marriage. The survey results indicate a higher probability for a female to be unemployed after marriage, while the opposite is the case with males. This, often interpreted as the strong job preference displayed by the women in Kerala do not reflect their individual choices, but is the product of cultural conditioning.

Preferences of the female youth regarding location and type of employment explicitly suggest that their priority is to give much attention to the household duties. It is not the personal choice of a woman in Kerala that limits her employment prospects but the stereotypical 'Kulasthree' notion (Devika, 2010) that she has been forced to adhere to irrespective of her will.

3.3 Policy Contours

- a. Gender sensitisation needs to be improved both at the individual and societal level. Gender conditioning is affecting individuals' aspirations and labour market outcomes, and very often, women are at the receiving end. A conscious effort is required to change the 'male breadwinner model' and to accept that both male and female need to play an equal role in society and family. This would require gender awareness campaigns at different spheres.
- b. Educated unemployment among both males and females continues to be a major problem. While it is important to look at the quality of education imparted, a point often missed in the discussion is to outline labour demand. In other words, to seek education in the field where there is a scope for employment, whether in the national or international market.
- c. There is an urgent need to encourage youth to set up their own/joint enterprises. While several schemes are introduced by the government, both at the central and state level, 'entrepreneurship' among the youth tend to be low. In fact, what is required is an enterprise facilitation centre that would encourage and handhold youth who want to venture into self-employment.
- d. A major factor cited for the withdrawal of women from the labour market is to fulfil family and childcare responsibilities. There is a need to evaluate to what extent child and elderly care facilities in the state are meeting the requirements of working women and to come up with strategies to encourage greater participation of women in the labour force. Further, flexible leave options should be designed for women employees to balance family/caring responsibilities and create awareness among men to share household/caring duties, among others.
- e. Emphasis needs to be placed on programmes that would encourage the entry of women to the labour force. This could be by skill training, job fairs targeting women, strengthening self-employment programmes or even providing incentives to organisations that facilitate re-entry of women to the labour market.

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Appendix

Appendix I

Reasons for Educational Choice Post Matriculation of Youth by Social Group (in per cent)

Reasons	Employed				Unemployed				House maker				Student			
	SC	OBC	General	Total	SC	OBC	General	Total	SC	OBC	General	Total	SC	OBC	General	Total
Job prospects	42.2	39.5	50.9	46.7	45.8	61.1	66.0	59.6	-	-	22.2	11.1	46.9	55.2	53.6	52.1
Financial situation	-	5.3	2.6	2.5		5.6	4.3	3.4	-	-	5.6	2.8	0.0	-	3.6	1.7
Near to residence	2.2	2.6	1.7	2.0	4.2	5.6	-	2.2	-	-	5.6	2.8	3.1	-	7.1	4.3
Migration prospects	-	-	4.3	2.5	-	-	2.1	1.1	-	-	5.6	2.8	-	-	10.7	5.1
Suitability to gender	-	-	0.9	0.5	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.8	0.9
Liked the subject	40.0	55.3	56.0	52.3	33.3	61.1	40.4	42.7	75.0	83.3	50.0	63.9	56.3	65.5	62.5	61.5
High/low marks	13.3	2.6	0.9	4.0	8.3	5.6	2.1	4.5	8.3	16.7	16.7	13.9	3.1	-	1.8	1.7
Others	4.4	10.5	4.3	5.5	8.3	5.6	10.6	9.0	16.7	-	11.1	11.1	3.1	3.4	7.1	5.1
Base	45	38	116	199	24	18	47	89	12	6	18	36	32	29	56	117

Note: Includes youth who have education higher secondary and above; multiple responses.

Source: Primary Survey

Appendix II

Highest Level of Education Received by Youth by Social Group (in per cent)

Education	Employed			Unemployed			Student			Homemaker		
	SC	OBC	General	Total	SC	OBC	General	Total	SC	OBC	General	Total
Primary (1-4)	1.5	-	-	0.4	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Middle (5-7)	5.9	3.7	0.7	2.6	6.9	-	-	2.0	-	8.7	-	3.6
Matric/Secondary (8-10)	32.4	35.2	23.6	28.2	20.7	28.6	10.2	17.2	6.3	47.8	21.7	36.4
Higher Secondary	35.3	29.6	29.9	31.2	13.8	23.8	34.7	26.3	84.4	30.4	11.1	27.3
Degree-General	8.8	9.3	11.8	10.5	27.6	28.6	30.6	29.3	6.3	13.0	26.1	21.8
Degree-Technical	2.9	3.7	12.5	8.3	13.8	4.8	20.4	15.2	3.1	-	8.7	3.6
Postgraduate-General	7.4	7.4	11.8	9.8	6.9	4.8	2.0	4.0	-	-	-	-
Postgraduate- Technical	-	1.9	0.7	0.8	3.4	9.5	-	3.0	-	-	-	-
ITI/ITC	2.9	3.7	3.5	3.4	3.4	-	-	1.0	-	-	-	-
Others	2.9	5.6	5.6	4.9	3.4	-	2.0	2.0	-	11.1	13.0	7.3
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100	100.0	100.0	100.0	100	100.0	100.0	100.0	100
Base	68	54	144	266	29	21	49		32	29	57	118
									23	9	23	55

Source: Primary Survey

Appendix III

Reason to Discontinue Education by Youth by Social Group (in per cent)

Reasons	Employed				Unemployed				Homemaker			
	SC	OBC	General	Total	SC	OBC	General	Total	SC	OBC	General	Total
Lost interest	85.7	75.0	70.6	76.9	57.1	70.0	66.7	63.6	65.0	60.0	45.5	58.3
Started working	7.1	12.5	-	5.1	7.1	-	-	3.0	-	-	9.1	2.8
Financial problems	-	12.5	11.8	7.7	-	-	-	-	-	-	9.1	2.8
Marriage	-	-	-	-	7.1	-	-	3.0	15.0	20.0	18.2	16.7
Childbirth	-	-	5.9	2.6	7.1	-	-	3.0	-	-	-	-
Other family reasons	-	25.0	5.9	7.7	-	-	-	-	5.0	-	-	2.8
Supplementary/ back paper	7.1	-	5.9	5.1	-	-	11.1	3.0	5.0	20.0	9.1	8.3
Due to illness/Accident/ health issues	-	-	5.9	2.6	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Others	-	-	-	-	35.7	30.0	22.2	30.3	10.0	-	9.1	8.3
Base	14	8	17	39	14	10	9	33	20	5	11	36

Note: Base is people who had discontinued education; multiple responses.

Source: Primary Survey



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