

7. Engendering Development

In this section, we will attempt to contextualize Tripura's overall human development advancements through the prism of gender. We will begin with some objective measurements related to the physical wellbeing of women and then take the discussion further to focus on the more complex issues pertaining to their place in the social and political power structure.

7.1 Ascertaining survival equality

It is universally recognized that there is difference in mortality depending on sex. At birth, generally boys outnumber girls everywhere – there are 105-106 male children born for every 100 female children. But given the greater survival rates of females, women tend to live longer than their male counterparts. Thus, the sex ratio for females in the West and in many other parts of the world is in favor of women. In Europe and North America women tend to outnumber men. According to the United Nations Statistics 2012, the sex ratio¹ of countries like Norway, Sweden and Finland are 1000, 1010 and 1040 respectively. In the United Kingdom the ratio is 1030 and in the United States it is 1020.²

In contrast, there are many countries in the world like India and China where the sex ratio is abnormally unfavorable to women; it is 943 in India and 930 in China.³ It has been estimated that if India and China had the same sex ratio as prevailing in sub-Saharan Africa, then, given the number of males in these countries, there would have been 37 million more women in India and 44 million more women in China in the mid-1980s (Dreze and Sen 1989: 52). Underlying this kind of persistent outnumbering of female are some deep rooted social causes that need deeper probing.

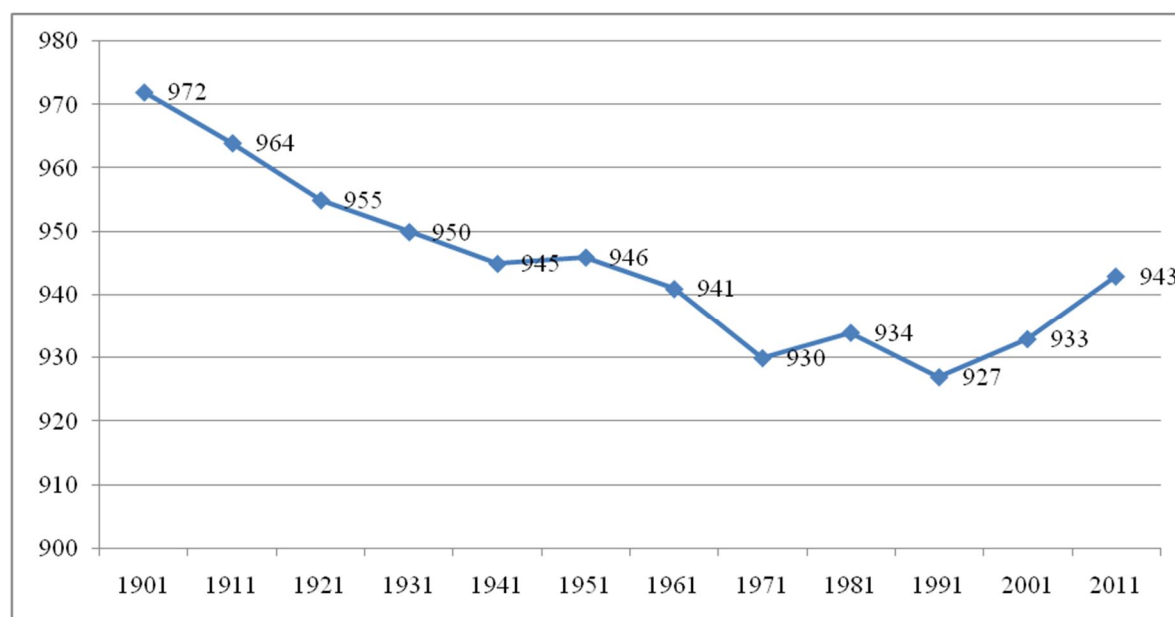
To that end, we begin with a brief discussion on the female-male ratio in the country as a whole and then discuss in greater detail the situation in Tripura.

¹Number of women per thousand men

² United Nations, Department of Economics and Social Affairs, December 2012

³ibid

Fig. 7.1: Trends in Sex Ratio over the years in India



Source: Census of India, various years

Table 7.1: Sex Ratio in selected states of India

States	Sex Ratio	Sex Ratio for 0-6years
Kerala	1084	964
TamilNadu	996	943
Himachal Pradesh	972	909
Tripura	960	957
Bihar	918	935
Punjab	895	846
Haryana	879	834
Meghalaya	989	970
Mizoram	976	970
Manipur	992	936
Nagaland	931	943
Arunachal Pradesh	938	972
West Bengal	950	956
India	943	919

Source: Census of India 2011

The chart above puts forward quite a disconcerting picture of sexratio in our country. At a time when the country's economic achievements are making headlines in the national dailies, it is a matter of real shame that there has been such a high incidence of female mortality in the country. The achievements made in the last two decades are modest at best and do not appear as major progress. However, sharp diversities exist across states within the same national geography. For example, Punjab and Haryana, being comparatively richer states, record the sex ratio of 895 and 875 respectively whereas Kerala scores 1084 on the same indicator which is similar to that of many European and North American countries. According to the Census of India 2011, except for a handful of states like Kerala and Puducherry (Kerala – 1084, Puducherry – 1037), the sex ratio of India and especially of states like Bihar (918) and Uttar Pradesh (912) is truly disturbing.

The poor Female-Male Ratio is the result of persistent discriminations towards the girl child in terms of nutrition and health care. As a result, in spite of having a longer survival potential, she falls behind in the race.

Unlike many states, Tripura has a favorable female-male ratio (960) comparatively speaking, recording a 12 point improvement in the decade 2001-2011. A sizable section (31.8 percent) of Tripura's population consists of various Scheduled Tribes (ST), among whom the female-male ratio (FMR) stands at 983 in 2011, registering an improvement of 13 points over the previous (2001) census. The favorable FMR among the STs in Tripura basically tends to follow, not exactly though, the trend found in other north eastern states like Arunachal Pradesh (1032), Mizoram (1007), Manipur (984) and Meghalaya (1013). However, among the Schedule Castes (SC), who share 17.8 percent of the total population of Tripura, the FMR (959) has actually had a slight decline during the decade referred to above.

Notwithstanding a favorable FMR for the entire population of Tripura, the corresponding figure pertaining to the children in the 0-6 group is discouraging (957); furthermore, it records a decline of 9 point during the last decade (2001-11). It is also intriguing to note that the child FMR among STs is exactly the same as the state average for all children, indicating a probable transmission and permeation in the tribal culture of the sex bias prevalent among the non-tribal groups, particularly in urban areas where the 0-6 FMR is much lower (947) than that in the rural areas (960). Comparatively speaking, as regards child FMR, Tripura is placed somewhere in the

middle – between the best and the worst; what is worrisome though is the future demographic impact of the declining trend in 0-6 FMR.

It needs to be mentioned again that the sex ratio in Tripura has improved gradually from 1901 to the present. This, in part, is a reflection of the effectiveness, although modest, of public provisioning of health and nutritional care given to the children and their mothers in the state.

Despite the state having a favorable female-male ratio indicating higher life chances of girls, and a much lower level of undernourishment among children [16.3 percent, at par with Tamil Nadu (16.45), as opposed to 23.49 percent and 23.89 percent for Kerala and Gujarat respectively], the nutritional level of adult women in Tripura is as poor as in the most backward states in this regard. According to the National Family Health Survey (NFHS) III, 55.3 percent of Indian women are anemic. In Tripura the corresponding figure is 65 percent which is almost as high as that in Bihar (67.4), and higher than that in West Bengal (63.2) and Odisha (61.2). On the other hand, other north eastern states, namely Manipur, etc. stand out with a corresponding figure that is as low as 35.7 percent. Therefore, it is imperative for the state to take concerted action towards ameliorating nutritional deficiencies of the adult women of Tripura. Without addressing the issue it is well nigh impossible to achieve the human development goals.

7.2 Gender Parity in Literacy and Education

We have focused on educational capabilities of the people of Tripura in greater detail in a separate chapter. In this section we have specifically addressed the issue of gender equity in educational participation. Tripura does not only have a high overall literacy rate (87 percent) but also has made remarkable advancement in narrowing the gender gap in literacy (from 16 percentage point in 2001 to 9 percentage point in 2011). The high rate of literacy and growing expansion of school education have complimented each other, creating wider opportunities for the girls to carry their educational prospects forward.

Table 7.2: Gender Gap in Literacy rate for STs in selected states

States	Literate Female	Gender Gap
Kerala	92.1	4
TamilNadu	73.4	13.3

Himachal Pradesh	75.9	13.6
Tripura	82.7	8.8
Bihar	51.5	19.7
Punjab	70.7	9.7
Haryana	65.9	18.1
Meghalaya	72.9	3.1
Mizoram	89.3	4.1
Manipur	72.4	13.7
Nagaland	76.1	6.6
Arunachal Pradesh	57.7	14.9
West Bengal	70.5	11.2
India	64.6	16.3

Source: Census of India 2011

However, unlike in several other north eastern states such as Mizoram (89.5 percent), Meghalaya (73.5 percent) and Nagaland (76.9 percent), the literacy rate among female members of ST community is lower in Tripura (71.6 percent). Indeed, the gender gap in literacy rate is higher among STs (14.8 percent) in Tripura when compared to that in overall literacy. Comparatively speaking, however, the gender gap in ST literacy is uneven across states and Tripura fortunately belongs to the league of states that have reduced this gap considerably.

Do these positive changes have a deep-rooted connection with changes in the broader cultural milieu in the educationally active states? To answer this question, we will require an in-depth sociological analysis that we are not attempting here. In passing, however, we look at the mean age of marriage for girls in selected states in order to draw some inferences about the possible linkage between social and educational status of young girls.

The age at which a girl is getting married has a huge implication for the entire social structure since it goes on to impact her own educational achievements, work participation and contribution to the national economy. Most importantly, early marriage implies early pregnancy, which has detrimental effects both on the body of the girl and the child she gives birth to. After years of persistent struggle, and extensive awareness generation and campaigning, it has been possible to increase the mean age of marriage for girls from early teens to early twenties. In the case of

Tripura, data show that the mean age of marriage for girls is approximately 21⁴. There does not exist any noticeable difference among its rural and urban counterparts in this regard. However, girls in Tripura are married off much earlier than their counterparts in most northeastern states such as Manipur (24), Meghalaya (23.4), and Nagaland (24.6). This has a clear bearing on their work participation.

Table 7.3: Mean age at Marriage for girls in selected states

States	Rural	Urban	All
Kerala	22.4	22.9	22.6
TamilNadu	21.5	22.5	22
Himachal Pradesh	22.2	24.4	22.3
Tripura	20.3	22.3	20.9
Bihar	NA	NA	NA
Punjab	21.4	22.9	21.9
Haryana	20.2	21.9	20.8
Meghalaya	23.5	23.2	23.4
Mizoram	22.2	23.8	23.1
Manipur	23.1	25.5	24
Nagaland	24.5	24.9	24.6
Arunachal Pradesh	21.3	21.4	21.3
West Bengal	18.5	20.9	19.2

Source: GoI 2012-13, Ministry of Health and Family Welfare, District Level Household and Facility Survey (DLHS) – 4

7.3 Women's Work Participation Rate

That about one-fourth of the women in Tripura (who form 29 percent of the total workers) recorded themselves as “workers” during the 2011 Census enumeration indicates that women are enjoying some freedom to go out of home. It has also been seen that out of the total person days generated

⁴According to DLHS 4 the mean age of marriage for girls in Tripura is 20.9 while the Census of India, 2011 puts it at 21.2.

through MGNREGA in the year of 2012-13, women shared 41.1 percent of the days in question, which is a 2.4 percent improvement over the preceding year (2011-12).⁵

The freedom of going outside, however, must be seen dialectically: their working outside, as we will discuss presently, does not necessarily make them free from the regular responsibilities of child rearing and doing domestic chores – cooking, cleaning, mopping the floor, washing utensils and clothes, etc. In other words, in all likelihood, gainful employment doubles their workload. Yet, this does exert an impact on the women’s own world which gets re-shaped through women’s – however limited – economic independence, gathering information and knowledge and a growing sense of collectivity through their camaraderie while working outside in groups.

A relatively high percentage of women employed daily in factories in Tripura (21 percent as opposed to 8 percent for the country as a whole) is cause for optimism. Also, unlike most of the states under consideration, this figure in Tripura has in fact improved by 6 percentage points between 1991 and 2008.

Table 7.4: State wise average daily employment in Factories on the basis of sex

State	Female		Total		Share of women	
	1991	2008	1991	2008	1991	2008
Andhra Pradesh	58553	60429	388740	471070	15.1	12.8
Bihar	15455	53	459960	13556	3.4	0.4
Gujarat	35510		501060		7.1	
Kerala	63927	NA	179413	NA	35.6	NA
Maharashtra	64419	45686	1007902	732454	6.4	6.2
Tripura	712	3860	4654	18166	15.3	21.2
India	514424	221290	5214158	2628446	9.9	8.4

Source: Annual returns received under the Factories Act, 1948 by the Labor bureau

⁵GoI, MoRD3, No date

Table 7.5: Work participation rates in 2001 and 2011

NAME	2001				2011			
	Work Participation Rate	Work Participation Rate (Male)	Work Participation Rate(Female)	Percentage of worker (Female)	Work Participation Rate	Work Participation Rate (Male)	Work Participation Rate(Female)	Percentage of worker (Female)
India	39.1	51.7	25.6	31.6	39.8	53.3	25.5	31.1
Arunachal Pradesh	44.0	50.6	36.5	39.2	42.5	49.1	35.4	40.4
Nagaland	42.6	46.7	38.1	42.3	49.2	53.4	44.7	43.8
MANIPUR (Excluding 3 Sub-Divisions)	43.6	48.1	39.0	44.2	45.1	51.6	38.6	42.6
Mizoram	52.6	57.3	47.5	43.7	44.4	52.4	36.2	40.3
Tripura	36.2	50.6	21.1	28.3	40.0	55.8	23.6	28.9
Meghalaya	41.8	48.3	35.1	41.4	40.0	47.2	32.7	40.6
Assam	35.8	49.9	20.7	28.0	38.4	53.6	22.5	28.6
Kerala	32.3	50.2	15.4	24.5	34.8	52.7	18.2	27.3
Tamil Nadu	44.7	57.6	31.5	35.1	45.6	59.3	31.8	34.8

Source: Census of India of respective years

There has not been any striking improvement in reducing the gender gap in work-participation rate in Tripura, which is roughly similar to what has been observed in the other northeastern states. Kerala too, the leader in many other indicators of human development, appears to be making only modest progress in this regard. A number of northeastern states, on the other hand, have comparatively better female work participation rate (as can be seen from Table 7.5) which can very well be attributed to the long history of practice of matriarchal culture together with the domination of tribal entities that generally hold a more liberal outlook towards the role of women in society. Tripura and Assam, however, are regional outliers in this regard though recording a slight increase in women's work participation in 2011. The prevailing gender gap in gainful economic activity in Tripura is palpable from other data sources too.⁶

It is important to point out that the state has witnessed a gradual increase in WPR across gender among the Scheduled Caste communities (an increase of 2.6 percentage point) whereas the picture is reversed in case of the Scheduled Tribe community, indicating a decline of 1.4 percentage point in the WPR between the censuses of 2001 and 2011. Also, among the total ST workers the share of female workers has decreased by 2.4 percentage point. The introduction of settled agriculture among the erstwhile Jhumia communities, and increasing migration and urbanization may all have had an effect on the economic engagements of tribal women (Ghosh and Choudhury 2011). The pros and cons of such effects require deeper probing.

Gender disparity may be examined on another register, namely, with respect to the number of main and marginal workers. Main workers are defined as those having received employment for more than six months in a year and marginal workers are those who have been employed for less than six months in a year. It can be found that men always outnumber women by a huge proportion when it comes to working as main workers; while only 24.6 percent of women in India are employed as main workers, 75.4 per cent of men are found to be engaged in the same category. And just the opposite scenario is applicable in cases of marginal workers who do not have a regular income. This scenario is roughly the same in almost every state in India.

⁶According to the National Sample Survey Office, 68th Round, July 2011- June 2012 in Tripura the labour force participation rate is 59.4 percent and 59.9 percent for males in urban and rural areas respectively while for their female counterparts, it is 26 percent and 28.7 percent in urban and rural areas respectively.

It is encouraging to note that 2.3 percentage point increase has taken place among female main workers in the last census for the country as a whole. In Tripura, however, in the same period there has been a worrisome decline of 7.3 percentage point among female main workers. This troubling pattern holds for both ST and SC women, and more generally for main workers as a whole alluding towards larger problems of economic opportunities in the state.

Table 7.6: Female main worker WPR among the social groups

State	General		SC		ST	
	2001	2011	2001	2011	2001	2011
Tripura	51.9	44.6	54	45.9	47.5	39.8
India	57.3	59.6	55.2	57.6	53.3	52.7

Source: Census of India, 2001 and 2011

7.4 Gendered Family Dynamics and the larger Socio-Cultural backdrop

Drawing on our limited field-based data and experience, here we make a few preliminary observations about the ‘decision space’ that women enjoy within their own family set-up. In an interview with us, a lady Panchayat pradhan informed us that she does not have much command over the decisions that are taken at household level and yet is responsible for most of the domestic chores that are hardly shared by her husband in spite of the fact that he does not have any full-time employment. Only upon completing all her domestic duties is she able to take time as the leader of the gram panchayat. Such stories abound in many other parts of the country. Yet, amidst all such constraints, what stands out is the independence – however limited– that women like her enjoy. Being elected as a representative gives these women the freedom to step out of the four walls, to interact with the outside world and attend several important meetings – something which was unimaginable even a decade ago. Thus, even though this seems like a speck of dim light, it surely holds the key to a much brighter and shinier future.

This silver line of promise is to be juxtaposed against the familial encumbrances that women routinely face. For example, our conversations with some of the women in the selected villages revealed that in matters of decision-making it was always the male member’s voice that counted as the last word. Primary data reveal that across a broad range of issues starting from simple and mundane matters like marketing, visiting a friend or relative’s place or purchase of household

groceries to more vital decisions like purchase of land or property, males have a dominating voice. We find corroboration of such ground realities in the IHDS data that also suggest that women emerge as primary decision-makers only in matters related to cooking and such other routine activities.

To visit somebody in a different village or city, female members of the households need to take permission from male members of the house even now. In the tribal families, however, women appear to be much more outgoing as compared to their counterparts in non-tribal households; they regularly go grocery shopping on their own; in their community, the men of the house are found to take care of the children when the women are away from home. In general, during our visits to households in different community backgrounds, no obvious signs of gender disparity were visible in intra-family distribution of food and other resources in tribal households, whereas in non-tribal families women ate only after serving the men in the family, and at times they ate in lesser quantities.

Given the fact that gender relations in Indian society are largely influenced by traditions, bringing in any change in this area is a huge task that needs to be taken up with combined commitments of the society and the state and isolated interventions are bound to produce partial results. For example, Tripura has made substantial progress in terms of enhancing gender equity in literacy and school education, and yet, the low level of nutritional status of the women, their thinner presence in higher education, government jobs and other spheres of public life, point towards the continuation of gendered social relations unfavorable to women. The human development goals of the state of Tripura have to address these challenges.

7.5 Women's Participation in politics

In Tripura, the practical field of politics is still dominated by men. At the gram panchayat levels, the representation of women, according to the available data, was 36 percent which was lower than that in Bihar (50 percent), Arunachal Pradesh (42 percent), Manipur (49 percent), Assam (37 percent) and West Bengal (38 percent)⁷. The presence of women is even thinner in the higher bodies of legislation. According to the present figures, among 60 members of the legislative

⁷ State wise Women Representatives in Panchayat, Devolution Index 20

assembly only 5 are female (Election Commission of India, no date). Similarly, women's role in political organizational leadership is yet to take a significant, change-enhancing turn.

Table 7.7: Participation (in percent) of females (as contestants and elected candidates) in assembly elections of various states of India (based on available data of last election)

State	Year	Contestants	Total no. of contestants	Elected	Total no. of constituencies
Tripura	2013	6.0	249	8.3	60
Kerala	2011	8.5	971	5.0	140
Tamil Nadu	2011	5.2	2748	7.3	234
Gujarat	2012	5.8	1666	8.8	182
Goa	2012	4.7	215	2.5	40
Punjab	2012	8.6	1078	12.0	117
Haryana	2014	8.6	1351	14.4	90
Himachal Pradesh	2012	7.4	459	4.4	68
Chhattisgarh	2013	8.4	986	11.1	90
Jharkhand	2009	7.2	1491	9.9	81
West Bengal	2011	9.7	1792	11.6	294

Source: Election Commission of India, No date

A brief look at the above table further highlights the dominant presence of men in the corridors of power. While women constitute approximately 50 percent of the entire population of Tripura, they form a meager six percent of the total contestants in the state assembly elections. In case of elected representatives too, women representation is extremely low with only 8.3 percent in the entire 60 constituencies. It needs to be mentioned here that while in 2013 Tripura portrays such a picture, West Bengal on the other hand in 2011, showed a comparatively better result in women's participation with 9.7 percent of contestants and 11.6 percent of elected representatives being women.

Table 7.8: Share of women members in workers' trade unions in 2007 (States/Union)

States	Number of Unions submitting returns	Percentage of women to total worker
Assam	571	36.59
Himachal Pradesh	156	4.38
Kerala	1249	36.43
Manipur	66	48.34
Meghalaya	22	12.71
Mizoram	15	5.43
Nagaland	20	0.83
Tripura	34	46.91
India	6830	27.34

Source: Annual returns received under the trade unions act, 1926 by Labor bureau

Though participation of women in the assembly is still quite low in Tripura, the share of women members in the trade unions is quite high. Almost 46.9 percent of women workers in Tripura are part of one of the worker's trade unions while the share of women for the same in India is 27.3 percent. It certainly suggests the possibility that a sizable section of women are aware of their rights at the work place.

Having delineated above the complex and mixed pattern of gender relations existing in Tripura and the jostling for space therein, one cannot but recognize the critical need for a more radical change in both the attitude towards the question of gender relations and the actual situation. The way Tripura has started investing on improving certain aspects concerning the status of women – through interventions in education and health and thereby helping in building agency of women – can hopefully lead to further positive changes in the overall situation of gender justice.

This report has stopped short of constructing Gender-related Development Index (GDI) or Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM) for the state since the available data do not quite permit the construction of such sophisticated indicators of gender parity or its lack.⁸ A couple of

⁸As the Human Development Index (HDI) was deemed inadequately sensitive to gender inequalities, a new measure, the Gender-related Development Index (GDI) was created by the UNDP to adjust for the same in the domains of life expectancy, education and income. The Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM), on the other hand, looks at female representation in economic (i.e professional and managerial) and political positions and examines gender gaps in income.

somewhat dated studies on gender ranking of the state presented its less-than-promising position in this respect.⁹ In this report an effort has been made to distill a qualitative understanding of the position of women both in private and public spheres.

We end this section raising a concern about gender-based violence in the state. This is done in the spirit of having a thorough discussion on this issue, such that its debilitating effects on capability expansion may be mitigated more successfully than what has been achieved so far.

Unlike other north eastern states like Meghalaya, where a tribal matrilineal society and the consequent greater land ownership of women manifests in a society that is relatively safer for women, Tripura, in spite of having a substantial tribal population, is a patrilineal and more patriarchal society (Ghosh and De 2008). This relative disempowerment that women face is reflected in the rate of crimes against women, which stands at 68.2, noticeably higher than the national average of 56.3 and seventh highest among all 29 states of the country¹⁰. While this figure too cannot be used uncritically as the Status of Women Report from Tripura (which uses crime data of 2002-03) finds discrepancies between Tripura police data and NCRB data, and as the reporting occurs within an omnipresent culture of shame and silencing around issues of violation of women, it serves as an indicator of the enormity of the problem. Research from RICE Institute estimates a gap in reporting by comparing NCRB data for the years 2004, 2005 and 2006 with that of NFHS-3 data; a mere 0.12 percent of cases of marital violence is being reported in Tripura (Gupta 2014); and even those cases appear to largely go unaddressed as evident from the state data of 2013-14 which shows that of the 354 registered cases of domestic violence/marital dispute registered with the Tripura Women's Commission, a mere two were reconciled (TCW 2013-14).

District wise disaggregation of two categories of crimes against women from 2014 reveals an uneven distribution of crimes across the state (table 7.9). There seems to be numerical disagreement amongst the data sources and lack of synchronization in definitions, making it hard to verify the most prevalent crimes – patriarchal social mores appear to be responsible for the most substantial number of crimes against women – specifically, rape and domestic violence.

⁹<http://www.oecd.org/dac/gender-development/43041409.pdf>;

¹⁰ The rate of cognizable crime against women is calculated per lakh of women.

Bound by a common attitude to women, both appear to be highest in the district of West Tripura and high in Gomati.

Table 7.9: District-wise number of crimes against women in Tripura during 2014

District	Rape	Kidnapping & Abduction	Dowry Deaths	Assault on Women with intent to outrage her Modesty	Insult to the Modesty of Women	Cruelty by Husband or his Relatives	All cases of crimes against women
Dhalai	34	5	1	49	0	41	144
Gomati	32	22	9	51	0	135	279
Kowai	15	4	8	36	0	25	111
North Tripura	26	12	6	41	0	79	173
Sipahijala	19	11	1	76	0	86	202
South Tripura	20	8	4	47	0	94	214
Unakoti	24	11	1	29	2	50	122
West Tripura	69	29	3	161	9	192	490
Total	239	102	33	490	11	702	1737

Source: GoINCRB 2014c

Even the ethnic conflict between adivasis and Bengalis in Tripura, though centred around issues of cultural and land rights, seems to play out through violence over women's bodies (Banerjee et al. 2014), and the legal system has often proven unequal to the task of upholding the rights of women. Another category of gender crime, which has close ties with poverty, goes under-reported in Tripura, namely, trafficking. Anecdotal evidence supports the claim that families from Haryana, where the adverse sex ratio against women leads to a dearth of brides, look to Tripura to provide women, a pressure that Tripura's poor families succumb to due to dowry being waived, or because of a remuneration that is provided alongside (Chakraborty and Bandhyopadhyay, no date). Unfortunately, these get subsumed under the category of 'kidnapping' in NCRB, eluding the gendered aspect of this crime.

Somewhat encouragingly, insurgency violence has been curbed, AFSPA has finally been repealed, and measures are being undertaken, such as the implementation of criminal tracking software for the police, all of which may have cumulatively been behind the small drop in crimes against women from 2013 to 2014.

Technical Note

The specific dimensions and their respective indicators used for HDI, GDI are as follows-

“1: ‘A Long and Healthy Life’

Indicators: i) Infant Mortality Rate and ii) Life Expectancy at age 1. The negative index for infant mortality rate was converted to a positive indicator by subtracting the value from 1.

2: ‘Knowledge’ Indicators:

i) 7+ Literacy Rate and ii) Mean Years of Education for 15+ age group

3: ‘A Decent Standard of Living

Indicator: i) Female/Male Estimated Earned Income share per capita per annum.”

For GEM they are:

“ 1: ‘Political Participation and Decision-making Power’

Indicators: i) % Share of Parliamentary Seats (elected); ii) % Share of Seats in Legislature (elected); iii) % Share of Seats in ZillaParishads (elected); iv) % Share of Seats in Gram Panchayats (elected); v) % Candidates in Electoral Process in National Parties in the Parliamentary election and vi) % Electors Exercising the Right to Vote in the Parliamentary election.

2. ‘Economic Participation and Decision-making Power’

Indicators: i) % Share of officials in service in Indian Administrative Service, Indian Police Service and Indian Forest Service; and ii) % Share of enrolment in medical and engineering colleges. . Dimensions, Indicators, Goal Posts and Weights for HDI, GDI and GEM

3: ‘Power over Economic Resources’

Indicators: i) % Female/Male with Operational Land Holdings; ii) % Females/Males with Bank Accounts in Scheduled Commercial Banks (with credit limit above Rs. 2 lakh); iii) Share of Female/Male Estimated Earned Income Share per capita per annum.”